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#### THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

IS CANADIAN FARMLAND A GROWTH STOCK?
THE FINANCIAL RISKS AND RETURNS FROM INVESTING CAPITAL IN
CANADIAN AND ALBERTA FARMLAND, 1970-1986.

RY

(c)

CATHERINE A. MAIN FREEMAN

#### A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE

DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF RURAL ECONOMY
EDMONTON, ALBERTA

**SPRING**, 1988

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DEGREE: MASTER OF SCIENCE

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED: 1988

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# THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

# FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled is Canadian Farmland a Growth Stock? The Financial Risks and Returns from Investing Capital in Canadian and Alberta Farmland, 1970-1986, submitted by Catherine A. Main Freeman in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Science in Agricultural Ecomnomics.

Supervisor

Date: 10 1-1988

# ABSTRACT

During the period 1970 to 1986 Canadian and Alberta farmland can be characterized as a growth stock. Values of farm real estate have been rising more rapidly than the rate of inflation, displaying a form best described by a cubic polynomial function. Growth in farm real estate values has therefore not been constant, but has averaged 47%, representing an overall increase in real estate values of nearly 150% during the period.

As farm real estate prices have changed returns to capital invested in Canadian and Alberta farm real estate have been variable. While annual income from rent has remained a constant 0.7% of real estate values, returns in the form of capital gains in farm real estate values have ranged from a high of 19.5% in 1974 to a low of -11,3% in 1983 and were positive for only 9 out of the 17 years in the study. Despite this variability, real returns to equity capital invested in farmland averaged 4.0% from 1970 to 1986.

The variability in both farm real estate prices and returns during the period 1970 to 1986 left those who had capital invested in farm real estate facing several different types of risk. Unpredictable prices posed a risk to holding farm real estate as a single asset investment portfolio. It was found that diversification of a single asset portfolio somewhat reduced price risk. Uncertainty in the magnitude of returns had an impact of the financial position of the business. During 7 out of the 17 years in the study, business growth in Canada and Alberta was negative, even though in total, the aggregate farmer in Canada had a minimum of \$5.99 worth of assets (and \$5.00 in equity) covering every dollar of debt and farm assets were 85.5% equity owned.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Every project, especially one as demanding as preparation of a thesis, the site and encouragement of friends and family members scattered from Alberta, to New York and Washington, D.C.

Planting Secretariat of Alberta Agriculture extended their wise counsel and appropriate perspectives in addition to their unquestioning support and excepting entert. I am grateful for the financial funding provided by Alberta Agriculture under the auspices of the Planning Secretariat.

Milder both of the Department of Rural Economy, University of Alberta shared data and background materials which they had collected. When data related questions arose, staff of the Edmonton and Ottawa offices of both Statistics Canada and Farm Credit Corporation were attentive, courteous and very helpful in fielding-questions, and praviding data whether unpublished or newly published. Mr. David Freshwater, serving the U.S. Senate, graciously provided me with the pieces of data which completed my research; a hard to come by copy of Statistics Canada Catalogue Number 21-603E.

The first typed draft was cheerfully deciphered from pages full of scribbles and corrections by James Freeman. He also read and reread the initial drafts, helping edit, providing counsel and encouragement. He then dedicated long hours as my draftsman and helper despite the demands of his own hectic schedule. I cannot express how grateful I am for his help, his

friendship and his love.

The technicalities of polishing the final drafts were facilitated by Dr. Stavros Papadopulos of S.S. Papadopulos and Associates, Inc. who most graciously and generously extended to me the use of his firm's resources. I am grateful for the use of the S.S. Papadopulos and Associates, Inc. offices, photocopiers, high quality printers, plotters, computers.

Dr. M.M. Veeman, my advisor from the Department of Rural Economy, University of Alberta initiated the project with her ideas. She then graciously accomodated a long distance student/ advisor relationship. In the final stages of the project, her careful editing of the manuscript added polish to the final product. Before this manuscript is completely finished, it will have the touches of two other people, the members of my defence committee, Dr. Len Bauer, Department of Rural Economy and Dr. Glen Mumey, Dean of the Department of Business Administration, University of Alberta.

Last but not least, there was one old dog who sat with me through every hour during every stage of this project. I am grateful to Woody for his faithful companionship.

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#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Canadian farmland is not sold on a stock exchange, nor does it appear on stock lists, but investment in farmland for the past forty years has been considered to be an excellent hedge against inflation and as an opportunity to realize positive capital gains. The potential of a profitable farm investment must seem enticing to an investor who comes across a magazine advertisement similar to one that appeared in the June, 1987 issue of Cattleman. In the advertisement, large tracts of deeded land were offered for sale. The land sale was purported to "present an excellent agricultural investment opportunity -- (due to) today's lower land values..." (p. 29). It could be questioned whether the concerns of a farmland investor may differ from or be similar to those of other investors. Investors in both farmland and more traditional types of investments expect that they will benefit in some designated way. In both cases the anticipated benefits must outweigh the economic and noneconomic costs of the investment.

In 1979, Emanuel Melichar of the Federal Reserve Board classified U.S. farmland as a growth stock. By doing so he implied that investment in farmland was similar to buying shares of, say, Xerox or IBM which are viewed as growth stocks. In a growth stock, capital appreciation is an appreciable component of the returns derived from owning these assets. This thesis is concerned whether the characterization of farmland as a growth stock also applies in Canada and in Alberta. Furthermore, if farmland can thus the characterized as a growth stock, how does this effect an investor's perception of his financial position before and after the transaction? How does this affect the farmer, who is primarily a businessman, trying to make

a profit from his assets?

This study will attempt to answer these questions by identifying, describing and measuring the changes over time in returns form farming activities and from ownership of Canadian and Alberta farmland. Melichar's model of growth accounting is applied and returns to real estate and farm assets are calculated for the years from 1970 to 1986. In addition, the repercussions of holding a large proportion of a family's wealth in a growth stock such as farmland are discussed in terms of impacts on the farm business.

With these objectives as a guide, Chapter 2 of this study contains an outline of the theoretical background to land valuation issues and discusses literature from this area. Then the methodology used for quantifying and qualifying growth is discussed in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, the results of the spreadsheet analysis are presented. Finally, these data are used to analyze the impacts of changing asset values on farm level risk in Canada. The results are given in Chapter 5. It is concluded that the behavior of a growth stock such as Canadian farm land has profound impact on the characteristics of an investor's portfolio. In the case of the farmer, these impacts affect his business, his income and his family wealth.

#### 2. BACKGROUND

The purchase or holding of farmland is an investment decision. Whether buying or holding land, the purchaser is willing to forego investing in an alternative capital investment in return for the benefits that he expects will accrue from the ownership of land. The seller may be willing to liquidate his capital held in the form of farmland if other forms of investment or monetary use have become more attractive or if it is felt that he can earn a fair salvage value. How much to pay for land and how much to sell land for are decided by the investors, which buyer or seller, on the basis of certain macroeconomic and microeconomic criteria.

# 2.1 A MARKET FOR FARMLAND

The price of land is established in a free marketplace. In a perfectly functioning land market, pricing will be efficient if there are a large number of buyers and sellers, any one of whom does not influence the entire market; if there is perfect freedom of entry and exit; if the parcels are homogeneous so that prices differentiate only on the basis of quality and location; and if there is perfect knowledge in the marketplace.

However, there are conditions peculiar to land which impede efficient market functioning. Parcels of land are heterogeneous, differing in location and quality. Parcels sold in any one period, for example in a year, represent only a small proportion of land held. In addition, land is immobile and unstandardized. Where farmland is traded in relatively unorganized low-volume local markets or in cases where the transactions

themselves take years to complete, market information is not perfect (Robison et al. 1985).

Despite these inefficiencies in the farmland marketplace, there is competition for capital from both within and without the agricultural section. Within the sector, farmers who currently earn large enough returns to hold their capital in farming establish prices. Outside the sector, returns from alternate uses of capital establish a benchmark for returns to capital invested in farm real estate. The investor, in deciding the most profitable investment choice, will take such considerations into account. Factors such as high general inflation or a weak dollar which influence the performance of the entire economy also affect an investor's time value of money, perception of risk and the price he is willing to pay (Tweeten, 1980; Aplin et al. 1977; Castle and Hoch 1982).

# 2.2 SUPPLY AND DEMAND FOR FARMLAND

The price of a resource such as land is a function of supply and demand. The price will vary from region to region due to physical differences. Soil type, climate and management practices effect fertility, subsequent crop types and crop yields. Upward or downward shifts in productivity due to capital improvements such as irrigation, drainage or capital attrition through leaching, erosion or salinization will have a direct impact on the price an investor is willing to pay (Tweeten, 1966).

The price of land is generally affected more by demand factors than by supply side factors. Land is a resource that in aggregate is limited in

quantity. There is some disagreement regarding the degree of scarcity. Some researchers feel that the aggregate quantity of land is fixed because new and cannot be developed despite strong demand (e.g. Reinsel and Reinsel, 1979; Burt, 1986). They feel that the aggregate supply of land is unresponsive to changes in price and thus completely inelastic as depicted in Figure 2.1 by the vertical supply line S<sub>1</sub>. Others, like Hughes et al. 1984, maintain that "the total supply of land is not fixed. Price increases for land can lead to land improvements, while price declines can lead to removal of farmland for other uses. It can be expected therefore that the supply of farmland in the U.S. has a small positive slape" (p.757). In Figure 2.1, S<sub>2</sub> is depicted with a small positive slape and available quantity (q<sub>1</sub> to q<sub>2</sub> in Eigure 2.1) increases slightly with increased price (p<sub>1</sub> to p<sub>2</sub>).

Taking either perspective, a classic supply function for land does not exist. At best, it can be described as very inelastic - at worst, totally inelastic. Therefore demand for land will be the major factor in determining the price (Burt, 1986).

Reinsel and Reinsel (1979) give a list of macroeconomic factors which would give rise to increased demand for land. In brief these are:

- 1) Population growth increases the demand for space.
- 2) Inflation.
  - a) Buyers see land as a hedge against rising prices.
  - b) The returns to land may inflate more than the returns to other types of capital.
- 3) Changing access to financing and varying credit terms.
  - a) Lower interest rates from concessional credit.
  - b) Longer repayment periods:

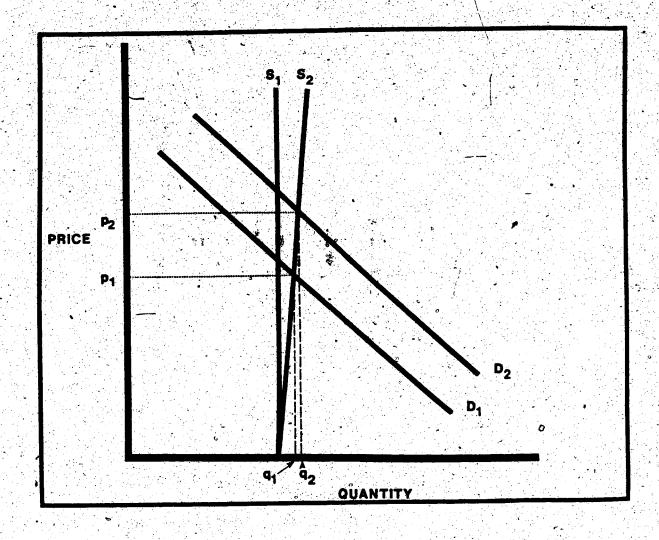


Figure 2.1 Theoretical supply and demand curves for aggregate farmland. While a classic supply curve for aggregate farmland does not exist, two descriptions of the aggregate relationship for supply of farm land are proposed. One views the curve as completely inelastic  $(S_1)$ , the other sees the supply of farm land as very inelastic  $(S_2)$ . Assuming an inelastic supply curve, the aggregate quantity of farmland supplied will respond only a very little  $(q_1-q_2)$  to increases in price  $(p_1-p_2)$ . Price increases may be caused by a shifting of the demand curve for aggregate farm land  $(D_1-D_2)$ .

- c) Lower required down payments.
- d) Government guarantees for marginal borrowers.
- 4), Taxation-policies which favor different types of assets.
  - a) Production receipts.
  - b) Capital gains or land appreciation.
  - c) Real estate inheritance and estate taxes.
- 5) Increased demand for agricultural exports.
- 6) Preferential use or assessment of land.
- 7) Stabilization of farm incomes.
  - a) Increasing value of farm production.
  - b) Reducing risk of farm earnings.

As depicted in Figure 2.1, any of the factors listed above would shift demand for land to the right, from D<sub>1</sub> to D<sub>2</sub>. Since farmers and nonfarmers "have different sources of income, use land in different ways, and might have different portfolio balancing preferences, their demands for land can shift over time in divergent ways". (Hughes et al. 1984, p.755). Their demand for land will be more elastic and responsive to changes in price if they can either find attractive substitutes for land (e.g. a technology which enables output to be produced at a lower cost per unit (Doll and Orazem, 1978)) or if a large percentage of their income is spent on land.

The different demands for land imposed by investors may be broken into three main types: productive, consumptive and speculative. Productive demand refers to the pressure exerted by economies of scale toward larger parcels of land as a means of achieving productive efficiency. Consumptive demand provides noneconomic benefits to the investor. Investor motivation to own land may be for: 1) a country residence or retreat; 2) an area for private recreation; 3) obtaining or maintaining a preferred lifestyle or 4) keeping land in a family (Pope and Goodwin, 1984; Pope, 1985). Speculative demand is generated by individuals who consider investment in land as a hedge against

Schmitz, 1982). Despite the problems of quantification of a myriad of economic and noneconomic factors, the marketplace brings all those motives to a common denominator -- the sum which each investor is willing to pay for these tors.

# 2.3 THE INVESTMENT DECISION

According to the assumptions of simple microeconomic theory, the goal of the firm is to maximize profits. However, this is not always the case for an investor in farmland. Aplin et al. (1977) state that "maximizing profit is not always synomynous with maximization of owner's wealth. Wealth maximization is a more inclusive goal than profit maximization. It takes into account earnings per dollar invested by owners and risk associated with these earnings as well as other factors which affect the value of the firm" (p.3).

Capital investment involves the estimation of future trends. These depend on the investor's individual attitudes to the risks and opportunities in investment (profitability), his financial position (feasibility) and his position in his life and business cycle. From investor to investor, expectations of the future will be heterogeneous because experiences and interpretations of the past differ. One consequence of this heterogeneity was identified by Brown and Brown (1984) who argue that it may be the extreme investor who establishes the price of land; the financially secure, the optimist or the risk taker; not the average investor with average expectations.

# 2.4 THE CAPM NET PRESENT VALUE APPROACH TO LAND VALUATION

A technique that is commonly used to estimate returns and to compare the profitability of alternative investments is the capital asset pricing model (CAPM). A simple CAPM model often utilized by land appraisers and land value researchers for its clarity of interpretation is the capitalization formula. It is represented by the mathematical relationship:

$$V = I/r (Eq. 2.1)$$

where V is the current value of land, I is the annualized earning generated by the land and r is the chosen discount rate. Conceptually, Equation 2.1 describes land values (V) as a function of the relationship between, earnings generated by assets (I) and the opportunity cost of capital (r). If expected earnings rise, so will land values. If expected earnings decline, land values will decrease.

The assumptions underlying Equation 2.1 are that land is a durable and non-depreciating asset with a productive-life that infinite in length. Consequently, the stream of services which land vides continues into perpetuity. Long run expectations for returns and the cost of capital are assumed to be constant. The planning horizon is therefore assumed to be infinite. However, Barry et al. (1979) state that the capitalization formula has limited applicability over a time period of twenty years or less.

The net present value criterion of the CAPM is commonly applied to a future stream of cash flows in order to translate them into a current value. Examples of applications of this technique are found in case studies by

Barry (1980), Bauer (1983), Carter (1981), Castle and Hoch (1982), Dobbins et al. (1981), Melichar (1979), Reinsel and Reinsel (1979), Tweeten (1980) and White and Musser (1982).

Although the CAPM is widely used to estimate land values, there are reasons to caution against the unquestioning application of the model and its valuing technique. These are listed by Barry (1980) as follows:

- 1) Markets are assumed to be highly efficient so that expected returns quickly and fully reflect available information.
- 2) Transfer costs, tax obligations and indivisibilities are assumed not to exist.
- 3)Lending and borrowing rates are considered equal for risk-free financial assets.
- 4)Investors are assumed to be gisk-averse, we'll-diversified and to hold homogeneous expectations that are fully characterized by means and variances over single period horizons.

Critics of CAPM voice concern regarding the application of the model to land values since:

- 1) The land market is inefficient because of the local, low-volume and immobile nature of land (Carter, 1981; Kost, 1968). In addition, the operators of inefficient units are often unaware of better, alternative uses of their resources and thus buy land.
- 2)Land does not fit into a well-diversified portfolio because it is illiquid and indivisible (Carter, 1981).
- 3) Land investors do not hold homogeneous expectations (Carter, 1981; Brown and Brown, 1984).

While there is little doubt that there are valid concerns about the applicability of the CAPM, it is important to assess whether or not the explanatory capacity of the CAPM is diminished by modifying or relaxing some of the basic assumptions. Few disagree that the CAPM forms an appropriate starting point for estimating the value of assets such as farm real estate. However, there is less unanimity in the specification of how the

expectations of future net cash flows are formed and the appropriate discount factor to use.

Subsequent sections will discuss the specification of the discount rate and the earnings stream under less rigorous assumptions and facilitate a more realistic and flexible application of the relationships represented by the capitalization formula.

# 2.5 DISCOUNTRATES

#### 2.5.1 Simple Rates of Return

By rearranging the capitalization formula (Eq. 2.1) to:
$$r = I/V \qquad (Eq. 2.2)$$

the ratio of asset earnings to investment price is determined. As a simple rate of return, it is a variable sensitive to the magnitude and variations in earnings (I) and to changes in farmland prices (V). This simple rate is realized if there is no consideration of any outside factors.

#### 2.5.2 Actual Realized Rates of Return: The Discount Rate

Tweeten (1981) cautions that the actual rate of return, which he defines as the rate which compensates savers for postponing consumption in the absence of price changes, may differ from the simple rate of return due to risk or to both tangible and intangible benefits of holding farmland. The actual rate of return is also referred to as the discbunt rate which reflects the cost of capital or opportunity cost of funds committed to the purchase of farmland (Boehlje and Eidman 1984).

#### 2.5.3 A Complex Discount Rate for Equity Financing

If a sophisticated investor adjusts his discount rate to better reflect his environment, the adjustment might be based on the riskiness of land investment when compared to alternative investments; differences in expected rates of growth in earnings and differences in the noneconomic benefits associated with alternative investments (Boehlje and Eidman, 1984). The component parts of the more complex discount rate are specific to each investor. The choice of a discount rate must adequately reflect the fact that returns received early are of more value to the investor than returns received late, because he can reinvest early earnings at the cost of depital. Brown and Brown (1984) define an investor's perception of uncertainty as the differing probability estimates that decision makers have for future events.

as risk, earnings, growth, noneconomic benefits or taxes in addition to inflation the actual realized rate of return is no longer equal to the simple rate. For any time period t, the compound discount rate might be:

$$r = (1+rm)^{t}(1+rr)^{t}(1+ri)^{t}(1-rg)^{t}(1-rn)^{t}(1-rx)^{t} - 1$$
 (Eq. 2.3)

If this rate remains constant into perpetuity, the model becomes:

$$r = (rm + rr + ri - rg - , rn - rx)$$
 (Eq. 2.4)

where all rates are annual and:

r = the actual realized (effective) aggregate discount rate;

rm = the simple discount rate, cost of capital or feat monetary interest rate; rr = the risk premium for investment in land;

ri = the expected real inflation rate;

rg = the expected growth rate in earnings;

rn = the rate of noneconomic returns to ownership;

rx = the marginal tax rate; and

t = time, in years.

The relationships developed in Equation 2.4 imply that an investor is willing to accept an actual realized return to farmland that is less than the simple market rate (rm) if he is receiving or expects to receive growth in earnings from farmland (in income or in capital gains), if he values noneconomic benefits from land ownership (Kost, 1968) or if he has a low marginal tax rate. If, on the other hand, the investor faces rates of inflation or risk he will demand a realized rate of return which is higher than the simple discount rate (Doll and Widdows, 1981).

While making no stipulation as to magnitudes, one can appreciate the direction of the influence that each of the variables will have on farm land values if Equation 2.4 is incorporated into the simple capitalization formula (Eq. 2.1). The present value of land will increase if the aggregate discount rate decreases. This will occur, if:

- 1) The expected growth rate of earnings rises relative to inflation or alternative investment earnings.
- 2) The rate of return for noneconomic benefits of land ownership rises.
- 3)The marginal tax rate, which favors capital gains income above taxable cash income, increases.
- 4)Income taxes, property taxes or capital gains taxes decrease.
- 5) The real monetary interest rate, the general inflation

rate, or the risk premium for land investment falls. When tax or inflation factors are included, both cash flow earnings and discount rates must be adjusted (White and Musser, 1982; Robison et al, 1985).

