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**STATE, AGRICULTURE AND AGRICULTURAL
INTERVENTIONS – MUTUAL RELATIONSHIPS²**

Key words: agriculture, state interventionism, agricultural interventionism, importance of agriculture in the founding of the state, importance of the state in agricultural development

ABSTRACT. This paper analyzes mutual relationships between the institution of the state, agriculture, and agricultural interventions. It primarily adopts a historical (retrospective) approach, starting by identifying the socioeconomic importance of agriculture, and then moving to the relationships between agriculture and the state. The final section focuses on the importance of state interventionism in agriculture, taking into consideration both historical events and specific (mostly environmental) challenges of the present. The authors relied on the relevant literature on agricultural interventionism and on mutual relationships between the state and agriculture. Despite a number of deficiencies, it is essential for the state to be actively involved in the agricultural sector. The regulatory activities carried out include not only the real impact on agricultural production (its volume and quality), but also affect issues of agriculture's impact on the environment and social life. By assuring basic security, the state enables the emergence of farming innovations which are a necessary driver of agricultural development, which, moreover, must be conditioned by the unknown environmental problems present in the past. Moreover, the production and distribution of food alone represents one of the fundamental dimensions of security and is a guarantor of full economic growth.

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INTRODUCTION

Today, in the European Union, the mutual relationships between public institutions and the agricultural sector are primarily viewed through the prism of environmental aspects (usually at a global level), as the need for reducing greenhouse gas emissions while preserving food security. The above approach is generally sound because of the conflict that exists, at least in the short term, between the farmers' individual interest and social concern. Nevertheless, in the present circumstances, the mutual relationships between the institution of the state and the agricultural sector need to be looked at from a broader perspective, including in the historical (retrospective) dimension. First of all, the question must be asked whether the public authorities' interest in agriculture is necessary and whether it is a driver of agricultural development or a hampering instrument. To put it in other words: which of the government's activities are advantageous to agriculture (or to farmers, which is not always concurrent) and which are not. In that context, the discussion needs to start by addressing two key aspects which in fact show that the state must demonstrate some interest in agriculture. The first is the geographic distribution of production: agricultural land usually spans over a large part of the national territory, and its use triggers a series of impacts that go far beyond food production itself. This includes landscape shaping (and the environmental functions delivered by landscape) or contaminant emissions to groundwater. The second aspect is food security, one of the key dimensions of national security. The authors adopt an approach which starts by analyzing the historical dependencies, and then use them as a basis in assessing today's agricultural interventionism, because they strongly believe the current realities are the combined effect of earlier events (or, in broader terms, of earlier trends). Some of the challenges facing the agriculture, the agricultural policy and agricultural interventionism either are constant in nature (e.g. food security) or result from ongoing particularities (e.g. environmental and climate issues).

This paper is a review based on the analysis of selected literatures on mutual relationships between agriculture and the state (and the resulting agricultural interventionism). The authors decided not to discuss the detailed grounds for the current agricultural policy and its instruments because the topic (especially in the context of the EU's Common Agricultural Policy) has already been addressed in a number of publications. Also, due to its nature, this paper does not include a methodological section.

Although the complexity of this topic makes it impossible to cover all conditions, the authors defined their goal as to indicate the mutual relationships between agriculture and the state (including the former's contribution to the formation of the latter) and the resulting grounds for today's agricultural interventionism.

MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

Addressing the state, agriculture and state interventionism at the same time means dealing with an extremely broad topic, and it is therefore impossible to review all available studies and papers on the subject. Mark Petticrew and Helen Roberts [2006] propose to define a single, specific research problem and to restrict the search to thematically related literatures only. This analysis used the systematized review procedure put forth by Zofia Mazur and Agnieszka Orłowska [2018], inspired by Alison Booth et al. [2012] (Figure 1).

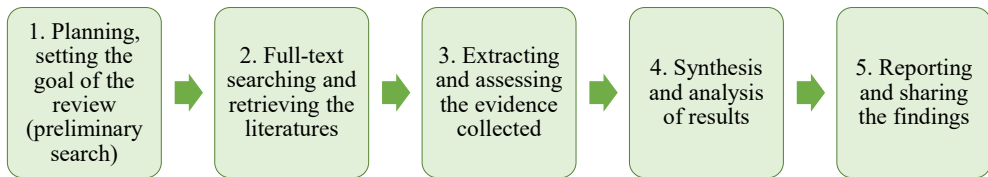


Figure 1. Five-stage systematized review procedure

Source: [Booth et al. 2012, after: Mazur, Orłowska 2018]

As part of the first stage of the systematized review procedure (i.e. as part of planning the research process), it was agreed that the review would: cover both papers and books, Polish and foreign authors and adopt a historical (retrospective) approach.

This stage also included determining the goal of research efforts, that is the purpose of this review was to present the mutual relationships between the institution of the state, agriculture, and agricultural interventions.

The next stage included full-text searching and retrieving literatures with Google Scholar. The following keywords were used: agriculture, state interventions, agricultural interventionism, importance of agriculture in the founding of the state, importance of the state in agricultural development. Also, the authors searched through sources unavailable in the Internet (e.g. books). The publications used in the literature review were selected based on PRISMA guidelines proposed by David Moher et al. 2010 [after: Bała et al. 2015].

The next step consisted in assessing the results gathered so far, and retaining only those strictly related to the goal of this study, i.e. to the relationships between the state, agriculture and agricultural interventionism. It was also justified to include publications focused on state interventionism itself. First, the analysis included reading the title. If it was consistent with the research problem defined in this study, the procedure moved to exploring the abstract, and then the very content. Next, the documents were analyzed in terms of quality and suitability for the topic.