Any of these exogenous influences on the returns to land might be incorporated into an individual's discount rate for long-run or short-run investment analysis. In practice, Burt (1986) argues that market participants will simply use an estimated long-run equilibrium real rate of interest as the discount rate in the capitalization formula. His justification is that investment in land is a long term investment entailing large transaction costs and thus all influences and considerations besides long-run real interest rates are inconsequential (p.12).

# 2.5.4 A Complex Discount Rate for Debt Financing.

In addition to the rate adjustments which are necessary for equity purchasers to evaluate Equation 2.4, several adjustments to the discount rate are used when debt capital finances the farm land purchase. Models presented by workers such as Dobbins et al. (1981) and Tweeten (1981) include adjustments for the required rate of return on equity. (rm in Equation 2.4), the interest rate on borrowed funds and the proportion of the purchase financed by debt and equity. Tweeten (1981) focuses on the difference between the simple discount rate as a measure of the rate of return on farmland (rm) and the cost of inflation adjusted debt capital. Tweeten terms this difference mew. The actual discount rate (r) can be adjusted to reflect the use of debt capital by:

$$r = [rm - (ri\mu L)/rm]$$
 (Eq. 2.5)

where L is the ratio, of debt to equity and the other terms are as previously

defined for Equation 2.4.

The implications of a debt financing term such as the one defined in Equation 2.5 are twofold. First an investor is willing to accept a lower actual return on farmland (r) if he has underpriced or positively leveraged debt financing (Tweeten, 1981). Secondly, as the ratio of debt to equity rises, the effective aggregate discount rate (r) falls causing land values to rise. This trend is exaggerated if the real monetary interest rate (rm) representing the rate of return on farmland exceeds the cost of debt capital. On the other hand, if the cost of debt capital exceeds the return from farmland, land prices will decline. The economic well-being of an investor will be enhanced by the purchase of an asset which promises a rate of return in excess of the estimated cost of capital (Alpin et al. 1977).

Concessional credit rates tend to increase mew and therefore exert upward pressure on land values. Tweeten (1981) suggests, however, that much of the impact of existing concessional credit has been realized and this will consequently have less impact in the future. Concessional credit that has been made available to farmers for the purchase of farmland gives farmers an advantage when bidding for land because these programs enable them to bid a higher price for farmland than nonfarmers.

#### 2.6 EARNINGS FROM LAND OWNERSHIP

Returns to land investment come in several forms. An investor who owns land will receive annual returns in the form of rental payments; for holding land he may gain unrealized returns in the form of capital gains; from operating land he will receive a portion of his net farm income as a

return to the land's productivity.

Earnings have a direct impact on land values. From the simple capitalization formula (Eq. 2.1) it can be seen that as returns to land rise, land values will increase; if earnings decrease, land values will fall. The present value of land is a function of the stream of anticipated earnings. There are, however, two schools of thought concerning the behavior of these earnings. Conschool contends that land values are a function of rental returns alone (e.g. Dobbins et al., 1981); the other school believes that land values are a function of a stream of steadily growing earnings and result in both increased rent and capital gains or losses from appreciating or depreciating land values (e.g. Castle and Hoch, 1982).

#### 2.6.1 Rent

The rental of farm real estate pays the landowner for the services of land and buildings used for farm production. Rent is commonly determined in one of two ways; crop share or cash rent. Crop share rent involves an agreement between landlord and operator under which, for example, the landlord would receive 1/3 of gross crop returns and in return would assist the tenant in a 1/3 split of some agreed variable costs (fertilizer and weed control) and payment of all real estate taxes. The tenant would receive use of the land and buildings, receive 2/3 of gross crop returns, pay 2/3 of the designated variable costs and pay 3/3 of any other costs incurred (Bauer, 1983; Burt, 1986). This arrangement spreads the production and price risks between the landlord and tenant. In return for taking a portion of the risk, the landlord has a chance of a better return than under a cash rental agreement.

Cash rent involves a pre-arranged cash payment based on a specific price per unit (per acre or per animal unit). While cash rents are less common than crop share arrangements, they are widely used in areas where pasture is rented for grazing livestock. The advantage of cash rents is that there is a clear cash outlay for rent and therefore knowledge of rental values is, more precise than are the estimates for crop share rents. Cash rents tend to be lower than crop share rents to compensate cash rent tenants for facing production and price risks alone. Cash rents therefore tend to underestimate overall returns to farmland (Tweeten, 1981).

Many factors influence rental values; the common feature however is that these factors all have an impact on farm level profits. On either a crop or cash basis, rental values are parcel specific (Vantreese et al. 1986) and therefore potential for profit is as heterogeneous as the natural resources of farm land -- soil fertility, mineral resources, climate and location. Rental values will change in response to profits generated by technologies which increase the efficiency of input combinations or decrease per unit cost of outputs (Doll and Orazem, 1978). They will also reflect any changes in farm product prices due to increases in foreign exports or domestic demand for agricultural products (Tweeten, 1980).

From the analysis of land values and cash rental values between 1961 and 1978 in ten midwestern U.S. states, Tweeten (1981) concluded that "farmland earnings have kept pace with sharply rising land prices in recent years. Based on reasonable expectations of future land earnings, current land prices are in a fifted by prospective future earnings from land used for farming alone. It is not necessary to introduce explanations such as speculation, urban encroachment or tax hedges to justify the current value

of farmland" (p. 20). Using cash rents for leased farmland from eight of the same ten midwestern U.S. states in the period from 1963 to 1983, Alston (1986) drew conclusions that are similar to Tweeten's. In an investigation of rents and land values from 1960 to 1977 in Tippecanoe County, Illinois, Dobbins et al. (1981) found empirical evidence that variation in cash rents explained 94% of the variation in land values. Burt (1986) came to similar conclusions looking at crop share rents and land values from a select homogenous group of Illinois farmers using data from 1961 to 1981.

Using more general aggregate U.S. farmland data from 1910 to 1985 and a more dynamic capitalization model, Featherstone and Baker (1987) suggest that the price of land (farm assets) adjusts until the rate of returns to land is equated with the opportunity cost of investing in land along a time path of adjustments which consists of a series of shocks and reactions. They describe a dynamic "price bubble" adjustment in real asset values, real returns to assets and the real interest rate during the period from 1973 to 1984. They conclude that this bubble was largely driven by a shock to returns in 1973 and that real interest rates had only a very small influence on returns during the period.

#### 2.6.2 Rent and Capital Gains

If rental values were increasing and in addition if they were perceived to be steadily growing, they could be incorporated into the simple capitalization formula (Eq. 2.1) as:

$$V = [(1 + I_g)/(r_m - r_g)]$$
 \* Ir (Eq. 2.6)

where:

V = land values.

I, = annual return (rent).

= capital gains due to a growth in current earnings.

r<sub>m</sub> = discount rate; real money interest rate.

g = expected growth rate in earnings.

If growth in rental earnings was expected to be constant and perpetual, this factor would be expressed by the capitalization model of Equation 2.7. Growth in earnings based on different assumptions than these are discussed in subsequent sections.

Introducing growth as both a growth in earnings (Ig) and a corresponding growth rate in the discount rate (rg) causes land values to become very sensitive to even small rates of growth. "Capital gains themselves result from capitalization of a growing rent stream" (Featherstone and Baker, 1987, p. 533).

Capital gain returns occur when there are market changes in the value of a land owner's property. Capital gains include only price changes due to capital appreciation; they do not include changes in price due to changes in land quality or inflation. A capital gain increase in land value will increase the purchasing power of the land holder's net worth so that he could increase his consumption without reducing his net worth (Huff and Cusack, 1972). It is a return, though unrealized, to the land owner for simply holding his land while the market changed.

While unrealized, annual capital gains are considered to have value for several reasons. Firstly, capital gains serve to reduce risk by decreasing the degree to which equity is leveraged. Secondly, the gains provide reserves of equity which increase financial flexibility and the potential for business expansion (Plaxico and Klethe, 1979). Thirdly, unrealized capital gains take the place of savings and retirement funds which would have to be set aside if equity were not increasing. This increased equity serves as potential collateral for additional borrowing (Brinkman, 1981). Although capital gains are not realized annually, consideration of them is necessary to properly evaluate rates of return on investment in farm capital (Boyne, 1964; Brinkman, 1981).

Negative capital gains have the opposite effect of positive gains. Capital losses erode equity. The business will experience the consequent rise in financial risk as borrowing power shrinks and equity becomes ever more highly leveraged. The loss of real wealth will shrink the value of savings stored in the form of farmland. When capital gains are negative, the purchasing power of the land holder's net worth will decrease. He would have to decrease his consumption (business uses of equity or family, withdrawals) in order to maintain the same level of net worth.

The difference between rent and capital gains is that while rent is an annual income return or flow which the landowner can expect for the productive services of his property, capital gains are a stock return to a landowner for holding property as the market value changed.

While rent may not always represent a cash income (i.e. for the owner/operator, rent is not cash income), it is usually a positive return. Capital gains, however, represent a return which can be either positive or negative.

#### 2.6.3 Inflation

If the economy was in a stationary competitive equilibrium where all prices for assets and commodities inflated at the same rate as the general inflation rate, land prices in real terms would in effect, remain constant. However, in a dynamic economy, one in which inflation is not neutral (White and Musser, 1982), land rents and land values which increase in excess of the general inflation rate will experience what is termed "real" value increases (Feldstein, 1982; Tweetern, 1981). Appreciation of asset values will result in an increase in the burchasing power of the land owner's net worth which can be viewed as an increase in real wealth. Real and nominal dollar values will be discussed further in Methodology 3.1.3 and used in deriving the results given in Chapter 4.

# 2.7 CAPITAL GAIN

#### 2.7.1 Capital Gains in a No-Growth Model

Adaptations of the Net Present Value (NPV) models for land valuation by inclusion of a growth variable vary somewhat in their scope and limitations. In a non-growth model these capital gains would be considered as an unanticipated occurrence or windfall. In the NPV method of evaluating investments there are several ways of handling a one time capital gain and growth in net worth. The most general model and the one which requires the fewest assumptions is of the form:

$$V_0 = P_0 + R_1/(1+r) + R_2/(1+r)^2 + ... + R_0/(1+r)^n + P_1/(1+r)^n$$
(Eq. 2.7)

where:

 $V_0$  = the present value of the asset.

Po = the present purchase price

R<sub>1</sub> ... R<sub>n</sub> = the net earnings per period in secturing from the ownership of the asset. Note that in does not necessarily denote a uniform time series.

P<sub>1</sub> = the salvage value to be earned after the period n.

r = the discount rate.

This model accommodates uneven earnings, different planning horizons and an expectation for either a capital gain or loss realized at the end of the planning period upon disposal of the asset -- a one time capital gain. The model is based on the premise that the value of net earnings today is worth more than it would be in the future due to investment potential.

Using similar assumptions, Plaxico and Klethe (1979) examine the capital gains return expected over the length of a finite planning period (n):

$$V_0 = \{(P_n - P_0)(1 - T_0)\} / \{[1 + D(1 - T)](1 + Z)\}^{\frac{n}{2}}$$
 (Eq. 2.8)

where:

V<sub>0</sub> = the present value of an asset.

P<sub>0</sub> = the present purchase price.

R<sub>n</sub> = the sale price of property at the end of the planning period.

T = the marginal tax rate.

T<sub>c</sub> = the marginal tax rate on capital gains.

D = the discount rate.

Z = the general inflation rate.

The model of Plaxico and Klethe is limited, however, because it does

not consider the income stream derived from land ownership in the form of net rent. When both sources of income are considered, a simple derivation using the general model offered by Brealey and Myers (1981) is helpful, for it demonstrates the components which influence an investor's perception of the present value of land. If land were to be held for one year its price would be a function of the rent and the capital gains which were realized:

$$P_0 = (DIV_1 + P_1) / (1 + r)$$
 (Eq. 2.9)

where

P<sub>o</sub> = the present value of land

P<sub>1</sub> the salvage value of the land at the end of one year.

DIV<sub>1</sub> = the dividend or rental income gained.

r = the discount rate.

If the land were kept for two years, the present value would be:

$$P_0 = DIV_1/(1+r) + (DIV_2 + P_2)/(1+r)^2$$
 (Eq. 2.10)

If the land were held until year H, the present value becomes:

$$P_0 = DIV_1/(1+r) + DIV_2/(1+r)^2 + ... + (DIV_H + P_H)/(1+r)^H$$
(Eq.2.11)

As H approaches infinity, a reasonable assumption, since land could conceivably remain productive throughout time, the present value of its terminal value approaches zero. If an infinite planning horizon is assumed, the present value of land can be expressed as a perpetual stream of cash rents in the form:

$$P_0 = SUM^2(P(V_1 / (1 + r)^2))$$

This formulation does not explicitly exclude capital gains. It has been derived from the assumption that the present value of land is a function of income from both rent and capital gains with the additional restriction that the planning horizon of the investor is infinite. Doll and Widdows (1981) rationalize this assumption as follows: "At the end of t periods the asset may be sold and the sale value discounted back to the present. But the sale value is determined by the earnings from time t + 1 into the future. Each time the asset is sold, earnings are again extended into the future, and hence, without limit" (p. 730).

If the further assumption that there will be equilibrium in the long run so that constant expectations of returns and discount rate will prevail is placed on the model, the Brealey and Myers model can be simplified to:

$$P_0 = DIV / r$$
 (Eq. 2.13)

This is essentially the capitalization formula of Equation 2.1. The capitalization formula therefore includes the concept of capital gains, but does so under very restrictive assumptions of an infinite planning horizon and long run equilibrium. In addition, Melichar (1979) notes that changes in variables DIV or r will result in a new equilibrium value of P<sub>0</sub>. The amount of change in P<sub>0</sub> is a capital gain.

# 2.7.2 Capital Gains in NPV Growth Models

In contrast to the assumption of one time capital gains in non growth models, capital gains in growth models are expected to occur annually throughout the planning period, even during intervals of equilibrium.

A NPV model used by Plaxico and Klethe (1979) describes the present value of land in which unrealized capital gains are viewed as the only income stream. The form of this model is:

$$V_1 = SUM[(P_i-P_{(i-1)})(A)]/(X)^i + [P_n-P_0(1-A)-(P_n-P_0)T_c]/(X)^n$$
 (Eq. 2.14)

where:

 $V_1$  = the present value of land.

P; = the current price of land.

Po = the current price of land.

 $P_n$  = the salvage value of land.

A = (0 < A < 1) is the proportion of increase in equity per year due to the price increase.

X = the compound discount rate used in the model.

T<sub>c</sub> = the marginal tax rate on capital gains.

The A variable and its interaction with annual capital gains represents an attempt by Plaxico and Klethe to isolate the annual increase in equity caused by land value increases within the time frame of a finite planning horizon. This annual unrealized equity gain is assumed to be available as a financial reserve or as an equity base for expansion. The model is limited in application because it neglects annual regtal income.

Bhatia (1971) provides several alternative suggestions for methods of specifying annual capital gains. However, instead of fising several different models and methods of capital gains specification, many researchers have elected to utilize the various NPV growth models.

Castle and Hoch (1982) use a model in which frent increases by a real amount each year. Their model is of the form:

$$V = (R + C)/(1 + I) + (R + 2C)/(1 + I)^2 + ... + SUM(R + sC)/(1 + I)^5$$
(Eq. 2.15)

where:

R = rent
C = annual real increase in rent
I = the discount rate.

s = year

Not only does this model use real annual rental increases but it condenses into the form:

$$V = (R + C)/I + (C^*I)/I$$
 (Eq. 2.16)

This form is significant because it implies that the present value of land is a function of (R + C)/I, the capitalized annual rental income and (C + I)/I, the capitalized value of capital gains due to increases in rent. An assumption that limits this model is that there is an infinite planning horizon and therefore the terminal salvage value approaches zero. In addition, it is assumed in the long run, equilibrium will prevail so there are constant expectations of rent, annual increase in rent and an appropriate discount rate.

The form more commonly used describes a constant growth trend in earnings as a rate instead of the real amount used by Castle and Hoch (1982). In a constant growth model there may be year to year deviations in actual returns, but as long as the expected returns grow at a constant rate over a time period that approaches infinity, the model is applicable (Brealey and Myers, 1981). The model is of the form:

$$P_0 = DIV_1 / (r - g)$$
 (Eq. 2.17)

Vandeveer (1985) also used this model and concluded that during the

period from 1960 to 1982, the expected growth in earnings (g) became an increasingly important component of annual land value changes in Louisiana.

If the growth in returns is assumed to be constant and perpetual, the form of the NPV model becomes:

$$P_0 = DIV_1/* (1+g)/(r-g)$$
 (Eq. 2.18)

Melichar (1979) uses this form of the growth model to explain growth in U.S. aggregate farmland values from 1950 to 1978.

If the form of the growth model is further constrained by the assumption that expectations are perpetually stable, that is, in the long run there is equilibrium, the form becomes:

Pet = 
$$(1 + g)/(r - g)$$
 DIV $(1 + g)^t$  (Eq. 2.19)

It is this form of the growth model that Melichar (1979) uses to conclude that "the substantial capital gains experienced over most of (the period \$\sqrt{956-1978}\$) were on the whole no greater than those that would have been expected to occur at equilibrium (p. 1090). Doll and Widdows (1981) suggest that the treatment of growth in returns in Equation 2.19 is too limiting because it does not allow the flexibility of assuming the investor may annually reformulate growth rates and earnings as does the equally useful Equation 2.18.

### 2.7.3 Capital Gains in the Farm Accounting System

Capital gains have traditionally been included along with net farm income in estimating returns to farming. However, farm accounting is not

dapted for inclusion of annual unrealized capital gains: Asset values found in the balance sheet are usually listed at cost. Farm accounting systems are often unable to handle both economic and accounting measures of return. Instead, these systems are generally designed to deal with income from sales, rentals, outside income contributed to the farm, wages, contract earnings and similar entries. Farm accounting systems do not easily accommodate capital gains.

Within the farm accounting system, assets are defined on the basis of their lifetime. This lifetime is viewed at a snapshot in time. However, in economic systems, assets like land are defined by the value of a stream of returns. While these are concepts are unreconcilable, in practice the different valuations made from within the two systems may be confused if they are not clearly distinguished while examining such issues as changing land values.

Aukes (1985) clearly defines the difference between accounting income and economic returns by saying that accounting income is an actual entity (e.g. cash receipts), an ex poste measure based on market transactions and prices, whereas economic income is a predicted value or an ex ante, personal concept. Because the two measurements are of incompatible magnitudes, they are not additive and therefore cannot be used interchangeably. An investor who is determining the relative profitability of alternative investments based on the CAPM should only use an economic measure of income. Accounting income is the appropriate measure to use when establishing the financial feasibility and the ability of the investor to make cash payments once he has identified his most profitable investment alternative.

In practice, capital gains are often ignored in the accounting system. The financial statements are drawn up on the basis of the historic, undiscounted purchase values. New acquisitions, reflecting their respective current market prices, are introduced with the purchase of land and are then locked into the financial records at that value. This method is simple since there are no adjustments to be made in the accounts or in the financial statements. Its defenders point out that capital gains are a return which is not captured until the asset is traded and these therefore should not be included in annual accounting of the farm business. However, the procedure could mislead a farmer into thinking that his borrowing capacity is considerably less than if current market values were used to evaluate his assets. The advantage of this method is that the growth of his business is isolated from growth in the value of his assets.

An alternative method of accounting for capital gains in farm financial statements is by updating asset values at fixed time intervals to reflect market values. On the other hand, this method might lead a farmer to conclude that he can carry a higher and higher debt load as land prices rise, leaving him increasing vulnerable to fluctuations in the value of land. Another problem is that with this method alone the farmer cannot distinguish between asset growth and business growth so that he can determine his debt servicing ability. Debt servicing is linked to business growth but not to asset growth.

A third method attempts to overcome the problems associated with the previous two methods by simply combining them. From one set of farm accounts, two sets of financial statements are derived, one reflecting asset purchase value, the other a current market value. Using these two sets of

information, a farmer can determine his business growth, thereby enabling him to assess both his debt servicing ability and his debt incurring capacity. However, this method may be time consuming because of the continual need to update current land value records. In addition it does not resolve the basic conflict between farm accounts which record the flow of income and assets which generate a stock return.

#### 2.8 GROWTH STOCKS

Brealey and Myers (1981) define a growth stock as a stock purchased in expectation of capital gains. It is the future growth of earnings rather than the annual return which is of primary importance. In contrast, an income stock is purchased for its level of dividend or annual return. For example, on a farm level, Melichar (1979) has classified U.S. farmland as a growth stock while a herd of beef cattle would be seen as an income stock. Melichar (1979) concludes: " farm real estate is a 'growth stock' best and most easily owned by those who can tolerate its low annual return in the first few years after its purchase" (p. 1091).

### 2.8.1 Financial Market Growth Stock vs. Land Growth Stock

Whether capital is invested in a stock market growth stock or in land, it has similar characteristics: low rates of annual return and real wealth gains due to asset appreciation. However both the stocks and the investors are quite different. Stocks in the Standard and Poor 500 list of blue-chip stocks had price/earnings (P/E) ratios that ranged between 13 and 20 in the first 10 months of 1987. P/E ratios for stock market growth stocks were much higher at 38 for Microsoft and 55 for Homestake Mining. In contrast to

these P/E ratios, the average farm real estate P/E from 1970 to 1986 has been 45 (calculated from Statistics Canada values for value of aggregate farm real estate divided by the value of aggregate rent. The resulting P/E quotients are listed in Table 5.3 and discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.3 titled Financial Risk.).

The investors in these two different growth stocks would typically be in different financial circumstances. The urban investor, using a broker to make the transaction, often pays for his purchase with cash or equity capital. The farmer, dealing directly with the seller, his banker and his lawyer would typically make the transaction using a large percentage of debt capital. Both stocks are sold through a bidding process.

The urban investor would often be buying a stock market stock as part of a diversified investment plan. He could own the growth stock, a small business, some inventories, a portion of mutual fund, some savings bonds, insurance, term deposits, and a house. Having his capital investments diversified and a relatively small proportion of his assets tied up in a growth stock would buffer him from financial risk if its value were to decline.

The farmer on the other hand, typically has two-thirds of his capital in his farmland growth stock. His capital is also invested in machinery, crop inventories, livestock, term deposits and insurance. While his capital may be invested in as many different types of assets as his urban counterpart, holding such a large proportion of his capital in one stock will have two effects. First, the farmer places himself in a position where he has potential for large, capital gains if asset values rise. He also

feaves himself vulnerable to substantial real wealth losses if asset values fall. Second, the greater the percentage of his capital which he holds in the form of a growth stock, the less capital he will have available for investment in income producing types of capital. A farmer's choice of portfolio mix therefore will predicate his returns.

# 2.8.2 Melichar's 1979 Study

- Melichar's 1975 and 1979 studies were conducted with aggregate U.S. farm-level data for the period from 1950 to 1978. Melichar reconstructed an annual balance sheet. He adjusted this for inflation based on the arguments of Hoover (1962) and Boyne (1964) and for net investment based on Grove (1960) in order to derive an estimate of the magnitude of real capital gains accruing to farmers from price changes in their assets. Using the most restrictive forms of growth models detailed in Equations 2.19 and 2.20, Melichar compared his estimate of annual real capital gains to aggregate annual net farm income from which he had subtracted an imputed value for returns to operators labor and management. From his work Melichar concluded that;
  - 1)The origin of recent real capital gains could be traced to a rising annual return to assets.
    - 2)"A farm economy characterized by rapid growth in the real annual return to assets (would) tend to experience large annual real capital gains and a low rate of return to assets" (1979, p. 1085).

Although the main focus of Melichar's 1979 work was to discuss the relationship between capital gains and current income, the idea that U.S. land is a growth stock is appealing because it lends a fresh perspective to many current farm issues. If, as Melichar (1979) suggests, land is a growth

stock then many of the problems within the farm sector such as cash flow difficulties, rising debt, financial barriers to entry-level farmers, or the "attraction of farm estate for persons of large wealth or high income" (p. 1091) can all be attributed to a common root. While these same conditions exist in the agricultural sector in Canada, Canadian farmland has not, as yet been characterized as a growth stock.

### 3. METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 THE MODEL

### 3.1.1 Growth: Changes in Land Values

The simplest method of determining whether or not farmland is growing in value is to subtract its beginning value from the end of the year value. The difference is the growth in land values. Only one set of readily available data is needed for the calculation.

However, this method does not facilitate discretization of land value growth into its different sources. These include:

1)Capital gains on farm real estate.

- 2)Investment in technology or improvements which increase the value of land. These include breaking or clearing, the purchase of irrigation systems, electrical systems, fencing or drainage systems.
- 3) Growth in the farm business through increased inventories, decreased debt, increased cash or other liquid assets.
- 4)Inflation in the general economy.

In other words, this method would tend to overestimate growth by including sources other than capital gains.

### 3.1.2 Growth: Changes in Net Worth

Melichar (1979) solved the dilemma of accounting for growth in farmland values by using a combination balance sheet and income statement as the basis for his analysis of the growth in U.S. farm net worth which he used as proxy for U.S. land values. Adopting this strategy, a Canadian

counterpart was designed for this study. There are three distinct parts to the model: the balance sheet, the net investment section and the income statement.

Year by year changes in net worth represent a growth in farm assets. These changes can be readily observed in a financial balance sheet which itemizes assets and liabilities. The value of the owner's net worth on a specific date is calculated by subtracting the value of liabilities from the value of assets at that time.

The balance sheet model used in this study is designed to accommodate available Canadian data. It classifies assets by type instead of by liquidity as is more commonly done. Farm assets are broken into several categories:

- 1) Farm real estate, a fixed asset which includes the value of land and buildings located on at least one acre and generating at least \$250 of agricultural gross sales annually. This is reported in the census.
- 2) Machinery and vehicles, including implements, machinery, motor trucks and automobiles.
- 3) Livestock, including livestock, poultry and fur-bearing animals.
- 4)Other assets, including all current assets such as farmer's stocks, bonds, feed inventories, supply inventories, and crop inventories as well as a small percentage of intermediate and long term non-farm assets.
- Liabilities have not be n itemized. Ideally, the balance sheet would include a breakdown of current and long term debt; however these data were not available.

In order to isolate changes in net worth which are attributable to real capital gain in farmland values, several adjustments needed to be made (Melichar, 1979). This was done in the investment section. Annual changes in new investment, changes in inventories and changes in levels of liquid

assets or liabilities must be subtracted from net worth. Net investment in real estate and machinery consists of capital expenditures less depreciable allowances and accidental damage (Melichar, 1979). The net worth after these adjustments is then representative of nominal or current dollar capital gains.

Theoretically, the adjustments that isolate increases in net worth are a refinement of the farmland capital gains calculation. However, the values required to make these adjustments are not available in Statistics Canada or Taxfiler data. The only available series are offered by the Farm Credit Corporation (FCC) in a form which are only nominally compatible with the States Canada data.

Year by year changes in returns are recorded in the income statement. Usually an income statement is a summary of all income and expenses. For the purposes of this study, only several specific incomes and expenses were included: 1)gross farm rent, which includes both cash and share crop rents; 2)gross farm income which includes cash receipts for agricultural products, income in kind, supplementary payments and value of inventory changes; 3)net farm income, specified as gross farm income minus operating and depreciation charges; 4)interest on debt, the only expense itemized.

It is important to note that net farm income includes only very specific types of income. It does not represent a farmer's total net income since it does not include income from sales of capital assets, pension monies, rental income, interest, or wages. Published data from Statistics Canada shows that in 1976 farm income was 33% of total income; in 1978 it was 26% (Agriculture Canada, 1981, p.53). Therefore neither gross farm

income nor net farm income measure the total returns which a farmer receives and upon which his well being depends.

Gross farm rent, as published by Statistics Canada, includes cash and share crop rental income. In order to use gross farm rent as a representative return from farm real estate, a rental value must be extrapolated from the number of acres rented to the total number of acres farmed. The mathematical adjustment is explained in Appendix 1.3.31. The resulting return, imputed rent, is an estimate of the annual cost to the farmer which is paid to a landlord (or in essence to himself if he is an owner/operator) for the use of the productive services of farmland throughout the year. What is a cost on one side of the ledger becomes a return on the other side. Imputed rent is therefore used instead of gross farm rent as a return to farm real estate.

Annual changes in rates of return can be calculated using various sources of income listed in the income statement and comparing these to asset values. These rates of return are, in turn, used to assess:

- 1)Income generating capacities of capital assets.
- 2) Asset earnings compared to asset prices.
- 3) Current income returns compared to annual unrealized capital gains.
- 4) Returns imputed for management, labor and equity.
- 5) The magnitude of the economic returns expected as annual returns and capital gains are accumulated.

The completed model, including a balance sheet, net investment calculations, an income statement, plus some analysis is displayed in Appendix 1: Table A1.1 contains Canadian aggregate data, Table A1.2 contains aggregate data for Alberta and Table A1.3 describes each variable as it is

, used.

## 3.1.3 Growth: Real Capital Gains

To make an annual comparison of growth, the influences of changes in purchasing power must be accounted for. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is commonly used as the discounting factor for expressing nominal dollars in real or constant terms. The purpose of this adjustment is threefold:

- 1)It serves as an economic indicator of the inflation free dollars or rates.
- 2)It serves as a means to calculate constant, real dollar income.
- 3)It is used to determine changes in the purchasing power of the dollar.

Henceforth in this study, adjusted dollar terms for any value or rate will be referred to alternately as "real" or "constant". Unadjusted dollar terms will be referred to as either "nominal" or "current".

# 3.1.3.1 The Consumer Price Index

The Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a Laspeyres, weighted price index measure of the price changes of a fixed basket of consumer goods (Mason, 1982). Use of the CPI as a composite index of commodities and services used by farmers originated with the use, from 1913 to 1970, of a rural index called the Family Living Index. This index included food, clothing, fuel, household equipment, and health maintenance costs, as well as miscellaneous items such as insurance, telephone and tobacco. In 1970, the Family Living Index was replaced as a farm index by the CPI since the consumption of both urban and rural families were becoming increasingly similar.

The method by which values were deflated from nominal to real dollars was:

(Current money value)/CPI x 100 = real money values

(**E**q. 3.1)

The result was a constant dollar value which can be compared over time with other time series data. The base year for the CPI adjustment was 1981 where 1981=100.

# 3.1.3.2 Two Methodic of Calculating Real Capital Gains

There are at least two ways to approach the calculation of real capital gains. One, the method used by Melichar (1975) and referred to in this study as the Melichar method, first determines nominal capital gains from nominal dollar data and subsequently adjusts them by the change in purchasing power to give real capital gains. The other, is the method derived for use in this study and henceforth referred to as the CMF method, first converts every data series into real dollar values and then calculates real capital gains. Both of these methods have been used in the current work. Conceptually and in their application there are no differences between these procedures although there are some technical dissimilarities.

In Melichar's method of calculation, the calculation of real capital gains from nominal gains can be mathematically expressed as:

$$RCG_{n+1} = \{[(NW_{n+1} - NW_n) - NI_n] - NW_n (-1)[(CPL_{n+1} - CPL_n)/CPL_n]\}$$
 (Eq. 3.2)

where:

RCG<sub>n+1</sub> = real capital gain

n+1 = the current year estimate as of December 31.

n = the previous year estimate as of December 31.

NW = net worth.

NI = net investment.

CPI = the Consumer Price Index.

The first term in Melichar's equation  $[(NW_{n+1} - NW_n) - NI_n]$  represents nominal capital gains. It is composed of  $(NW_{n+1} - NW_n)$ , the change in net worth which has occurred over the year, and  $(NI_n)$ , the net annual investment. The second term in Equation 3.2,  $[NW_n(-1)](CPI_{n+1} - CPI_n)/CPI_n]$ , conceptually is the annual change in purchasing power of the net worth. The first term minus the second term (nominal capital gains minus annual changes in purchasing power of the net worth) renders real capital gains.

However, in the mathematical calculation of annual changes in purchasing power (real dollar values) of the net worth, the Melichar method adjusts only the beginning of the year net worth values by changes in the purchasing power of the dollar instead of accounting for these changes at both the beginning and end of the year. It also does not adjust any of the individual components of net investment by changes in purchasing power over time. The CMF method makes both of these adjustments.

The CMF method calculates real capital gain directly from data adjusted to reflect real dollar values. It can be expressed as:

 $RCG_{n+1} = [(100/CPI_{n+1} \ NW_{n+1} - 100/CPI_n \ NW_n) - (100/CPI_{n+1} \ NI_{n+1} - 100/CPI_n \ NI_n)]$ (Eq. 3.3)

This method transforms each variable into constant dollars by using the CPI. By taking  $(100/\text{CPI}_{n+1} \ \text{NW}_{n+1} - 100/\text{CPI}_n \ \text{NW}_n)$ , the annual change in real net worth year by year and subtracting from this  $(100/\text{CPI}_{n+1} \ \text{NI}_{n+1} - 100/\text{CPI}_n \ \text{NI}_n)$ , the annual change in real net investment, an annual estimate for real capital gains is calculated. Each variable is consistently transformed into constant dollar form.

The differences between the CMF and Melichar methods of calculating real capital gains cause small variations in the estimates of real growth rates in farm assets and real capital gains estimates for farm assets. These estimates are slightly higher calculated by the CMF method than by the Melichar method. The magnitude of this difference is discussed in Results section 4.2.2.1.

2.**T45.**AT

The man considered best suited to estimating the rate of real capital gains to Canadian farm real estate and to farm assets were census data series collected by Statistics Canada. These data are readily available to the public, are broad in geographic coverage and are detailed in farm related statistics. As used in models described in Section 3.1, the data are secondary in nature, are a time series and are at the aggregate level for both federal and provincial information.

# 3.2.1 Secondary data

Statistics Canada data series are widely available and are easily utilized for a study of this kind; as these data are well organized in publications and data bases. Initially, the raw data were collected by

Statistics Canada from farmers across Canada who responded to the census survey. This survey is conducted every five years, concurrently with the national census on the second and seventh years of every decade. Between the most recent census and the coming census year, preliminary figures are released. These yearly estimates are corrected retroactively once the new census has been compiled. Only the corrected, published values have been used in the current work.

All data are reported in dollars. Due to the magnitude of the values, every series is stated in thousands (000) of dollars. The value listed for assets is based on estimates by farmers of the current market value. Actual incomes and liabilities have been reported in their current dollar values.

The secondary data used in this study were gathered for purposes other than evaluating capital gains. There are several sources of nationwide farm financial data: Taxfiler data, Farm Credit Corporation (FCC) data, national farm surveys and other Statistics Canada farmer data. Statistics Canada data were chosen because they report a broader range of information relevant to the entire study than do the other sources even though all had specialized areas of interest that are very clearly reported, including several that contain pertinent information on the farm business.

The choice of relevant variables was as important to this study as the source of data. Except for the new investment and other liquid assets categories, Statistics Canada proved a rich resource for background and peripheral information for continuity in form and length of reporting history. However, even within the Statistics Canada farm series, there was a concern that the sample farm population may have fluctuated in its

definition for each census, although there was no way to control potential problems such as this.

### 3.2.2 Time Series Data

As the purpose of the present study was to observe a pattern of growth in farm real estate and farm asset values over time, the data were by necessity time series in nature, involving an observation of some unit over different points in time. The observation of farms' financial position is made for each year on December 31 on the basis of farm balance sheet and income statements. The unit which is observed in time is an elusive national aggregate farm business based on the sum of individual responses to a particular survey.

When attempting to isolate the cause of changes in value over time in agriculture, the omnipresent influence of technical change, must be accommodated. An attempt was made to compensate for the effects of technical change by limiting the time period covered by the study. It is assumed that technical change will have had an insignificant impact on asset values over the period between 1970 and 1986. This time span has been one of the most dynamic periods of farm asset appreciation in the past century.

# 3.2.3 Financial Data

Financial data are the means by which growth in farm assets is observed. During the search for balance sheet and income statement data, several weaknesses in the Statistics Canada data became apparent:

1)Statistics Canada does not report any of its financial information in the form of a balance sheet. They do report a farm operating income statement. Several series (current, liquid assets,

current liabilities, and family withdrawals) are not available.

2)Because the design of a balance sheet is not the purpose for which the data were gathered, there are inconsistencies in the values reported.

3) Data on the adjustment to net worth through new investment, are not available in a form consistent with other data used in the study.

The compromises made in this study because of these data shortfalls can be summed up as follows:

1) In cases when several valuation dates are reported, the one used is the one closest to December 31 for that year. If only one valuation was made for a date other than December 31, it was assumed that this adequately reflected the end of the year valuation. Specific valuation dates for data from Statistics Canada are given in Appendix 1.3.

2) Since data on current assets and liabilities are not available, no empirical assessments of impacts on cash flow can be made.

3) Two important data series, those for new investment and other assets, were based on from FCC data, adjusted to approximate the scale of national data, and incorporated, into the model. See Appendix 1.3 for the details of this adjustment.

The value of farmer's other assets, are based on data in the annual FCC publication, Farm Credit Statistics. These are reported in the table "Average assets, liabilities and net worth after loan per farm unit". This series includes farmers' stocks, bonds, feed supplies, crop inventories, current assets and a small prercentage of non-farm long and medium term assets. These data were adjusted from a per-farm basis to a Canada or Alberta wide aggregate by multiplying the per farm figure by the number of census farms. Making this adjustment assumes that the asset holdings of all Canadian farmers are are of the same composition as are those of FCC borrowers.

The data series on farmers' new investment reported in the FCC table

new investment for the purposes of this study. The improvements listed by the Farm Credit Statistics are for building, breaking, leveling, irrigation and drainage. To convert the value of these improvements by FCC clients to an aggregate estimate for all Canadian farms, the values of the improvements were divided by the total number of loans approved (from the same FCC table); the quotient, was then multiplied by the number of census farms in Canada as reported by Statistics Canada. Making this adjustment assumes that expenditure on farm improvements associated with new investment by all members of the general farm population is the same as for FCC borrowers. The figure does not include public monies which have been spent on agricultural improvements.

In addition to the adjustments involved in imputation of data from FCC data series described above, the Statistics Canada data series have been adjusted to exclude values from Newfoundland. These data were not consistently reported during the period from 1970 to 1986. For example, Newfoundland values for total net farm income, value of inventory change and interest on farm debt have only been reported since 1972; the value of capital has only been reported since 1976 and outstanding farm debt has only been reported since 1981. Values for the Yukon and Northwest Territories are not reported in any of the survey data reported in this study.

### 3.2.4 Aggregate Data

The data reported in this study represent an aggregation of values for all farmers in the census across Canada or Alberta. Since the data are not available on a cross-sectional basis, financial heterogeneities between farm businesses cannot be detected and attributed to differences in enterprise.

location, size, management, entrepreneurial or other skills of a farm owner. For example, the study does not incorporate ways to detect differences in business growth rates, estimate returns or profitability between a 10 acre potato farmer in Prince Edward Island or a 10,000 acre cattle rancher in British Columbia. Rather, interpretation of the results can be made only on a sectorial level.

Aggregation is expected to smooth out heterogeneities in the data, so discussion of the results is in terms of aggregate levels and trends in the data. Nonetheless, it is anticipated that awareness of national and regional trends may be valuable in identifying some of the impacts of changing land and farm asset values on the farm business.

#### 3.3 LIMITATIONS

If the data or the conceptual base of an analysis is incorrect, misspecified or inconsistent it will result in wrong, incomplete or inconsistent conclusions (Heady, 1961). In view of the large body of data from different sources, it is possible that the major limitations to the study may be from errors of data observation and specification rather than errors of conceptualization.

### 3.3.1 Observational Error

"People responding to official questionnaires often lie, out of fear of government scrutiny or desire to mislead the competition. 'Nothing like this occurs in nature' - economics is notorious for using second hand data, collected for other purposes, whose logic may be legal or bureaucratic rather than economic. The profits reported on balance sheets may have little to do with real profits. Many official statistical series are completely incompatible with one another" (Kuttner, 1985, p. 79).

Errors of observation such as those referred to by Kuttner include

those that may have occurred during the initial transcription or initial documentation and the final transcription into the data set of this study.

The bias which observational error may have introduced into the study cannot be identified:

### 3.3.2 Specification Error

Specification bias may arise due to the need to compromise or use less than ideal methods or variables. This need stems from a lack of pertinent data or from incorrect or inadequate variables. As a result of the need to compromise, assumptions are made, approximations are substituted for actual figures and methods are adapted.

Possible specification problems of the data used in the study are outlined in this chapter (Chapter 3: Methodology) and in Appendix 1.3. In addition, Appendix 1.3 details the adjustments made in the data to overcome the problems of data compatibility discussed in this chapter.

### 3.3.3 Conceptual Error

In agricultural economics, as in other evolving fields, there is often disagreement among the discipline's authorities concerning current issues. Theories on farm land evaluation and appreciation have been subject to screen and discussion for some time. By taking Melichar's (1975) methods as a model for this study, the results may be biased toward many of Melichar's basic interpretations.

# 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

# 4.1 IS CANADIAN OR ALBERTA FARMLAND A GROWTH STOCK?

Despite shorter term fluctuations, for the past 60 years, the value of Canadian farm real estate have tended to exhibit an upward trend. However, since 1970, much volatility in the land market has been noted. This section of the study focuses on growth in farm real estate values, identifies the functional form of these changes and explains different methods of quantifying the growth rate.

# 4.1.1 Real Estate Values, 1926 to 1986.

Since 1926 when Statistics Canada began annual reporting of land and building values, farm real estate has been changing in value. Figure 4.1 shows these changes in value both in current year dollars and constant (1981) dollars. (The values are listed in Appendix Table 2.1). The constant dollar value of Canadian farm real estate rose from \$25.3B (Billion) to \$63.0B in the interval between 1926 and 1986. The largest increase took place during the last 17 years, from 1970 to 1986. The value of Canadian farm real estate in 1971 was 39.8% of its peak 10 years later. By 1984, however, farm real estate values had fallen to the same levels as in 1978; by 1986 values had fallen to their 1976 levels. Over the past several years, farm real estate values in Canada have fallen at the same rate as they previously rose to the 1981 peak (Figure 4.1). However, the 1986 constant

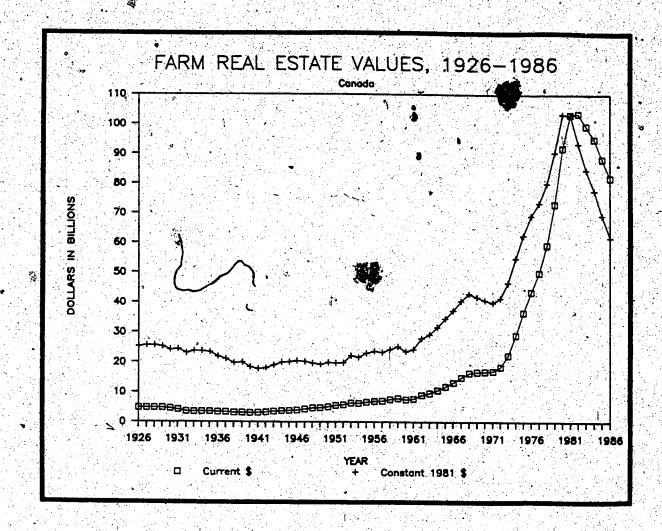


Figure 4.1 Farm real estate values, 1926-1985. Aggregate Canadian farm real estate values expressed in both nominal and real dollar values, illustrating the changes in land values which have occurred between 1926 and 1986. Canadian values include figures for all provinces and territories. The real dollar values were found by adjusting the nominal levels by the average Consumer Price Index (CPI) where 1981=100. The source of farm real estate data is Statistics Canada Cat. No.21-603E and are lighted in Appendix Table A2.1.

dollar values were still 1,5, times higher than the 15,00 level.

### 4.1.2 Growth in Real Estate and Other Farm Assets

Growth in asset values can be simply defined as a change in value at a rate different than the general inflation rate (Huff and Cusack, 1972; Tweeten, 1981). Indexing the value of farm assets, liabilities and returns relative to their respective 1981 constant dollar values gives for each a percentage change in value regardless of original magnitude or of general inflation rates. Table A3.1 in Appendix 3 reports the resulting indexed values of various farm assets and farm incomes as a percentage of their constant dollar value in 1981.

Scrutiny of values for farmland, farm real estate (farmland and buildings) and total farm assets indicates that composition has had an effect on the different rates of growth in value that can be observed in Figure 4.2. Land values have grown more rapidly than has the value of farm real estate (land and buildings) which in turn has grown more rapidly than total farm asset values (land, buildings, machinery, livestock and liquid assets).

Note that if the trend in the growth rate was horizontal for any variable depicted in Figure 4.2, this would indicate that the rate of growth had been equal to the rate of general inflation. Real estate values, farm land values and the value of total farm assets changed at a rate very close to the rate of inflation during the two periods of 1970 to 1971 and 1980 to 1981. However, other than during these four years, all three variables have exhibited rates of change -- both positive and negative -- that have aried

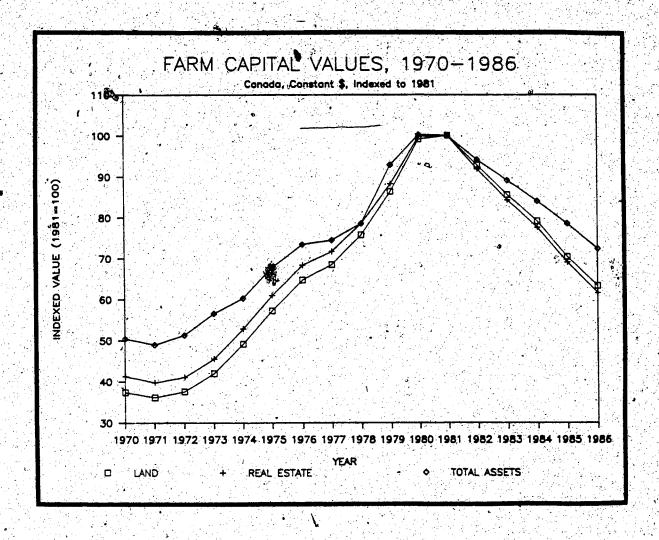


Figure 4.2 The value of farm land, farm real estate and total farm assets, 1970-1986. Aggregate Canadian values of land alone (land), land and buildings (real estate) and farm assets (total assets) are expressed as a percentage of their 1981 value in order to compare trends irrespective of differences in magnitude. Note that land rose more steeply than real estate or total assets, while farm real estate fell the most rapidly from its 1981 high. Values expressed as indexes in constant 1981 dollars. Source: Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E; also listed in Table Al.1.

from the rate of inflation. Periods during which asset values were increasing in value more rapidly than was the general inflation rate occurred from 1971 to 1981. Declines occurred in 1970 and from 1981 to 1986.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the constant dollar, index of values of farm real estate, farmland and farm assets. The data on which this figure is based are found in Appendix 3. The similarity in direction shapes and amplitude of each of the three curves is reflective of an overlap in asset composition. In Canada, land averages 65.2% of total farm real estate and 41.8% of total farm assets. Farm real estate averages 64.0% of total farm assets. Asset composition in Alberta shows a similar pattern: land value averages 71.3% of farm real estate value and 47.9% of total farm asset value. Farm real estate averages 67.2% of total farm asset value.

In the seventeen year interval from 1970 to 1986, there have been 9 years of positive growth, 6 years of negative growth and 2 years of no growth in the values of farm real estate. Overall there has been an increase im farm real estate values of nearly 150 percent (2.41 times) over the 17 year period of study. Based on these observations, growth in farm real estate in both Canada and Alberta has been consistently different than the general inflation rate. These growth rates suggest that farmland may be characterized, at least qualitatively, as a growth stock.

# 4.1.3 The Best Fitting Functional Form.

In order to describe the historical patterns in farm real estate values and the change in values of real estate between 1970 and 1986; a best fitting functional form was found by applying polynomial regressions to the

time series data of constant dollar farm real estate values. The first derivative of that line, the functional growth in farm real estate, was also calculated to determine whether or not it would closely match the actual growth in real estate calculated from Statistics Canada data. Figure 4.3 illustrates the relationship between the actual and regression predicted estimates of farm real estate values and growth in farm real estate values.

The functional form which best described the historic trend of the real value data was a cubic polynomial (of the general form:  $y = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$ ). This equation was:

$$y = -81790t^3 + 1683626t^2 - 4169927t + 41376146$$
 (Eq. 4.1)

y = farm real estate values.

R<sup>2</sup> 🐺 0.97

t = time in years

threefold. First, it means that the historical pattern in farm real estate yakues is cubic. Second, it means that the growth in farm real estate values during the period 1970 to 1986 has been quadratic. Third, it means that the historical rate of growth in farm real estate values has been linear. What these three findings therefore suggest is that while the CAPM capitalization formula (V = I/r) estimation of land values is linear, historical trends (1970 to 1986) in farm real estate values have followed a cubic pattern.

Each of the three functional forms, cubic, quadratic and linear, imposes different mathematical constraints in describing the historical growth in constant dollar farm real estate values. Use of a linear trend describes the average change in farm real estate values over the period from

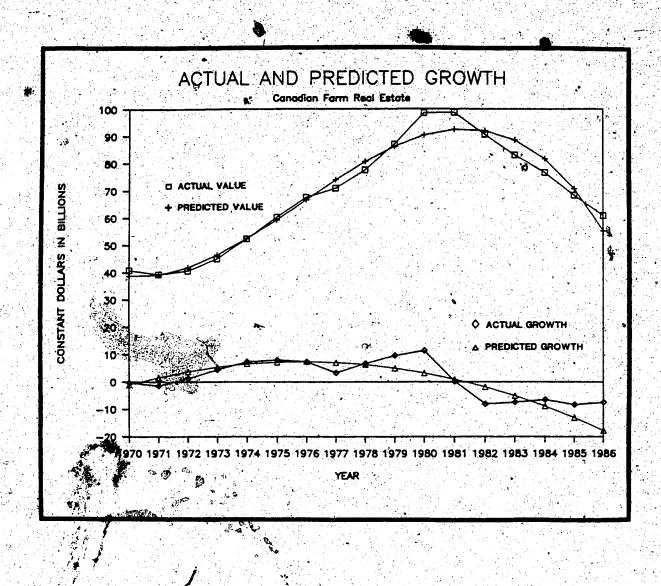


Figure 4.3 Actual and predicted values of farm real estate, 1970-1986. Actual values of farm real estate and those predicted by a polynomial (cubic) regression are shown for the time period that this repression was fitted. In addition, the actual values of growth in farm real estate and those calculated by taking the first derivative of the cubic form are shown beneath farm real estate values. The actual values of farm real estate (Canadian farm fand and buildings) are found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E and are listed in Table A1.1. The regression analysis is discussed in Appendix 4. The real dollar growth in farm real estate values is listed as real capital gains on real estate in Table A1.1.

1970 to 1986. When the linear model was fitted to the historical data from 1970 to 1986, the model only explains a maximum of 53% of the variation in farm real estate values. In this case, the rate of growth in farm real estate is constant, a feature that fails to describe the substantial rise and fall in values which were experienced in both Canada and Alberta from 1970 to 1986. Similar difficulties apply with the use of the quadratic form. In this case 77% of the change of farm real estate values is explained by the functional form. Implicit in the use of a quadratic model is that the growth in farm real estate is linear and that the rate of growth increases or decreases by a constant value. In contrast, the cubic model which best describes the historical pattern in farm real estate values from 1970 to 1986, implicitly suggests that growth in farm real estate values is quadratic in form and the rate of growth in farm real estate values during the study period is linear and thus not constant over time. Further details are discussed in Appendix 4. However, such functional forms are only descriptive of the pattern of historical values and therefore they do not aid in predicting future economic trends.

Actual growth rates, calculated by taking the difference between the land value at the end of one year minus that at the end of the previous year, indicate that the minimum real value for farm real estate was in 1970, following several years of negative growth in the late 1960's. The maximum real value for farm real estate was in 1981. This heralded the decline in land values seen in the early 1980's. Capital gains were experienced during 9 years out of the period from 1972 to 1981 while capital losses were experienced during 7 years of the study (in 1970 and from 1981 to 1986). Overall, rates of growth in Canadian farm real estate values were constant.

and negative for 4 years during the 17 year period. This was from 1982 to 1984 and in 1986. In one year (1981) growth in values of Canadian farm real estate was zero.

# 4.2 ANNUAL GROWTH MEASURES

The quantification of growth in Canadian farmland actually involves the calculation of three types of growth. These include growth in farm real estate, growth in farm assets and growth in farm equity. All three focus on slightly different areas of the return to investment.

Growth in farm real estate is what an investor, might use to estimate annual changes in real estate values simply by subtracting the value of the land value in one year from the previous year's value. However, since 54.0% of Canadian farm capital is tied up in farm real estate, changes in real estate value will also be closely related to growth in farm assets and farm business growth.

Growth in farm assets is the combination of changes in asset values due to new capital investment and to capital gains. Growth in farm equity, measuring changes in net worth, is commonly recognized as a measure of business growth. However, it is not always clear whether this growth in equity occurs as a result of asset growth or because of other changes in net worth.

Table 4.1 summarizes and Figure 4.4 illustrates the estimated growth in each of the three measures. In addition, nominal and real growth rates were calculated; the former is listed in the upper half of the table, the latter in the lower half. For the purpose of comparison, both Melichar's

Table 4.1 Measures of growth in the farm sector between 1970 and 1986. Three measures of growth are calculated: growth in farm real estate values, growth in the value of equity in farm assets and growth in the value of farm assets. The growth rates are all calculated from aggregate, nominal and real dollar values of Canadian and Alberta data.

a). Real estate values, consisting of land and buildings, are found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E. They are listed in Appendix Tables A1.1 and A1.2 and described in Appendix 1.3. Growth in real estate is the annual change in real estate value calculated by: [(end of year value/beginning of year value) - 1].

b) Equity values are calculated by subtracting annual aggregate values of total farm liabilities from annual aggregate values of total farm assets. These are listed in Appendix Tables Alike and Al.2 and described in Appendix 1.3. Growth in equity is the annual change calculated by : [(end of year value) beginning of year value) - 1].



Table 4.1 continued.

ALBERTA:				
	COUNTY IN	COOPER IN	COCHEUM IN	
	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN	
YEAR	(NOMINAL)	(NOM(NAL)	(NOMINAL)	
TEAN	(RUMINAL)	(NUM(NAL)	(MINIME)	
	0.000	0.030	n nen 🕆	
1970	-0.009		-0.042	
1971	-0.00	0.005	-0.038	
1972	0.174	Ø.149	0.141	
1973	0.250	0.248	0.210	
1974	0.346	0.241	0.254	
1975	0.284	0.234	0.171	
1976	0.186	0.157	0.154	
1977	0.178	0.130	0.165	
1978	D. 193	0.169	0.178	
1979	0.417	0.455	0.377	
1980	. 0.282	0.237	0.236	
1981	0.104	0.078	0.086	
1982	0.010	0.038	0.010	
1983	-0,060	-0.040	-0.049	
1984	-0.070	-0.069	-0.059	
1985	-0.060	-0.036	-0.054	
1986	-0.080	-0.032	-0.059	
1986	-0.080	-0.032	-0.059	
1986	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN
	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE®	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup>	FARM ASSETS
1986 Year	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL)	FARM ASSETS (REAL)
YEAR	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE®	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup>	FARM ASSETS
YEAR 1970	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023	GROWTH IN	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL)	FARM ASSETS (REAL)
YEAR	(PRONTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)	EROUTH IN EQUITY D (REAL)	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method	FARM ASSETS (REAL) Melicher
YEAR 1970	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023	EROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL)	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057	FARM ASSETS <sup>4</sup> (REAL) Melicher -0.057
YEAR 1970 1971	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL)  0.015 -0.042	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085	FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) Met Ichar -0.057 -0.087
YEAR 1970 1971 1972	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047 0.117	GROWTH IN EQUITY b (REAL)  0.015 -0.042 0.094	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084	FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) Metichar -0.057 -0.087 0.082
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110	FARM ASSETS (REAL) Meticher -0.057 -0.087 0.082 0.095
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061	FARM ASSETS (REAL) Mellicher -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 6.102 0.053
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975,	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 0.172 0.120	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me   Ichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 0.102 0.053 0.086
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975 1976 1977.	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL) -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 0.172 0.120 0.077	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057	FARM ASSETS (REAL) Me   Ichar -0.057 -0.067   0.062   0.095   0.102   0.053   0.086   0.058
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977,	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080	FARM ASSETS (REAL) Me   Ichar -0.057 -0.067   0.062   0.095   0.102   0.053   0.086   0.058   0.081
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977, 1978 1979	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 0.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975 1976 1977 1978 1979	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 0.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975 1976 1977 1978 1979 1980	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153 -0.015	GROWTH IN EQUITY D (REAL) 0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112 -0.038	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103 -0.041	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 0.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097 -0.045
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977, 1978 1979 1980 1981 1982	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153 -0.015 -0.076	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL)  0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112 -0.038 -0.050	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103 -0.041 -0.085	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 0.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097 -0.045 -0.086
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977, 1978 1979 1980 1981 1982 1983	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153 -0.015 -0.076 -0.101	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL)  0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112 -0.038 -0.050	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103 -0.041 -0.085 -0.094	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 6.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097 -0.045 -0.086 -0.093
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977, 1978 1979 1980 1981 1982 1983 1984	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153 -0.015 -0.076 -0.101 -0.104	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL)  0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112 -0.038 -0.050 -0.081 -0.103	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103 -0.041 -0.085 -0.094 -0.096	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 6.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097 -0.045 -0.086 -0.093 -0.094
YEAR 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974 1975, 1976 1977, 1978 1979 1980 1981 1982 1983	GROWTH IN REAL ESTATE® (REAL)  -0.023 -0.047 0.117 0.144 0.199 9.172 0.120 0.077 0.101 0.290 0.153 -0.015 -0.076 -0.101	GROWTH IN EQUITY (REAL)  0.015 -0.042 0.094 0.142 0.105 0.127 0.093 0.033 0.078 0.325 0.112 -0.038 -0.050	GROWTH IN FARM ASSETS <sup>C</sup> (REAL) CMF method -0.057 -0.085 0.084 0.103 0.110 0.061 0.088 0.057 0.080 0.242 0.103 -0.041 -0.085 -0.094	FARM ASSETS' (REAL) Me [ lichar -0.057 -0.067 0.062 0.095 6.102 0.053 0.066 0.058 0.081 0.235 0.097 -0.045 -0.086 -0.093

c) Growth in farm asset values, a measure of capital gain in farm asset values, is calculated by subtracting net investment from annual changes in owner's equity (i.e. net worth) of farm assets. The results of these calculations are listed in Appendix Table A1.1 and A1.2 and described in Appendix 1.3.

d) CMF and Melichar methods of calculating real capital gain in farm asset values differ in a minor technicality of discounting dollar values by the CPI. These two methods are discussed in Chapter 3.

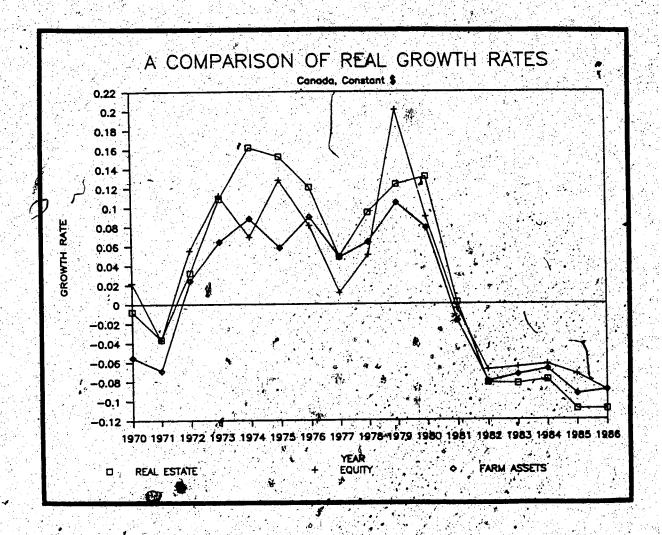


Figure 4.4 Growth rates in real dollar values of Canadian farm real estate, equity in farm assets, and total farm assets from 1970 to 1986. Despite being measurement of very different aspects of farm growth, these variables displayed similar growth rates over the seventeen year period. Growth in farm real estate was taken as annual difference in the real value of land and buildings; equity in farm assets as annual changes in net worth of real estate, machinery, livestock and liquid assets; and growth in farm assets (net worth minus net investment) as a measure of the real capital gain in farm assets, these values are listed in Table 4.1. and are derived from aggregate Canadian data

(1979) formulation of farm asset growth and the CMF estimate (discussed in Chapter 3: Methodology, section 3.1.3.2) were also calculated.

## - 4.2.1 Farm Real Estate

Table 1 shows that the annual rate of growth in nominal values of Canadian farm real estate ranged from a high of 30.5% in 1974 to a wow of -7.2 in 1986. In Alberta, the rate of nominal growth ranged from a high of 41.7% in 1979 to -8.0% in 1986. For four years, 1983, 1984, 1985 and 1986, nominal growth in farm real estate was negative. In addition, in Alberta, 1970 and 1971 were also years of negative nominal growth.

In real terms, the annual growth rate in Canadian farm real estate ranged from a high of 16.2% in 1974 to a low of -10.9% in 1985 and 1986. In Alberta the high growth rate was 29.0% in 1979 and the low was -11.7% in 1986. In both Canada and Alberta, real dollar annual farm real estate capital losses have been from 8% to 11% during the four years of falling values, 1983-1986. The rates at which capital losses are occurring have increased in each successive year:

The real rates of growth in Canadian farm real estate were roughly half of the nominal rate. They were also roughly 2% to 3% less than were the real annual aggregate gapital gain or loss from farm real estate in Alberta,

## 4.2.1.1 Nominal and Real Growth

When nominal rates of growth in farm real estate values (shown in Table 4.1) follow the trends in real growth but are 1/3 to 5 times higher than real growth rates, an investor who does not make adjustments to exclude

the effects of inflation will suffer from "money illusion", the magnitude of which is apparent in Figure 4.5. By using nominal instead of real growth rates for either future or past estimations of returns, he would consistently overestimate rising growth rates and underestimate falling growth rates. At the peak of high growth rates for farm real estate, nominal rates overestimate real growth rates by 53% to 70%. At the trough in growth rates, when growth rates were their most negative, nominal rates of farm asset growth underestimated real growth rates by 1.5 times:

Figure 4.5 graphically illustrate the magnitude of these deviations in real and nominal growth rates for values of Canadian farm real estate as well as farm assets and aggregates farmers' equity in farm assets.

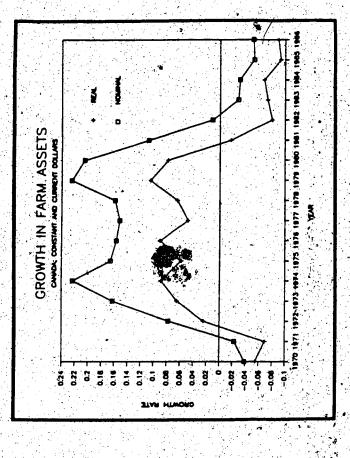
## 4.2.1.2 Growth in Real Estate in Canada and Alberta

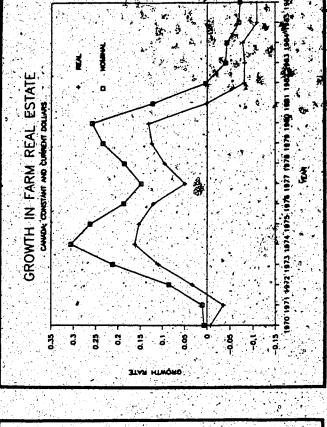
Rates of growth in farm assets, farm net worth and farm feal estate exhibited higher highs and lower lows in Alberta than for Canada as a whole. This volatility in the data for Alberta likely occurs because the Alberta data represents only a sample of the data for the Canadian aggregate figures and are therefore less influenced by the smoothing effects of aggregating nationwide groups of farming enterprises.

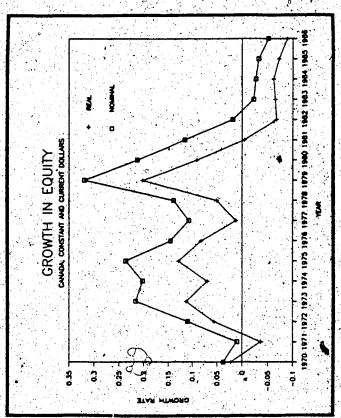
The Alberta values may have been more influenced by the effects of local economic and geographic differences that would not have been felt in the total farming population. For example, growth in farm real estate peaked in Canada in 1974. In Alberta this peak did not occur until 1979. In addition, Alberta may have been experiencing more volatile agricultural growth than was the rest of the country due to its unique resource-based

ure, 4.5 Real and nominal dollar rates of growth in growth in farm real estate (the annual change in value of land and buildings), equity in total farm assets (the which occurs if real and nominal dollar values are not clearly distinguished becomes apparent machinery, in farm assets). Individual trends in the three growth measures were graphed directly from The magnitude of potential Canadian farm assets, 1970-1986. Shown are the rates of livestock and liquid assets) and farm assets (the annual change in net worth minus net investment as a measure of rates in aggregate Canadian values for each real estate, when these dollar terms are plotted together. annual changes in net worth of values listed in Table 4.1. "money illusion" gain growth capital

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dramatic swings between 1970 and 1986 that could have had more effect on the provincial situation than on the national aggregate farm balance sheet.

## 4.2.2 Farm Assets

From Figure 4.4, it is apparent that annual growth in farm assets has been consistently less than growth in farm real estate. Earn assets and farm equity closely follow trends in farm real estate. Each series shows 9 years of positive growth and 8 years of negative growth. Both 1974 and 1979 were years of large increases in the value of farm assets in both Canada and Alberta.

For the five years from 1982 to 1986, farm assets actually grew at a less negative rate than farm real estate. During this period, growth in farm assets was buoyed by growth in value of its non-real estate components.

## 4.2,2.1 Methods of Calculating Growth in Farm Assets

The results of two techniques for calculating farm asset growth are shown in the bottom half of Table 4.1. As was discussed in Methodology 3.1.3.2, the conceptual base of the CMF and Melichar techniques is identical. These techniques differ only slightly due to a technicality in the discounting adjustment. As can be seen in Figure 4.6, the empirical differences in the two techniques were found to be negligible.

Using CMF method of discounting, annual rates of nominal farm asset growth in Canada ranged from the high levels of 22.4% in 1979 and 22.3% in

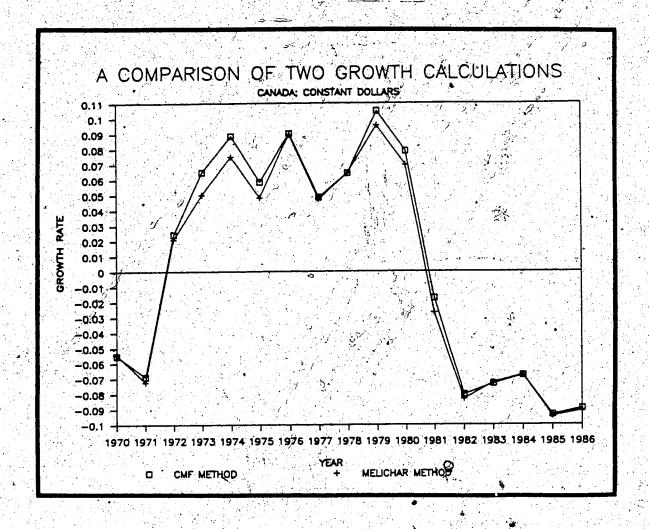


Figure 4.6 The CMF and Melichar methods of calculating growth rates in Canadian farm asset values. The growth rates shown represent real capital gains in the aggregate value of farm assets between 1970 and 1986. The CMF method uses real dollar data to calculate real capital gains as farm net worth minus net annual investment. In the Melichar method, nominal dollars are used to calculate nominal gains and are then adjusted by the CPI to real dollar terms, yielding real capital gains. The technical difference between these two methods is that the CMF method discounts all variables similarly whereas the Melichar method does not discount the begining of the year net worth or the components of net investment (discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.1.3.2). However, it is clear that only small differences exist in the values calculated by each of the methods. Values for both variables are listed in Table 4.1.

1974 to a low of -5.3% and 1985. The results for Alberta were a nominal high of 37.7% experienced in 1979 which ranged to a period low of -5.9% in both 1984 and 1986.

Trends in farm asset value growth were nearly as variable as nominal growth rates during the seventeen years covered by the study. In Canada the rate at which farm assets grew in value ranged from 10.5% in 1979 to -9.4% in 1985. In Alberta real rates of growth in farm assets were similar to those in Canada but the timing of their high-low peak values was different than in Canada. The high rate of farm asset growth (of 11.0%) was experienced in 1974, not 1979 as in Canada. The low (of -9.8%) was one year later in Alberta than in Canada (1986 vs. 1985). Negative growth, even at half of this rate, had not been experienced since 1970 and 1971. However, in Alberta, it was -8% to -10% per year for four years from 1982 to 1986.

The results for Canada using the Melichar discount technique deviate by 1.0% of the CMF method results with the exception of 1973 where the Melichar growth for farm asset values was 1.5 percentage points less than the CMF estimate. For Alberta, the two estimates reported in Table 4.1 are nearly identical. It can be clearly observed in Figure 4.6 that the Melichar model consistently resulted in slight underestimates of capital gains and slight overestimates of capital losses as compared to the CMF method. However these differences are very small.

## 4.2.2.2 Using Farm Assets as a Proxy for Farm Real Estate

Farm assets were used as a proxy for farm real estate by Melichar (1979) who justified this assumption on the basis that the latter comprised 80% of U.S. farm assets. In Canada the situation is clearly different.

First, farm real estate observed in Canada (Figure 4.4) average 4.0% of farm asset values. In Alberta the farm assets are only 67.2% real estate. The assumption that farm assets are composed almost entirely of farm real estate is therefore untenable in both Canada and Alberta. Secondly, using growth in farm assets as a proxy for growth in farm real estate would tend to underestimate growth in Canada and Alberta by roughly one third. An underestimation of this magnitude would tend to bias the estimation of existing growth rates in farm real estate values.

## 4.2.3 Growth in Farm Business Equity

Trends in equity growth may be seen in Figure 4.6. For 10 years of the study period, specifically in 1970 and from 1972 to 1980, growth in equity was positive. For another 7 years including 1971 and from 1981 to 1986, real dollar equity has been declining in the Canadian sector at rates that range from 6.5% to 9.0% per year.

The value of equity in farm assets influenced by many factors. Changes in farm equity, both positive and negative, are considered as either business growth or business decline. In a working paper, "A Partial Solution to the Current Problem in Agricultural Credit", Aukes (p.3) lists the following reasons for negative business growth:

- 1. Falling asset (land) prices.
- 2. Large interest payments on debt other than operating debt.
- 3.Below par performance of a farm manager in terms of production and marketing.
- 4. Unanticipated production difficulties such as drought or an early frost.
- 5. Unusually high family withdrawals of capital from the business.

It is likely that many of these factors have likely had a role in the negative business growth exhibited in both Canada and Alberta. In 1971, for example, the aggregate farm business experienced a decline which was associated with the lowest asset values evident during the entire 17 year period. In the period 1981 to 1986 negative business growth was again associated with falling asset values. Also evident during these six years were interest payments on debt in real dollar terms which had reached their peak in 1981; real gross farm incomes which had fallen between 1982 and 1984; and drought in Alberta from 1983 to 1985.

During the 10 years that farm business grew, farm real estate values appeared to be a major controlling factor. Kay (1981) lists several other reasons for stimulated business growth:

- 1. Rising asset (land) values.
- 2.Additional capital investment.
- 3. Personal capital added to the business by the owner (i.e. an off-farm income, gifts, inheritances).
- 4. The business generates a profit which is reinvested in the business.

In a growing business, the value of net worth should be increasing without the benefit of inflating real estate values. In 1979 this situation clearly occurred. As can be seen in Figure 4.5, 1979 was a year of both record growth in both farm equity and farm real estate values. However, in that one year equity in Canadian farm businesses grew by 21.1% (in Alberta growth was 33.4%) while farm real estate values grew by only 13.3% (in Alberta by 30.1%).

Farmers wanting to know if their management efficiency or increased

productivity contributed to business growth would often have been be frustrated to find that these factors are indistinguishable from the influence of real estate appreciation and depreciation. Contributions of rising real estate values to net worth can disguise an unproductive or inefficient farm business during years of positive real estate growth and rapidly erode equity in years of negative growth. Keeping an "at cost" base balance sheet instead of an "at market" base is one way of distinguishing between the two sources of growth in net worth.

Despite different purposes and origins, the growth rate reported in Table 4.1 share some common features. Farm equity, real estate values and assets growth all occur within the same order of magnitude except during the three years of 1970, 1971 and 1975. During the periods of falling growth rates (1981-1984), the three rates are very similar.

The growth rates illustrated in Figure 4.5 show a bimodal pattern with the first peak occurring in 1974, a trough in 1977, a second peak in 1979-1980 and another trough in 1982. Both farm asset and farm real estate growth rates were trimodal -- peaking twice between 1973-1976 and again in 1979-1980. However these growth rates were still very similar to the trends in equity.

From Figure 4.5 positive and negative growth rates can be seen exhibited simultaneously by all three types of indicators. Negative growth increased at an increasing rate in 1970-1971, 1981-1982 and 1984-1985. Positive growth rates occurred at increasing rates from 1971 to 1974 and 1977 to 1979, while changing at decreasing rates from 1974 to 1977 and 1979 to 1979. While the general trends in each indicator were similar, the

individual indicator used as a measure of growth is critical to the delineation of a specific growth rate. The different measures may vary by as much as two to three times between lowest and highest estimate of growth rates in farm real estate, farm assets and farm equity.

## 4.3 RETURNSTOOWNING FARM REAL ESTATE

An investor's decisions, hether or not to purchase of hold a growth stock depends on epition of an acceptable rate of return. It is also influenced by his need for long term; intermediate term or short term returns on the investment. The total return to investment in a growth stock such as farm real estate is composed of the two parts that were previously discussed, current returns and capital gains (section 2.6.2).

## 4.3.1 Annual Returns to Farm Real Estate

Low rates of annual return are characteristic of growth stocks. From the calculated rates of return in capital gains, annual income and overall realized return reported in Table 4.2, it can be seen that Canadian real dollar imputed rental return to farm real estate averaged 2.3% of farm real estate values over the period 1970 to 1986. Imputed rent, the annual return to ownership on farm real estate, ranged from a high of 3.0% in 1974 to a low of 1.8% which applied in 1982. In the years from 1984 and 1985 the the annual return rose slightly to 2.0%.

In Alberta aggregate rental returns—were similar. These rental returns averaged 2.1% of farm real estate values, ranging from a high of 3.5% in 1973 to a low of 1.4% in 1981-1982.

RISK ANALYSIS:					
현실하다 하는 다른 다른 이 그릇이 얼마?	AVERACE	VARIANCE	STTD	COEF. OF	
1.AS RELATED TO FUNCTIONAL FORM ASSUMED				VARIATION	
REAL PRICE RISK: NO GROWTH	66523051	390877057709147	19770611	0.291	
REAL PRICE RISK: CONSTANT GROWTH		3295221010031989	57404018	0.161	
2.RETURN RISK: SINGLE ASSETS					
RENTAL INCOME	461813	12532834225	111950	0,141	
NOMINAL CAPITAL GAINS ON REAL ESTATE	3842729	49515869609148	7036751	1,779	3
REAL CAPITAL GAINS ON REAL ESTATE	1158707	43325852968005	6582314	7.912	
RENT AND REAL CAPITAL GAIN	1829831	43190817812578	6571972	2.009	
GROSS FARM INCOME	15291012	2273308	2273308	0.081	
GROSS INCOME + REAL CAPITAL GAIN ON ASSETS	13820133	5862810567742	2421324	0.117	
MONEY MARKET (REAL INTEREST RATE)	0.003	0.001 0.001:	0.026 0.028	0.105	
(NOMINAL INTEREST RATE)	0.077	0.001	0.025	U. 190	
3.RETURN RISK: 2 ASSET PORTFOLIO					
ONLY MORUL RETURNS	5834121	4.00E+11	316433	0.072	
ANNUAL AND CAPITAL GAIN RETURNS	1194744	2.00E+13	4475116	1.977	4

Table 5.1 Risk alalysis of owning farm real estate. The variations in both price (value) of real estate and the returns accruing from land ownership were analysed for aggregate Canadian values over the period 1970 to 1986 using the statistical measures of average, variance, standard deviation and coefficient of variation. All four measures are detailed in Appendix 5; the former three measures are reported in ('000) dollars.

a)- Real dollar price variation about the mean.

b) Real dollar price variation about the linear trend.

The extent of variation in the money market appears to be of similar magnitude to variations in annual return to aggregate farm real estate and farm assets as a whole. The coefficient of variation for the Canadian chartered bank's non-chequing nominal interest rate was 10.5%, and this return exhibited an average yield of 7.7% per year. However, when expressed in real dollar terms the standard deviation in the money market is only 3.0% of its mean yield of 0.3% per year from 1970 to 1986.

## 5.1.2 Risk Related to Price of Farm Real Estate

Variations in returns to farm real estate are directly related to farm real estate values which were in a state of flux from 1970 to 1986. Real estate values varied by 29.1% (see Table 5.1) of their mean values during the period of study. Choice of the arithmetic mean for this calculation, however, implies that the functional form of change over time in real estate values is constant and without growth. In a situation with high constant growth, a large degree of risk could be calculated based on a high degree of variation from the mean. In many cases an investor is interested in quantifying the amount of risk associated with realizing a particular pattern of returns. Usually this could be depicted as a linear pattern. As was shown in Section 4.1.3, however, even a linear model poorly describes the trend in land values between 1970 and 1986, and a no growth model is inaccurate. However, if one assumes a linear relationship in farm real estate values and a constant growth in values, the variation of standard deviation of the actual annual data time path and the predicted linear form (not the average form) is 16.1% -- down from 29.1%. It is therefore apparent that prediction of farm real estate values at the level of even a first level polynomial would decrease the perception of the price

risk faced by an investor. In so doing a coefficient of variation of is calculated for Canadian real estate.

## 5.1.3 Real Estate in the Farm Portfolio

There are two main strategies for managing price risk in real estate values. The first involves including in the initial assessment of the purchase value (present value) a risk adjusted discount rate and thus discounting future values at a higher rate than would be the case with a non-risk discount rate. However, more important to an investor than changes in real estate values themselves are the actual returns that might be expected. To manage risk in returns from investment in farm meal estate, a good strategy is to diversify price risk by including farm real estate as part of a portfolio of invested capital.

In this section of the analysis, farm real estate was assumed to be part of a two asset portfolio. Such a portfolio, comprised of farm real estate and of non-real estate farm assets (including: livestock, machinery, crop and cash inventories, as well as other assets), was intended to simulate a typical farm holdings. The farm real estate portion was assumed to be the actual average of 64% of the aggregate Canadian farm asset portfolio, with non-real estate assets comprising the rest.

When considering only aprival returns, the coefficient of variation for the Canadian farm portfolio was found to be 7.2%. Outside the farm portfolio the two components of annual return had higher variances: rent, which comprised 64% of the returns had a coefficient of variation of 14.1%, and gross farm income, which comprised 36% of the returns had variation from

its mean of 8.1%.

The variation in annual returns from this typical farm portfoliodepend on whether or not capital gain from appreciating values of farm real
estate and other farm assets is a return along with annual
income. Examining only annual returns provides a limited perspective on the
risk faced by an investor holding farm real estate. When returns from both
annual and capital gains sources were included, the coefficient of variation
for the same portfolio was 198%. Although this increase in the variability
of returns about a mean return value is startling, it must be kept in mind
that the magnitude of the returns which include capital gains also changes.
On average the return doubles. However, averaging tends to leave little
impression of the highs and lows of capital gains and capital losses
experienced during the seventeen years of the study (shown in Table 4.2 and
discussed in Section 4.3).

If the variation in overal returns to farm real estate inside the portfolio were considered relative to the returns which might have been expected outside the farm assert portfolio little difference would be observed. The coefficient of variation for farm real estate outside the farm portfolio including both current and capital gains returns was 201%. This is compared, to a coefficient of variation of 198% inside the farm portfolio. Therefore, whether inside or outside a farm portfolio, investment in farm real estate leaves the investor vulnerable to liquidity risk in the face of large price changes in real estate and low gross incomes. Other authors have observed that liquidity risk may render remedial business adjustments unfeasible (Featherstone and Baker, 1987, p.544).

Business risk defines the exogenous risk to the firm after enterprise choices, production choices and capital structure of the firm have been set in place (Collins, 1985). For example, the price variations experienced in the farm land market present a business risk to those owning or holding farm real estate. Analysis of business performance ratios was undertaken to assess the potential impacts of annual price variations on the financial performance of the farm business. Within the limitations of aggregate financial data, trends and average benchmark values were delineated.

Measures of the financial fitness of the farm business, solvency, capital efficiency, liquidity and profitability, are typically drawn from the balance sheet, income statement, and cash flow statement. Data to complete the former two statements were available from the Statistics Canada data base, (and listed in Tables Al.1 and Al.2), however there was no—information on current assets or current liabilities. Liquidity ratios from the latter statement therefore could not be determined. Table 5.2 reports solvency, efficiency and profitability measures of financial fitness for Canada and Alberta aggregate farms from 1970 to 1986.

Usually, as was the case in the results of this study, values — expressed in nominal and real dollar terms are considerably different from each other in value. However when ratios such as the business ratios are calculated between values during the same year, nominal and real dollars have no influence on the resulting rate.

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Table 5.2 Financial ratios for the hypothetical aggregate Canadian and Alberta farm reported over the period 1970 to 1986. Dollar terms, real or nominal, have no differentiating impact on the financial ratios.

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## Solvency.

- a. Capital ratio assets/ debt. This measures the amount of assets available to cover total debts.
- b. Leverage ratio debt/ equity. This measures the proportion of ownership controlled by the owner and lender.
- c. Equity ratio equity/ assets. The equity ratio measures the proportion of assets owned by the owner.

# 2. Capital efficiency.

- a. Turnover assets/ Gross Farm iscome (GFI). This is the number of years needed to turnover the price of assets one time with income produced on the farm.
- assets one time with income produced on the farm.

  b. Scale = GFI/ assets. The amount of money carned perdollar of assets.

## 3. Profitability.

- a. Return on assets (ROA) = Net Farm Ipcome (NFI)/
  assets. ROA measures the net earnings of both owner
  and lender in relation to the total capital
  invested in the business.
- b. Return on equity (ROE) NFI + interest / assets.
  This is an earlings measurement of the return to owner/ operator.
- c. An alternate form of ROE is expressed as ROA = NPI.
  + interest -Ro<sub>1</sub> Ro<sub>m</sub> /ssets. The latter form measures the return to owner.
- d. Bank rate; Nominal. The typical current dollar interest rate on non-chequing savings deposits posted in the 5 largest Canadian chartered banks. A more detailed description of this variable is given in Appendix 1.3.
- e, Bank rate: Real. The rate of interest on nonchequing savings deposites expressed in real dollar terms.
- f. Return to lender (ROL) Interest paid on debt is billities. This measures the profits made by the lenders on business loans.

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## 5.2.1 Solvency

In general, solvency indicates the ability of a business to meet its long-term financial obligations. Three ratios drawn from the balance sheet are used to measure solvency: the capital ratio, the leverage ratio and the equity ratio.

The capital ratio, a ratio of assets to liabilities, shows the financial position of a business assuming that all assets were to be liquidated to cover liabilities. Table 5.2 shows that, in aggregate, Canadian farmers had a maximum of \$8.21 worth of assets to cover each dollar of debt at the peak levels of solvency in 1980, while in Alberta farmers had \$10.39. During the period 1970 to 1986 the minimum amount of aggregate assets per dollar of debt in 1986 was \$5,99 in Canada and \$6.62 in Alberta.

The leverage ratio shows the proportion of a business's capital provided by the owner versus the obligation to creditors due if business debts were to be immediately liquidated. Over the 17 year period from 1970 to 1986, both Canadian and Alberta farmers have, in aggregate, maintained a very modest leverage ratio. Table 5.2 shows that on average, this has been 16.6% for Canadian farmers and 14.9% for Alberta farmers. That is, the aggregate debt of the Alberta farm sector was, on average, one seventh of the value of aggregate farm equity. The Canadian aggregate farm sector has, in aggregate, an average \$1.00 of debt for every \$6.02 of equity.

As may be seen in Table 5.2, the aggregate Canada and Alberta farm sectors were more highly leveraged in 1971 than in any subsequent year. This marked decline corresponds to the general upward trend in land values observed from 1970 to 1986. Thus, contrary to popular thinking, while in.

aggregate, Canadian farmers have taken on more debt, this debt is covered by more assets than in the early 1970's.

The increasing thend in overall farm debt since the early 1970's occurred in a period when there was a similar proportional rise in the estimate of current market values of on farm machinery stocks. Before 1973 farm machinery was only 55% of its 1981 value, while aggregate farm debt was around 65% of its 1981 value. Both machinery values and farm debt moved upward sharply throughout the mid and late 1970's, peaking in 1981, when the value of machinery began to decline, while the value of debt remained approximately constant (see Table A3.1). The proportional change in debt and machinery value on farms is remarkably similar, suggesting that much of the new debt assumed after the "grain heist" of the early 1970's was invested into machinery purchases and that the buying of new equipment ended abruptly in the early 1980's.

The equity ratio shows the proportion of every dollar of asset that is owner equity. Lee et al. (1980) state that equity ratios under 40% to 50% are often carefully watched by lenders. Of little concern would be an aggregate farmer who owns a large proportion of his assets. In Canada an average of 85.8% of aggregate farm assets are owner equity; in Alberta this ratio averages 87.1%. As the other solvency ratios have shown, a hypothetical aggregate farmer is in a very strong financial position and has considerable capacity to increase debt load.

In calculating these ratios, it was found that:

1) From the aggregate balance sheet, it appears, at least in the aggregate, that Canadian farmers, including those in Alberta, are

solidly solvent. They are modestly leveraged and tend to own most of their assets.



- 2) During the period of rising land prices in the 1970's, solvency measures for the Canadian and Alberta aggregate farm sector remained remarkably stable.
- 3) As asset values rose, so did the aggregate debt capacity and actual value of liabilities. However the ratio of assets to liabilities and equity to liabilities fell over the period from 1970 to 1986.
- 4) In aggregate, Alberta farmers have been more conservative than their national counterparts in maintaining a solvent business.

## 5.2.1.1 Owning a Growth Stock: The Impact on Solvency

A business's ability to cover its long term debts with capital improves as farm real estate values rise. In addition, the greater the proportion of positively growing stock in the farm portfolio, the stronger is the business's capital position. However, during times of depreciating real estate values, the business will experience lowered levels of solvency as the margin of capital covering debts decreases. This is especially so if the business was highly levered.

Borrowing potential rises and falls with real estate values. It is also sensitive to the proportion of the farm investment portfolio held in farm real estate. Investing in a farm portfolio in which a large portion of capital is in farm real estate has been a risky but very easy way to build equity. The experience of the 7 years from 1970, suggests that simply holding the positively growing stock will increase equity and overall

growth can be maintained without increasing production or product marketing. The risks to the business are that if growth in farm real estate becomes negative, equity will be eroded even though the business is maintained as before.

## 5.2.2 Efficiency

Ratios showing trends in income to investment are taken from the income statement and balance sheet in order to monitor the financial efficiency of the farm business and to detect the efficiency and effectiveness with which the capital of a business is being put to use to generate gross income. Two financial ratios are commonly used to measure financial efficiency. These are turnover and scale:

Turnover, the ratio of the value of total farm assets to gross farm income, is a measure of how quickly capital is regenerated by gross income. As shown in Table 5.2, the real capital turnover time in Canada ranged from 6.0 years in 1973 to 11.2 years in 1983. The turnover time in Canada averaged 6.7 years. The increase in the years needed to turnover farm capital suggests that capital became less efficiently used kince it would have taken twice as long for gross income to accumulate in 1983 than in 1973. It would have taken Alberta farmers one year more to turnover the Canadian farmers as a whole. Alberta farmers must therefore face making less efficient use of their capital than Canadian farmers.

Financial scale compares the size of the business when measured by gross income to its size when measured by asset values. Mathematically,

for the generation of income. As listed in Table 5.2, Canadian farmers, in aggregate, had an average \$1.00 of capital for \$0.15 they generated in real gross income. In Alberta, farmers generated \$0.12 of gross income of every dollar of capital held. As real estate values rose during the period of study, the efficiency of capital in generating income decreased. As real estate values fell in 1985 and 1986, the negative trend in this measure of efficiency appears to have reversed.

From an examination of of the two measures of financial efficiency cited here, the following were noted:

- 1) The aggregate farm business in Alberta and Canada became less financially efficient between 1973 and 1984. The use of capital was both less efficient and less effective; its ability to service debt on capital was diminished. These trends were primarily due to rising asset values, although fluctuations in gross income contributed to this trend.
- 2) The number of years required to turn over capital once relative to gross farm income doubled between 1973 and 1983 for both Canadian and Alberta farmers. When turnover is high, capital is only slowly freed for other uses.
- 3) Such decreases in financial scale suggest that farm gross income became increasingly less effective in paying off asset values as real estate values rise.
- 4) The margin of gross income which is available for debt servicing and family withdrawal decreased between 1973 and 1986 for Soth Canadian and

Alberta farmers.

## 5.2.2.1 Owning a Growth Stock: The Impact on Financial Efficiency

A farm investment portfolio in which a large portion of the capital is is invested in a growth stock such as farm real estate has a negative impact on the financial efficiency of the farm's business. In addition, the larger the proportion of the growth stock in the portfolio mixture, the more limited its income generating capacity. Thus, when a farmer is assembling an asset portfolio, the choice of both the type of capital invested in whether growth or nongrowth, and the proportion of each type in the portfolio are decisions which affect the ability to generate income.

## 5.2.3 Profitability

Rate of return on assets, rate of return on equity and rate of return to lender are ratios which measure income profitability relative to investment. Capital gains contribute a considerable return to investment for owning or holding farm land. However, since returns from capital gains are not realized annually, they are not considered an income return and are not included as a measure of business profitability. Table 5.2 lists all three of these ratios in real dollar values for both Canada and Alberta.

Simple calculations of returns to assets (ROA) and returns to equity.

(ROE) can be adjusted to more accurately reflect uncommitted profits by subtracting returns to family labor and return to management from net farm income. Using an unadjusted evaluation of net farm income to calculate ROA and ROE will provide underestimates of ROA of ROE, Figure 5.2 shows only

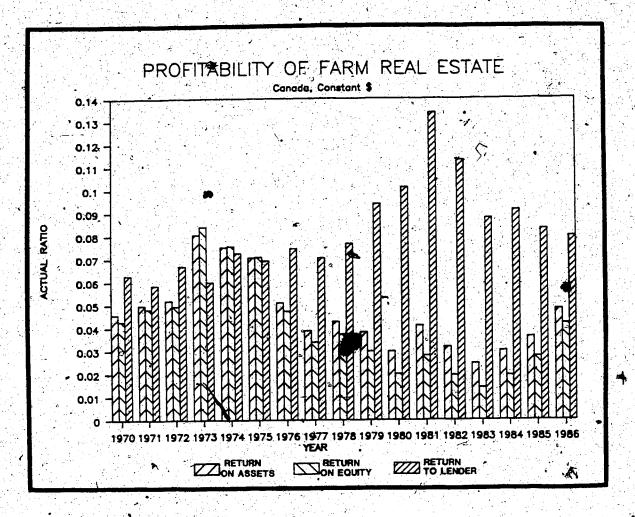


Figure 5.2 Profitability in the Canadian farm real estate market, 1970-1986. A comparison of return on assets (ROA), return on equity (ROE) and returns to the lender (ROL) are shown. While all three returns were similar in the early 1970's, since that time ROA and ROE have declined appreciably, returns to the lender have risen, resulting in a large discrepancy in the rates of return. The rates of return are listed in Table 5.2.

adjusted measures for ROA and ROE

Return on assets (ROA) measures the net earnings of both owner and lender in relation to the total capital invested in the besiness. ROA is sensitive to changes in gross income, farm expenses, the amount of interest paid to creditors and to changes in asset values. This concept is identical to the annual returns to farm assets, discussed in section 4.3.2. Annual (adjusted) estimates of ROA, shown in Figure 5.2, increased during the period from 1970 to 1973 and have been declining since that time. The lowest returns to assets were in 1983 when Canadian farm assets returned 2.4% expressed as an aggregate annual rate of real dollar annual return and Alberta farm assets generated a 1.4% annual rate of annual return.

The return on equity (ROE) ratio shown in Figure 5.2 measures the profit accruing to an asset owner or owner/operator relative to the equity held in the asset. Annual return on equity held by an owner/operator, expressed in real terms, peaked in 1973 at a rate of 9.6% in Canada and 8.2% in Alberta.

By 1984 annual return to owner equity in farm assets, expressed in real values, was a mere 0.3% in Alberta; in Canada, by 1984, this return was only 1.9%. Figure 5.3. illustrates real dollar returns to equity in both farm assets and, for comparison, on equity capital held in non-chequing savings deposits. These two measures of returns to equity capital invested in different investments were remarkably similar in 1970 and also in the proof of from 1981 to 1986. During the period of rapid growth in land values, returns to equity in land were both positive and larger than were corresponding returns on equity capital held in non-chequing savings

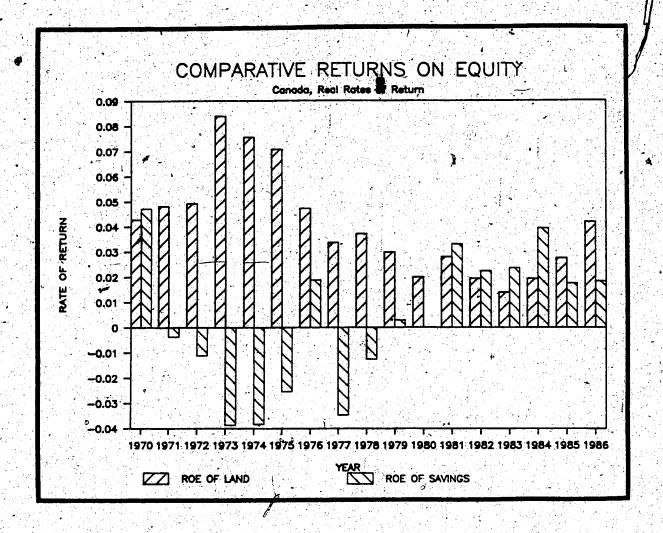


Figure 5.3 Rates of return on equity capital investment, 1970-1986. A comparison is made between equity capital invested in Canadian total farm assets (calculated as net farm income minus returns to labor and management, divided by owner's equity) and typical bank savings deposits. The two investments yielded similar rates of return early in the 1970's and in the early to mid 1980's. However, during the mid 1970's, returns to equity capital in farm assets were much higher than the real dollar yields from savings interest. The individual rates of return are found in Table 5.2 as bank rate: interest on savings and ROE: profit for owner:

deposits in the Canadian chartered banks which were actually negative in real dollar terms.

Return to the lender, expressed as the ratio of interest paid relative to total liabilities, is a measure of the profits made by the creditors of the business for the use of their money. Except for a brief period of time between 1973 and 1975, in both Canada and Alberta creditors earned a higher rate of return than did equity holders of farm assets (see Table 5.2). By 1981, Alberta creditors were earning 11.7% more than were equity holders. In Canada this discrepancy was 10.6%. However, 1981 was an exceptional year in that both interest rates and land values peaked, thus tending to increase lender returns on debt.

In summary, the spreadsheet data presented in both Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 indicated that for the aggregate farmer:

- 1) Real annual return—to eapital invested in farm assets and to equity in farm assets peaked in 1973 and fell steadily after that.
- 2) Returns on assets and returns on equity are inversely proportional to farm real estate values.
- 3) Real money market returns to equity exceeded returns to equity in farm assets in Canada for 5 out of 17 years. In nominal dollars the money market returns on equity were larger than for equity held in farm real estate for 12 out of 17 years.
- 4) Assisted by high interest rates and high land values, nominal returns to lenders rose to a peak of 13.4% in Canada in 1981.

## 5.2.3.1 Owning a Growth Stock: Business Profitability

The larger the proportion of farm real estate in the farm investment portfolio, the lower the business potential is to earn profits from income generated by portfolio capital (or equity in that capital). As in the case of the efficiency ratios, it is evident that capital invested in farm assets does not efficiently generate either income or profits. However, it is also apparent that agricultural programs or policies should not be based solely on measures of business efficiency and business profitability without taking into account the role of real capital gains. Assessment of business performance needs to be isolated from asset appreciation and depreciation; this could be done by using purchase values for assets rather than current market values when making business performance assessments.

## 5.3 FINANCIAL RISK

Maintaining high levels of leverage can represent an economically sound attempt to use the opportunity of rising asset values to boost the growth of an investor's farm business. However, it is the responsibility of the investor to assure that liquidity is maintained at a level that allows the cash obligations of the business, portfolio, and family to be simultaneously met. The potential for cash flow deficiencies due to shortfalls in year to year income, changing interest, unexpected business or production loss or family needs exists and, at an extreme, may force the liquidation of assets. To carry high levels of leverage safely requires the maintenance of sound liquidity practices. These may include maintaining credit reserves, generating off farm incomes, using alternate production strategies, and practicing forward marketing or leasing.

There is a balance between maintaining liquidity and foregoing opportunities for growth. Table 5.3 shows aggregate annual price to earnings. (P/E) ratios for farm real estate and for farm assets in Canada and Alberta 1970 to 1986. High P/E ratios, between 37 and 51 in Canada, for farm real estate suggest that investors have felt that farm real estate has had good and fairly steady growth opportunities over the period. Investors were willing to bid the price of real estate far above the earnings levels that are recovered.

It appears that these earnings (rent) were perceived to be relatively safe despite being very low (i.e. rent from a property being less than its mortgage payments). This perception is borne out by the data. Aggregate rental income was, on average, 2.3% of the aggregate value of real estate and it averaged 9.0% of gross farm income between 1970 and 1986.

### 5.3.1 Cash Flow Issues

The liquidity necessary to finance investment in farm real estate is more apparent, if farm assets are viewed as a portfolio of farm real estate and other non-real estate farm assets. Non real estate farm assets had P/E's between 5 and 8 at the Canadian aggregate level, or 1/6 to 1/9 the P/E of farm real estate alone (see Table 5.3). Diversification of assets to this relatively limited extent not only helped reduce price risk to the investor (see Section 5.1), it also substantially increased the returns per dollar invested, providing the cash flow necessary to meet the cash obligations of purchasing farm real estate:

CANADA:			ALBERTA:	
	TOTAL FARM	VALUE OF	TOTAL FARM	VALUE OF
	ASSETS/	REAL ESTATE/	ASSETS/	REAL ESTATE/
YEAR	\$ EARNINGS *	\$ RENT b	\$ EARNINGS*	\$ RENT b
1969	6.03	37.0	7.4	42.1
1970	8.51	41.9	7.9	44.6
1971	6.05	38.1	7.6	40.4
1972	6.00	39.5	7.2	43.1
1973	5.02	44.8	6.1	. 32.8
1974	· 5.12	38. 🎉	6.3	44.2
1975	5.44	41.4	6.7	47.8
1976	6.27	44.4	7.7	51.1
1977	6.91	47.3	9.2	58.2
1978	6.72	46.9	——— <b>8.5</b>	54.7
1979	7.44	47.9	9.9	63.1
1980	8.20	48.3	10.7	65.6
1981	7.38	51.1	9.7	67.6
1982	7.87	49.8	. 10.7	64.9
1983	8.09	47.3	11.2	58.6
1984	7.40	48.6	10.2	54.8
1985	6.87	45.1	9.6	55.4
1986	6.30	46.1	8.2	54.9

Table 5.3 Price to earnings (P/E) ratios for aggregate Canadian and Alberta values from 1970 to 1986. Dollar terms, nominal or real, have no differentiating impact on price earnings ratios.

a) The P/E for farm assets is calculated by dividing the value of farm assets by the value of gross farm income.

b) The P/E for farm real estate is calculated by dividing the value of farm real estate by the value of imputed rental earnings.

Despite favorable long-term nominal and real rates of return on farmland investment, severe cash-flow difficulties are caused by shifting earnings from cash (income) returns to capital gains. In aggregate, the Canadian and Alberta farm sector has responded by maintaining high levels of solvency. Although it may have been financially possible to use more debt for business advantage, this was not done.

This dilemma permeates the agricultural sector. In early years of investment, a young family aspiring to be full time owner operators are limited by cash flow to the debt which can be serviced. The time needed to turn over assets is of especial concern for entry-level farmers. While low gross incomes, high asset values or a combination of the two will extend turnover time, a farmer's only control of how efficiently capital is used lies in the ability to influence the magnitude and stability of his gross income. An entry level farmer faced with a long period of time before farm capital can be regenerated from farm gross income may perceive this as a future barrier to growth and may choose to invest capital and energies in assets which will generate more income. Ownership of farm real estate or purchase of a business unit may become an unattractive barrier to entry-level farmers disadvantaged by cash flow problems.

Established farmers are generally in a much stronger liquidity position. They are expanding or consolidating farmers who have been able to survive cash flow deficiencies and high fixed costs associated with entry by building a business which generates sufficient cash flow, through careful family consumption, efficient production and marketing of their products and outside incomes. However, since they can service high levels of debt with their cash flow and solvency positions, they may be motivated to do so to

take advantage of scale economies. Should land values drop, the consolidating farmer faces risks associated with both low liquidity reserves and a declining solvency position. The comparative advantage in farm real estate investment rests with the farmer, later in years, whose investments finally generate large cash surplus over family living costs. These farmers may, herever, again be faced with liquidity problems in their retirement if they decide to refinance the family farm for the next generation. They also face an erosion of wealth if asset values fall or if they do not carefully plan the dissolving of estate with regard to capital gains tax and transfer costs. Lee et al. (1980) quote liquidation costs of 10% to 40% of the original value of assets owned prior to liquidation.

Attempts by governmental agencies to facilitate the entry of young people into agriculture by extending assistance in forms such as inexpensive loans are often criticized because "such terms benefit only earliest buyers. Cash flow and equity advantages are soon bid into the price of land. With each relaxation of credit terms, land prices can be expected to rise more rapidly, then assume a normal pattern" (Reinsel and Reinsel, 1979, p. 1096).

Other attempts to treat the cash flow deficiencies of leveraged farmers in periods of declining annual returns and asset values may lead to government-prescribed systems of output payments or price supports. This strategy is also criticized because it would not only "fail to raise rates of return after land prices adjust but would actually intensify the cash flow problem for entry level farmers. The real problem, one of liquidity, would be worsened because cash outflow to service land land interest and principal payments would increase relative to cash outflow for new owner operators" (Tweeten, 1981, p. 23).

However at the current time, individuals within the Canadian and Alberta agricultural sectors are making adjustments to carry out viable forms of agriculture undaunted by the many barriers and aided by government programs. Investors interested in agriculture but not willing to risk a cash flow "crunch" are finding other ways to enter and stay in farming. Assistance from family plays an important role enabling many individuals to farm. To decrease the impact of cash flow restrictions, individuals are using different strategies. They may farm part time and work off the farm for wages or they may form corporations with access to both debt and equity capital. Some forms of corporations may be able to stop the losses of capital from agriculture which occurs in generation financing and like cycle management and financing of the family farm.

In the end it may be those who adapt and those who find ways of coping with or alleviating their financial problems who will continue in agriculture. It may be the pessimists who sell out the farm businesses to the optimists (Brown and Brown, 1984).

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

exhibiting the characteristics of a growth stock. The value of farm real estate has been exhibiting the characteristics of a growth stock. The value of farm real estate has changed at a rate different than the rate of general inflation. Land values rose quickly in the 1970's, stabilized in 1980 and 1981, and have been falling since that time. This historical pattern can be described by a cubic polynomial. Overall, the real dollar growth rate has averaged 4.7%, representing an increase of real estate values of nearly 150% between 1970 and 1986. Thus, the rate of growth in farm real estate values has not been constant over the seventeen years examined in this study.

Returns to farm estate have provided economic motives for investors to participate in the land market. Ownership of land has been profitable over the period from 1970 to 1986, earning real returns to equity that averaged 4.0%. This is in contrast to real dollar returns on equity in chartered bank's non-chequing savings accounts of 0.7%. The returns on investment in farm real estate have consisted of both current income (rent), as well as contributions to wealth in the form of capital gains.

As is typical of growth stocks, the annual returns to land have been very low. Rent, the annual return to farm real estate, averaged only 0.7% of farm real estate values, varying in a pattern similar to that of farm real estate values.

On the other hand, real capital gains returns to land have been highly volatile. These ranged from a high of 19.5% in 1974 to, a low of -11.3% in

1983 in Canada and were positive for only 9 out of the 17 years. The large gains posted, throughout the 1970's are being rapidly eroded by falling land prices in the 1980's.

The repercussions of volatile land prices and returns have been realized in several different types of risk. The unpredictability of prices has posed a risk to holding both a single, farm real estate asset and a representative farm asset portfolio. However, farm land investors may diversify the single asset into a more balanced investment portfolio and dilute some of the effects of extreme variations in the price of land. Uncertainty in the magnitude of income returns to farm land ownership has an impact on the financial position of the farm business. Capital efficiency and income profitability move inversely in proportion to real estate prices, while solvency is proportional. High land values restrict the liquidity of the farm business if debt capital has been used to finance current farm land purchase.

The influences of farm land prices are also likely to be seen in the structure of the agricultural sector. Barriers to entry are posed by high land prices because of increased turnover periods and cash restrictions. High values appear to favor the consolidation of land by established farmers who have the potential cash flow necessary to service debt accumulation, as well as strong solvency positions to support it. Farmers are accumulating wealth by investing in land. This represents a transformation of income into wealth. Despite the real cash flow difficulties that are experienced by farmers, if governments continue to assist farmers in the purchase of land, they should recognize that they are assisting farmers in the accumulation of wealth.

The banner cry raised by Melichar (1979) that agriculture is doomed tolow rates of annual return need not be the epitaph of the farm industry. If
farmers recognize that although use of their capital to purchase farm real
estate guarantees a low annual return, they can control of the proportions
of their investment portfolios that are committed to this asset. By varying
the composition of this portfolio they can regulate the general levels of
income expected. Farmers do not have to face Melichar's sentence helplessly.

This conclusion can be made notwithstanding the problems of either aggregation or data specification encountered in this study. Aggregation of national data into an agricultural balance sheet required some heroic assumptions. Data specification would have been improved if Statistics Canada series were available for the value of improvements in agriculture, the accounting adjustment used by Melichar, the value of current assets on farms in Canada; and if the data available had been more detailed for the value of agricultural rental income. In addition, returns and expenses may have been attributed to the wrong year since there is no one date during the year when a farm financial snapshot of values for all assets and liabilities is reported by Statistics Canada. Unaccountable observational error may have been introduced at any time by after the fact revisions to the data series made by Statistics Canada, by the series being initially collected for divergent purposes, or by demographic changes in the sample population over time.

To further the work presented in this thesis, a comparison of the results reported on American land values by Melichar (1979) and this Canadian study may be of interest. The two studies are designed identically and would thus provide an useful base for the comparison of forces shaping

farmland values in Canada and the U.S. as well as making possible an overview of the dynamics of the price behavior of farmland values in North America.

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## APPENDIX I

## WORKSHEET TABLES AND WORKING VARIABLES

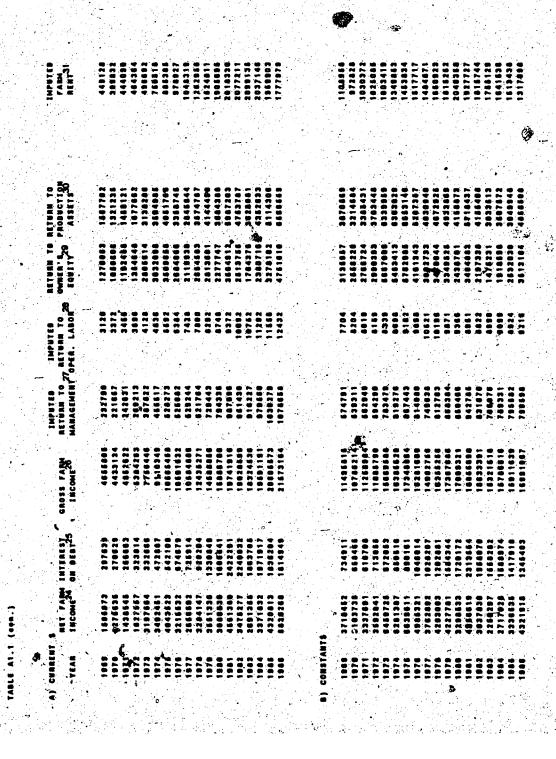
- 1.1 Canadian Aggregate Data.
- 1.2 Alberta Aggregate Data.
- 1.3 Working Variables: Definitions and Assumptions

APPENDIX 1.1

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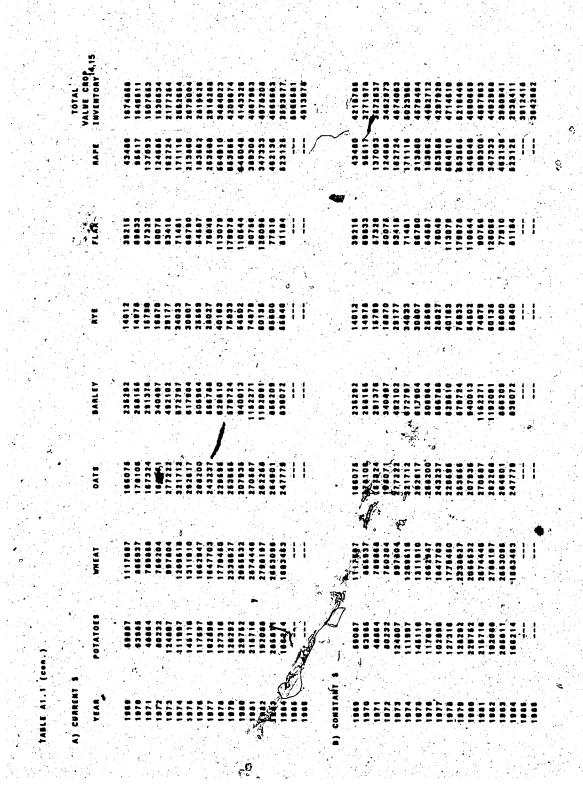
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APPENDIX 1.2

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### APPENDIX 1.3

# WORKING VARIABLES: DEFINITIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

- 1. Years of study. The time span 1970 through 1986 was chosen was because 1969 was the first year that series F (other assets) and series K (new investment) were reported. In addition, to minimize the influence of technical change on growth, a recent time span was chosen.
- 2. Land. Land only values reported in Statistics Canada data represent 61.2% of the land and buildings total in 1970. This figure rises to 68.9% by 1984. These values are imputed by Statistics Canada because the original data series is collected as an aggregate value of land and buildings. Since values for Newfoundland were not included in the Canadian figures prior to 1976, they have been subtracted from the 1976-1986 series in order to maintain consistency throughout the series. The land to buildings ratio is developed by Statistics Canada using a value per acre survey to determine the land values and census intercensal extrapolation for total land and building values.
- 3. Land and Buildings. Value data for this variable are found in both Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E which superseded 21-202 in 1986, and the "Farm Net Income Reference Handbook" in the "Value of Farm Capital" tables. Since values from Newfoundland were not included in the Canadian series prior to 1976, they were subtracted from the 1976-1986 series in order to maintain consistency within the series. Canadian farm real estate is defined as land and buildings located on at least one acre and generating at least

\$250 agricultural gross sales. The values are a December estimate of present market value based on a per acre index established for each census year.

It was decided to analyze farm real estate values in the study rather than to simply examine farm land values. This was because of specification problems for two variables which would render land a poor choice for study. Rent is expressed in the Statistics Canada data as a return to buildings and land, rather than land. In addition, the value of land is an estimate made on the basis of land and buildings. Therefore, the difficulty of distinguishing between land and buildings (farm real estate) and land alone were considered to make farm real estate a more reliable variable in the study.

- 4. Machinery and Vehicles. Data are found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E and "Farm Net Income Handbook". This category includes implements, machinery, motor trucks and automobiles. This is a June 3 estimate of value. Newfoundland values are subtracted from the series for 1976-1986 in order to maintain consistency. The machinery and equipment inventories are estimates based on census data; their value is based on the current year's market value. The market value reflects what a machine of comparable age and condition would bring at an auction sale. It is, therefore, a replacement value and not an original or assessed value.
- 5. Livestock. December inventory values are found in Statistics Canada Cat. No.21-603E; "Value of Farm Capital" and also in the "Farm Net Income Reference Handbook". Livestock includes livestock; poultry and fur-bearing animals. Data for Newfoundland have been subtracted for the period from 1976

to 1986 in order to make the series consistent. The estimate of inventories is based on census data and intracensal surveys, while the value is calculated by Starstics Canada from the current year's average value for livestock.

- 6. Other Assets. These were found in the Farm Credit Corporation (FCC) Statistics series "Average Assets, Liabilities and Net Worth After Loan per Farm Unit". Other assets are comprised of farmers' current and monetary assets. This includes stocks, bonds, crop stocks, marketing board quota, supply inventories and a small percentage of intermediate and long term non-farm assets. Although FCC began landing in 1959, the published data are available for only 1970 to 1986. The data are published in the form of per farm averages. To derive an aggregate estimate for Canada, the FCC average for other assets was multiplied by the number of farms in Canada (excluding farms in Newfoundland). The number of farms is published every five years with census year. In intervening years, a linear extrapolation was used to estimate farm numbers. The number of farms in Alberta is also estimated using a linear extrapolation between census years.
- 7. Total Assets. The sum of land and building values, machinery values, livestock and values for other current and monetary assets for each year in current dollars.
- 8. Liabilities. These are comprised of Farm Debt found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E, 21-202 and 21-202P in a table entitled "Farm Debt Outstanding as of December 31," Classified by Lender and by Province". This series is compiled by Statistics Canada from publications of the Bank of Canada, the Farm Credit Corporation, Provincial government lending agencies,

the annual reports of financial institutions operating in Canada and from Statistics Canada farm surveys. Liabilities are based on fourth quarter or fiscal year end figures (March 31 for governments) which are assumed to be representative of December 31 of the previous calendar year. The 1986 value will not be published until mid December, 1987. The value for 1986 was provisionally estimated for Canada as being \$22,700,000 and for Alberta as \$5,350,000 based on phone information with the Farm Income Branch of Statistics Canada in Ottawa which suggested that 1986 figures were not considerably different than 1985 figures. The provisional estimates may be found to over estimate total liabilities.

- 9. Owner's Equity or Net Worth. Calculated strictly on the basis of the accounting principle A = L + E where A is assets, L is liabilities and E is exercise equity. Owner's equity on an aggregate level is thus found by subtracting the debt from total farm assets.
- 10. Annuar change in Net Worth. Calculated as the difference between the equity, E, at time t minus  $E_{(t-1)}$ . This is the change in net worth between the beginning and ending balance sheet for the year.
- 11. New Investment. This is lated from a series published by the Farm Credit Corporation (FCC) in FCC Statistics. The series "Improvements" in the table "FCA loans approved, by purpose of loan" includes the value of new buildings, breaking and leveling land, irrigation and drainage systems. To converte the aggregate FCC value into a per unit value, the value of "Improvements" was divided by the "Number of farm units" for each year of 1979 to 1986 data and by the "Number of borrowers" for data from 1970 to

1978 from the table "FCA loans approved, by type of farm enterprise". The average value of improvements thus derived was then multiplied by the number of farms in Canada (excluding Newfoundland) to arrive at a Canadian estimate. None of the National Accounts Statistics Canada series were used for investment because a comparable series for Alberta was not published. Thus calculation was therefore of: [(\$FCC improvements/number FCC units) \* number farms Statistics Canada].

- 12. Depreciation. This series can be found in Statistics Canada Farm Net Income Handbook tables of "Farm Operating Expenses and Depreciation Charges". The Newfoundland figures for the years from 1976 to 1986 were excluded in order to maintain consistency in the data. The depreciation cost is designed to reflect the declining value of farm buildings and machinery used in a year. For farm buildings, the depreciation estimate is based on building values calculated as a residual from land to building ratios (described earlier under land values).
- 13. Change in Livestock and Crop Inventories. Found in a series entitled "Net Farm Income" published in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E and in the "Farm Net Income Handbook". The inventories include wheat, oats, barley, rye, flaxseed, rapeseed, soybeans, corn potatoes, tobacco, cattle, calves, hogs, sheep and lambs (adjusted to reflect end of year inventory levels). The physical change in inventories are priced by Statistics Canada at a weighted or annual average price.
- 14. Year End Crop Stocks. These are unpublished Statistics Canada values for year end crop stocks from 1970 to 1986. In Alberta, the crops include

wheat, oats, barley, rye, flax, canola, and potatoes. At the Canadian level, additional crops included are tobacco, corn and soybeans. This series was used as part of an adjustment to the "Change in Other Assets and Liabilities" series which was performed in order to avoid double counting crop inventories in the estimation of Net Investment. Crop stocks were included in two series, the FCC "Other Assets" series and the Statistics Canada series "Change in Livestock and Crop Inventories", both of which were used in the calculation of Net Investment. The adjustment is described below (A1.15).

- 15. Annual Change in Other Assets and Liabilities. This series primarily represents the annual change in the values of current ("other") assets and liabilities. However, because of the double counting of crop inventories outlined above (A1.14), the annual change in value of year end crop inventories was subtracted from this series. This adjustment assumes that crop inventories can be consistently identified as a discreet series. In practice this is not the case due to the large and rapidly fluctuating nature of crop inventories during the year.
- Net Investment. Conceptually, the net investment adjustment to net worth attempts to isolate pure price changes (capital gains) from other causes of variation in farm asset values. This adjustment must be made since, in addition to price changes, the value of farm assets make so respond to changes in inflation, annual capital improvements, depreciation, changes in capital or current inventories, and/or changes in total debt. The process of isolating pure price induced variations in farm asset values involves subtracting (or adding) the value of annual changes in each

variable listed above back out of changes calculated in annual net worth. Net investment is composed of the current year's new investment plus depreciation minus inventory changes minus changes in the outstanding current asset and liability position. This process effectively cancels each extraneous variable's contribution to variations in farm asset values, leaving capital gains the only variable influencing, values. (Only Table A2.1 and Figure 4.1 are deflated by the "average" CPI).

- 17. Nominal Capital Gains. The calculation of nominal capital gains is described above (A1.16). In essence, they are annual changes in net worth minus annual changes in net investment expressed in current dollar terms.
- 18. Inflation Index. Indexing was based on the CPI, found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 62-001. The percentage annual change is calculated from  $(I_{(t+1)} I_{(t)})/I_{(t)}$  where I is the index in the t'th year. In the calculation of real values, unless it is explicitly stated otherwise, all values were deflated by the December CPI so that all numbers are as consistent as possible with a December balance sheet date.
- 19. Year Values and the CPI. All values are deflated by the December Consumer Price Index (CPI) in order to be consistent with a December balance sheet date. One specification difference between the Canadian and U.S. balance sheet models is the use of a December 31 balance sheet in Canada rather than a January 1 balance sheet. A December 31 balance sheet date better coincided with Canadian farm data: a December estimate for the value of Canadian farm real estate, inventory of livestock and estimates of liabilities.

- 20. Annual Change in the Purchasing Power of Net Worth. Calculated by multiplying the percentage change in the CPI by the value of the Net Worth.
- 21. Real Capital Gain of Farm-Assets. Calculated by adjusting nominal capital gains into real dollar terms. In the CMF method this is done by subtracting the real dollar value of net investment from the real dollar value of net worth. The Melichar method calculates nominal capital gains, (the nominal values of net worth minus net investment), and adds it to the annual change in the purchasing power or net worth (A1.20)
- 22. Nominal Capital Gains on Farm Real Estate. Calculated by subtracting the nominal value of farm real estate at the beginning of the year from its value at the end of the year.
- 23. Real Capital Gains on Farm Real Estate. Calculated by subtracting the constant dollar value of farm feal estate at the beginning of the year from its value at the end of the year.
- 24. Net Farm Income. Found in the Statistics Canada series "Agricultural Economic Statistics" Cat. No. 21-603E. Net Farm Income tables for 1970-1986. This was adjusted to exclude Newfoundland data for the period from 1976 to 1986. These series are comprised of December estimates of cash receipts plus income in kind plus supplementary payments plus the value of inventory payments minus operating and depreciation charges. There are two important limitations to these series. First, net farm income is associated with the sale of agricultural products. It is not indicative of cash flow to

the sector or to the farmer since income from the sale of farm capital is considered investment income and has therefore not been included in net farm income. Other incomes such as nonfarm wages and salaries, rental or pension incomes are also not included in net farm income. Secondly, the Canadian net farm income series was initially derived as part of an interprovincial business statement. This means that intraprovincial sales and purchase transactions are not included by Statistics Canada since they essentially canceled each other out within the provincial ledger. However, by not including these intrafarm transactions, the volume of sales and purchases is not fully represented.

- 25. Interest on Debt. Found in the Statistics Canada series "Farm Operating Expenses and Depreciation Charges" from Cat. No. 21-603E. This is an estimation, compiled by Statistics Canada, from chartered banks, federal and provincial lending agencies, the FCC, credit unions, insurance, loan and trust companies. The Canadian values have been adjusted to exclude Newfoundland values.
- 26. Gross Farm Income. Found in the Statistics Canada series "Agriculture Economic Statistics" Cat. No 21-603E. Gross income is composed of cash receipts plus income in kind plus supplementary payments plus the value of inventory changes. The Canadian values have been adjusted to exclude Newfoundland.
- 27. Imputed Return to Management. Calculated by multiplying gross income by 5% (0.05). This multiplier for estimating renumeration for management followed a precedent for its use set by Brinkman and Clark (1985).

- 28. Imputed Return to Officator's Labor. Based on a monthly "Hired Labor Wage" Statistics Canada series where 1940-1976 data is found in Cat. No. 21-003b and 1977-1986 data is found in Cat. No. 21-002. The wage used is the January (pre-1976) or February (post 1977), no board, monthly wage which is then multiplied by 12 to reflect the wage earned from a full year of hired service. This is a very conservative estimation of hired farm labor renumeration; it means that the 1986 Canadian daily wage for operator's labor is \$46.04.
- 29. Actual Return to Owner's Equity (ROE). Calculated by subtracting imputed returns to management (ROM) and imputed returns to operator's later (ROI) from net farm income.
- on debt to net farm income and subtracting the value of imputed returns to management and imputed returns to operator's labor.
- rent per acre leased to a rental value for every acre farmed. Imputed farm rent represents the annual return which accrues to the owner of farm land for the use of the productive services of the land. Imputed rent estimates the returns to the landlord for use of his land whether or not it is paid by a tenant or, in essence, by the owner/operator himself.

The calculation of imputed rent is based on the series gross farm rent which is listed in "Agricultural Economic Statistics", Cat. No. 21-603E, in

Although the gross rent is reported as an expense, rent can be expressed as an item of income for the owner. Gross rent includes income from rental of land and buildings whether it was paid on a cash or a share basis. The calculation of imputed rent begins by converting gross farm rent into an average gross farm rent by dividing annual gross farm rent by the number of acres rented. Imputed farm rent is the product of this average gross farm rent and the total area farmed (in Canada or Alberta).

Both series, number of acres rented and number of acres farmed are found for census years in "Census" Canada 1986: Agriculture", Cat. No. 96-102, in table 31 entitled "Other Selected Farm Data 1971, 1976, 1981, 1986.". Annual data for these two series was calculated using a linear extrapolation between census years. It was suggested in a phone conversation with Statistics Canada in Ottawa that the series reported in the Alberta, 1981 census for number of acres rented and total acres farmed were each underestimated by 2,000,000 acres. Since this error has not been corrected in a Statistics Canada published series, it was not considered. If there is a bias in the data, it would affect both annual and economic estimates of returns to farm real estate and the price/ earnings ratios for Alberta from 1977 to 1985.

32. Return to Farm Assets. The returns shown are the nominal dollar and real dollar rates of capital gain in aggregate values of farm assets, annual returns from owning farm assets (gross farm income) and expected rates of return when both aggregate capital gains and annual incomes are considered as an annualized income stream.

- a) Rate of nominal capital gain on farm assets is calculated by dividing nominal capital gains on farm assets (the difference between net worth and net investment) by the beginning of the year value of total farm assets.
  - b) Rate of real capital gain on farm assets is calculated by dividing real capital gains on farm assets (the real dollar difference between net worth and net investment) by the beginning of the year value of total farm assets.
  - c) Rate of nominal annual return to the assets for the owner is calculated by adding interest on debt to gross farm income and then subtracting returns for labor and management. The resulting term is then divided by the beginning of the year value of total farm assets.
  - d) Rate of real annual return to farm assets is calculated by adjusting nominal annual returns to farm assets by the CPI.
  - e) Rate of expected nominal return to farm assets is the sum of the rate of nominal capital gain in farm asset values and the rate of nominal annual return.
  - f) Rate of expected real return to farm assets is the sum of the rate of real capital gain in farm asset values and the rate of real annual return.
- 33. Return to Farm Real Estate. The returns shown are the nominal dollar and real dollar rates of capital gain in aggregate values of farm real estate, annual returns from owning farm real estate. (imputed rental income) and

imputed economic rates of return when both aggregate pital, gains and annual incomes are considered as an annualized return.

- a) Rate of nominal capital gain on farm real estate is gulated by dividing nominal capital gains from farm real estate (the nominal dollar value at the end of the year minus the value at the beginning of the year) by the beginning of the year nominal value of farm real estate.
- b) Rate of real capital gain on farm real estate is calculated by dividing the real capital gains from farm real estate (the real dollar value at the end of the year minus the value at the beginning of the year) by the beginning of the real dollar value of farm real estate.
- c) Rate of nominal annual return to farm real estate is the nominal value rental income divided by the value of farm real estate. Both variables are found in Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E.
- d) Rate of real annual return to farm real estate is the value of rental income divided by the value of farm real estate expressed in real dollar terms.
- e) Rate of imputed nominal return to farm real estate is the sum of the rate of nominal capital gain in farm real estate values and the rate of nominal annual return to farm real estate ownership.
- f) Rate of imputed real return to farm real estate is the sum of the rate of real of capital gain in farm real estate values and the rate of real annual return.

- 34. Growth Rates. The three measures used to estimate growth in the farm sector were: growth in farm real estate values, growth in the value of equity in farm assets and growth in the value of farm assets. The growth rates are all calculated from aggregate, nominal and real dollar values of Canadian and Alberta data.
  - a) Growth in real estate values is the annual change in real estate value calculated by: [(end of year value/beginning of year value) 1].
  - b) Growth in equity values is calculated by subtracting annual aggregate values of total farm liabilities from annual aggregate values of total farm assets. Growth in equity is the annual change calculated by: [(end of year value/ beginning of year value) 1].
  - c) Growth in farm asset values, a measure of capital gain in farm asset values, is calculated by subtracting net investment from annual changes in owner's equity (i.e. net worth) of farm assets.
  - d) CMF and Melichar methods of calculating real capital gain in farm asset values differ in a minor technicality of discounting dollar values by the CPI. These two methods are discussed in Chapter 3.
- 35. Solvency. The ability of a business to meet its long-term financial obligations is measured using the following financial ratios:
  - a) Capital ratio = assets/ debt. This measures the amount of assets available to cover total debts.
  - b) Leverage ratio = debt/ equity. This measures the proportion of ownership controlled by the owner and lender.

- c) Equity ratio = equity/ assets. The equity ratio measures the proportion of assets owned by the owner.
- 36. Capital efficiency. The efficiency with which capital generates annual income is measured in the following financial ratios:
  - a) Turnover = assets/ Gross Farm Income (GFI). This is the number of years needed to turnover the price of assets one time with income produced on the farm.
    - b) Scale = GFI/assets. The amount of money earned per dollar of assets.
- 37. Profitability. Measures the profitability of annual income plative to investment. The following ratios measure different aspects of profitability.
  - a) Return on assets (ROA) = Net Farm Income (NFI)/ assets. ROA measures the net earnings of both owner and lender in relation to the total, capital invested in the business.
  - b) Return on equity (ROE) = NFI + interest / assets. This is an earnings measurement of the return to owner/ operator.
  - c) An alternate form of ROE is expressed as ROA = NFI + interest Ro<sub>I</sub> Ro<sub>m</sub> / assets. The latter form measures the return to owner.
  - d) Bank rate: The interest on savings is the typical interest rate on non-chequing savings deposits posted in the 5 largest Canadian chartered banks. The data series are found in FCC Statistics, table of "Canadian bond yields and other interest rates". FCC compiles the

contents of this series from the Bank of Canada Review. This interest rate is complied from the "typical" rates listed by the five largest Canadian chartered banks for non-chequing savings deposits; It was used in this study as an example of a reasonable return which could have been expected from investment of equity capital in the money market. The real interest rate on savings is calculated by subtracting the rate of change in the CPI from the Chartered Bank rate.

- e) Return to lender (ROL) = Interest paid on debt/ liabilities. This measures the profits made by the lenders on business loans.
- 38. Price to earnings (P/E) ratios for aggregate Canadian and Alberta values from 1970 to 1986. Dollar terms, nominal or real, have no differentiating impact on price earnings ratios.
  - a) The P/E farm assets is calculated by dividing the value of farm assets by the value of gross farm income.
  - farm real estate by the value of imputed rental income.
- 39. Weighting Ratios. The ratios reflect the percentage of total farm assets that which is composed of either farm land or farm real estate. This percentage is not influenced differentially by real or nominal dollars. The ratios are: a) calculated by dividing the value of land by the value of total farm assets; b) calculated by dividing the value of farm real estate in land and buildings by the value of total assets; and c) calculated by dividing the value of farm real estate.

### APPENDIX 2

# CANADIAN FARM REAL ESTATE VALUES, 1926-1986

TABLE A2.1 CHANDIAN FAR (Thousands	M REAL ESTATE VALUE of Constant and Our	3 1925-1986 Tent \$)			
YEAR CURRENT	<b>GP</b> ,1,	CONSTANT			
BLDG. VALUE	FAMILY LIVING INDEX (Averaged)	BLDG: VALUES			
	(1961-100)				
1928 4698745 1927 4698745 1928 4698745	14.8 18.3	25262070 25676202			
1929 4696745 1930 4440478	18.3 19.6 18.4	25676202 25282070			
1931 4053292 1932 3489400	18.8 15.1	24133022 24417381 28108609			
1938 3425200 1934 3467808	14.4 14.8	23786111 23752110			
1935 3449255 1938 3292258	14.7 15.0	23464320 21948387			
1937 3253348 1938 3083056	15.4 15.8	21125623 19763179			
1940 3106885 1940 2963228	15.5 16.1	20044419 18405130			
1941 3029848 1942 3238024	17.0 17.9	17822624 18089520			
1943 3454480 1944 3849477	18.2 18.3	19005000 19942497	4		
1945 3711473 1946 2897005 1947 <sup>74</sup> 4214119	18.4 18.0	20171049 20510553			
1947** 4214119 1948 4665128 1949 4718823	20.8 23.7 24.5	20280188 19884078 19252880			
1950 5022642 1951 5512519	25.2 27.9	19931319 19758133			
1952 5668467 1953 8295677	21.5 25.3	19889358 22247289	4		<b>2</b> 7
1954 6183050 1955 6567066	28.5 28.5	21894912 23042337			
1958 8852857 1957 8958491	28.9 29.8	23711816 23350641	<u>ج</u>		
1958 7445775 - 1959 7542190	30.5 31.0	24335006 25297367			
1980 7408115 1981 7893535	31.4 31.6	20505908 24346630			
1982 855699 1983 9571797 1984 10538983	12.0 12.8 18.2	2790984 29351340			
1985 11815736 1986 13149821	34.0 25.2	\$1737940 34755 D8 37357446			
1967 , 14526184 1968 16338228	38.5 38.0	40825107 42905337			
1989 18828354 1970 1873 <b>6</b> 363	<b>39.</b> 7 41.0	41879965 40825276			
1971 16911962	42.2	40075787			
1973 22232843 1974 29020886	47.6 52.8	46707653 54963799			
1975 38640800 1976 43555386	54.5 62.9	82833604 89245415			
1977 49390119 1978 59297804	67.9 78.9	73623150 80226798			
1980 92019372	80.7 88.9	90545546 108518879			
1962 103640282 1982 00440282	110.8	10E2/5080 92538143		a. T	
1984 95041908 1985 Meniorez	122.3	77712104		e.	
1985 82095528	122.4	\$1980987			
1973 2223243 1974 2902088 1975 39640600 1976 4355588 1977 4660119 1978 56267804 1979 7315066 1980 92028372 1981 103275080 1982 103640502 1984 95041903 1985 88087042 1986 8208558 a) Source: Statistics b) Source: Statistics c) Calculated by ((cur	Canada, 21-Atas				
b) Source: Statistics	Carnets, 62-001.				

# APPENDIX 3

CANADIAN INDEX VALUES FOR FARM ASSETS AND INCOMES, 1970-1986

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#### APPENDIX.

# FOLYNOMIAL REGRESSIONS DETAILED

- 4.1 Polynomial Regressions
- 4.2 Calculation of Functional Form
- 4.3° Historical Farm Real Estate Values Described by a Cubic Model

#### POLYNOMIAL REGRESSIONS

#### 1. LINEAR POLYNOMIAL REGRESSION.

a. Mathematical form:  $y = 2777283 x^2 + 42916148$ 

where: y = farm real estate values.

x = time, in years, for the period from 1970 to 1986.

#### b. Lotus 123 Statistical Analysis:

Constant 42916148
Std Err of Y Est 14358563R Squared 0.53
No. of Observations 18
Degrees of Freedom 16

X Coefficient. 2777283 Std Err of Coef. 652325

#### 2. QUADRATIC POLYNOMIAL REGRESSION.

a. Mathematical forth:  $y = -402027 \times^2 + 9611743 \times + 24690920$ 

where: y = value of farm real estate.

x = time, in years, for the period from 1970-to 1986.

#### b. Lotus 123 Statistical Analysis:

Constant 24690920
Std Err of Y Est 10418347
R Squared 0.7'
No. of Observations 18
Degrees of Freedom 15

X Coefficient 9611743 Std Err of Coef. 1805248

X<sup>2</sup> Coefficient -402027 Std Err of Coef. 102476

#### 3. CUBIC POLYNOMIAL RESSION.

a: Mathematical form:  $x^2 - 81790 x^3 + 1683626 x^2 - 4169927 x + 41376146$ 

where: y = value of farm real estate.
x = time, in years, for the period from 1970 to 1986.

## b. Lotus 123 Statistical Analysis:

Constan	train a	413761	46
Std Err	Mar Kst I	4035	179
K Squar	CO S		-0.97
No. of	Observations	<b>^</b>	18
Degrees	of Freedom	<b>&amp;</b>	14

X Coefficient -4169927 /Std Err of Coef. 1642448

X<sup>2</sup> Coefficient 1683626 Std Err of Coef. 228388

X<sup>3</sup> Coefficient -81790 Std Err of Coef. 8820

#### CALCULATION OF FUNCTIONAL FORMS

ble A4.1 A working table showing the calculation of linear, quadratic and cubic lynomial regressions for farm aggregate Canadian real estate values versus time. All lues are reported in constant dollar terms and in ('000) of dollars.

Land Live	Year	Year code=xb	x(x) <sup>b</sup>	x(x)x <sup>b</sup>	Cubic <sup>c</sup>	Quadratic	1 inear®
40725944	1970	1	1	1	38808056	33900638	45693430
39238937	1971	2	4	8	39116475	42306298	48470713
40506797	1972	3	9	27	41810664	49907906	51247996
44914834	1973	4	16	÷ 64	46399878	58705459	54025279
52195838	1974	5	, 25	125	52393378	62698959	56802561
60165189	1975	8	36	216	59300420	67888404	59579844
67436420	1976	7	49	343	66630263	72273795	62357127
70725411	1977	8	64	512	73892164	75855132	65184410
77415322	1978	9	81.	729 °	80595382	78832415	67911693
86995962	1979	10	100	1000	88249176	80605643	70688975
98440394	1980	. 11	121	1331	90382802	81774818	73488258
98587548	1981	• 12	144	1728	92445519	82139938	76243541
90518276	1982	- 13	169	2197	a 92006585	81701004	79020824
83040406	1983	14	196	2744	88555258	80458016	81798106
78516867	1984	15	225	3375	81600797	78410974	84575389
68187314	1985	16	256	4096	70652458	75559878	87352672
80750737	1986	17	289	4913	55219501	71904727	90129955

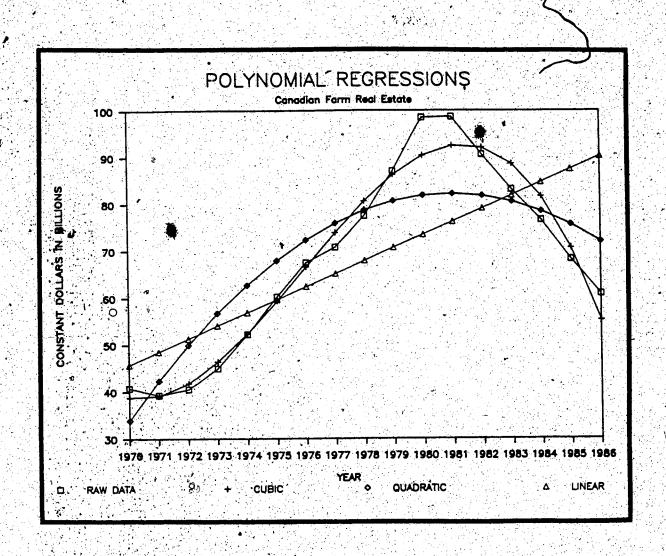
- a) Land and buildings. The value of farm real estate is found in Statistics Canada 21-603E. It has been converted to real dollar values in this series.
- b) Year code. The independent variable in the regression analysis is time, in years. In order to simplify the coding for the regression, years with a code of 1,2,3...etc. were used to represent the year by year annual data instead of their calander year numbers. For the higher degree polynomials, time is squared and cubed (as represented in the second and third columns of year codes).
- c) Cubic. By plugging the x,  $x^2$ , and  $x^3$  (in coded form) into the functional form derived by regression analysis (reported on the previous page), the values for the cubic function can be calculated.
- d) Quadratic. Calculated in exactly the same way as the cubic values (c).
- e) Linear. Calculated in exactly the same way as the cubic values (c).

#### 4.3 HISTORICAL FARMREAL ESTATE VALUES DESCRIBED BY A CUBIC MODEL

It appears from both a statistical and visual analysis that a cribic model best describes the trend in farm real estate values between 1970 and 1986. Use of the cubic form implicitly assumes that growth in farm real estate values is quadratic in form and that the rate of growth in farm real estate values is linear and thus not constant over time. The cubic form may best describe pattern of growth in a dynamic environment.

The time period over which growth in values of farm real estate are observed is critical to the investor's perception of value. With each additional polynomial order, the degrees of freedom in the calculation of growth decrease. When there are less than 20 observations in the regression, the conclusion is sensitive to each year's value. End values and beginning values are also likely to influence the calculated growth rates. It would therefore be unlikely that an investor would feel confident enough about the significance of the cubic form to incorporate it into his future plans. However, from the fit of each functional form shown in Figure A4.1, it is also obvious that neither a linear nor quadratic model could have so adequately describes land values in the mid and late 1980's based on the growth in farm real estate between 1969 and 1986.

The first derivative of Equation 4.1 gives the historic growth rate as estimated by the model; this can be compared to the actual growth rate. The actual growth rate shown in Figure 4.3 was calculated by taking the



Appendix Figure A4.1 Polynomial regressions of Canadian farm real estate values. Regressions performed on the real dollar farm estate values (raw data) versus time included linear, quadratic and cubic functional forms, the results of which are shown on the graph. Clearly the best fit is provided by the cubic form. Farm real estate values are expressed in constant (1981) dollar terms. The source of the real estate values is Statistics Canada Cat. No. 21-603E. These values are also listed in Table A1.1.

end of the previous year. This calculation is conceptually identical to the first derivative of the functional form except that it gives a series of snapshots on a segment by segment basis rather than a estimate for the period.

Such comparison yields five similarities and only one appreciable difference. These include:

- 1) The minimum real value for farm real estate was in 1970 (the functions' slope = 0). This concluded several years of negative growth in the late 1960's.
- 2) The maximum real value for farm real estate was in 1981 (the functions' slope = 0). This heralded the decline in land values seen in the early 1980's.
- 3) Capital gains (i.e. positive growth; with the function having a slope greater than 0) were experienced during 9 years out of the period from 1972 to 1981.
- 4)Capital losses (i.e. negative growth; with the function having a slope less than 0) were experienced during 7 years of the study in 1970 and from 1981 to 1986.
- 5) Rates of growth in Canadian farm real estate values were constant and negative for 4 years during the 17 year period. This was from 1982 to 1984 and in 1986.
- 6)Growth was zero in 1981.

For the first nine years of the study period, the fitted growth rate Equation 4.1 is very similar to actual growth rates. However, in the last eight years (1978-1986), the growth rates described in Figure 4.3 by the actual rate and the first derivative of the cubic functional form diverge sharply. The actual growth rate series indicates that the largest rate of growth took place in 1980. It also appears that during 1980 to 1982, the greatest capital loss occurred. In contrast, the cubic functional form

suggests a rate of a the that peaked in 1976 - four years ahead of the actual situation. From \$6\$ to 1986 the cubic functional form "smoothes out" the highest rates of capital gains and losses actually experienced by farmers and investors.

#### APPENDIX S

THE CALCULATION OF STATISTICAL MEASURES OF

#### APPENDIX 5

#### THE CALCULATION OF STATISTICAL MEASURES OF RISK

#### 1. Average.

a. Single asset. 
$$x = SUM(A_1 + A_2... + A_n)/n$$

where: n = the number of samples.

 $A_n$  = the value of an observation.

b. Portfolio. 
$$x_{12} = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2$$

where: w<sub>j</sub> = a weighting function, used as the average value of the asset in the farm portfolio. In the case of a two-

asset

portfolio 
$$w_1 = 1 - w_2$$

x; = the mean of a sample population.

#### 2. Variance.

a. Single asset. 
$$v = SUM[(x_1 - A_1)^2 + (x_2 - A_2)^2...(x_n - A_n)^2] / n$$

where: v = the variance of a group of observations.

Note that predicted values from a functional form may substituted into the calculation of variance in place of the mean. For risk analysis, one may wish to assume a growth model and calculate variance as:

$$v = SUM[(p_1 - A_1)^2 + (p_2 - A_2)^2...(p_n - A_n)^2] / n$$

where  $p_n$  = is the value predicted from the model at observation n.

b. Portfolio variance. 
$$v_{12} = w_1^2 v_1 + w_2^2 v_2 + 2w_1 w_2 r_{12} SD_1 SD_2$$

where: r<sub>12</sub> = the correlation coefficient between the two sample groups.

SD<sub>j</sub> = the standard deviation of the sample group j; the square

 $\int$  root of  $v_j$ .

- 3. Standard deviation. The square root of the variance.
- 4. Coefficient of variation. For both portfolios and a single asset:

$$COV = SD / \overline{x}$$

This version of the coefficient of variation expresses the variation as net of the beginning value. In order to express the variation in terms of its gross variation, the beginning value  $(x_1)$  was included in the estimation of the coefficient of variation using the form:

$$COV = SD / (x_1 + \overline{x})$$