The fourth stage was the synthesis and analysis of the results. Suggested in this respect by the proposal of Zofia Mazur and Agnieszka Orłowska [2018], a “narrative synthesis of data” was performed. The key information was described, and the authors looked for a research gap in the domain covered by their analysis.

The last stage, i.e. reporting and sharing the findings, included preparing this paper. The authors summarized their work, and indicated problems to be further investigated as part of that research topic.

REASONS BEHIND AND SOCIAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE CREATION OF AGRICULTURE

The creation of agriculture was among the most marking events in the ca. 200,000 years’ history of homo sapiens. David Christian [2019] views it as one of the thresholds that determine the limits of complexity, and gives it almost the same importance as to milestones such as the creation of the universe, stars, galaxies and, ultimately, humans. He defines the essence of it as leveraging environmental knowledge to boost the yields of plants and animals which are of greatest use to humans, and to eliminate the ones of no use. As a consequence, farmers can derive more benefits from photosynthetic energy without the need to increase photosynthetic flows. The key aspect from a socioeconomic perspective is that agriculture was essentially the first productive form of management; one in which people not only seized the opportunities offered by the environment they lived in, but also used human and animal labor and machinery to modify that environment in accordance with their needs. Therefore, the creation of agriculture – which dates back to ca. 10,000 years ago – is considered to be one of the key stages (milestones) of human development, and is referred to as the Neolithic Revolution. Initially, it took place in the Fertile Crescent, i.e. the basin of Tigris and Euphrates and the eastern Mediterranean coast [Galor 2022]. Independently, agriculture arose in Southeast Asia, Mesoamerica and New Guinea. Its expansion potential depended on the amount of useful plant and animal species, and on the latitudinal distribution of land on each continent. According to Jared Diamond [2020], as Africa and South America form a shape parallel to meridians, their climate varies between regions, which made it difficult to disseminate innovative agricultural technologies and to use specific plants. It was different in the Middle East and especially in Europe with a territory extended along latitudinal circles.

Today, the advantages of agriculture are widely recognized, and the existence itself of agriculture is a worldwide standard. The change in the way humans accessed and consumed food was not a short-term process (and yet it is viewed as a “revolution”). Also, it had a series of adverse impacts compared to the non-production-based hunting-gathering system. First, focus needs to be placed on the reasons why humans shifted to another way

of accessing food after tens of thousands years of hunting and gathering. That process is generally believed to be driven by climate change combined with the disappearance of wild plants and animals (including as a result of hunting). Coupled with population growth, this could have led to food crises [Christian 2019, Scott 2020]. Jared Diamond [2020] notes that “over the last 13,000 years, the hunting-gathering lifestyle has become less and less viable in line with the shrinking, if not total exhaustion, of its fundamental resources (especially fauna)”. However, as noted by David Greaber and David Wengrow [2022], it took thousands of years to implement agriculture, and the communities who initially shifted to it often combined it to a certain degree with hunting and gathering. Also, the key to survival was biodiversity rather than authority over biological resources. When considering the importance and undeniable successes of agriculture at a later time, little attention is paid to the series of adverse aspects related to agricultural production. First, crop and livestock farming requires considerable efforts, in contrast to relatively large amounts of free time enjoyed by hunters-gatherers. Furthermore, despite obtaining a surplus of food (which was ultimately decisive for the wide adoption of agriculture by nearly all societies around the globe), the farming diet narrowed the available variety of foodstuffs to a few or a dozen products, mostly based on cereals. As noted by James Scott [2020], “hence, the first increasingly cereal-based diets (based on wheat, barley and millet) of the Late Neolithic period resulted in the emergence of iron-deficiency (sideropenic) anemia which leaves noticeable traces in bones”. Similar conclusions were drawn by Yuval Noah Harrari [2014] who notes that “for the farmers, instead of bringing a new era of prosperity, the agrarian revolution usually meant living a harder and less satisfactory life than that of hunters-gatherers. The latter enjoyed a healthier diet, shorter working time, and more inspiring and diverse ways of spending free time while being less exposed to hunger and diseases”. Yuval Noah Harrari [2018] goes as far as claiming that the biblical description of the expulsion from the Garden of Eden (a place where people could pick wild fruit) is an allegory of the agrarian revolution and its dark side: sweating to produce food. These negative aspects of agriculture also include restricting people’s mobility due to the need for taking constant care of the soil and, despite what one could expect, because of a greater risk of food crises resulting from a diet based exclusively on several plant species (although agriculture itself was a response to enviro

Irrespective of its deficiencies and risks referred to above, agriculture is today’s prevalent source of food, and is actually vital both for individuals and for whole societies. Before the industrial revolution – which meant a broader use of fossil-fueled technologies (defined by David Christian [2019] as the Anthropocene and the next, eighth, threshold of complexity) – agriculture made only a small contribution, if at all, to improving the lives of common people. Conversely, it enabled gradual population growth, initially in communities which shifted to it. Odet Galor [2022] defines that period as the Malthusian era in which any innovations leading to production growth were offset by proportional

population growth, thus maintaining the quality of life at a subsistence level. However, these circumstances provided the agrarian communities with a competitive advantage (in a military sense and beyond) while enabling the territorial expansion of agriculture itself far beyond its cradle. Jared Diamond [2020] states: “(...) the power of agriculture lies, amongst other things, in the fact that food production enables keeping population density at a much higher level; and ten naked farmers would certainly have an advantage over one naked hunter-gatherer”.

AGRICULTURE AND THE STATE: MUTUAL RELATIONSHIPS

All cultures and religions had such a strong desire for power and authority that at some point in time they started to fight for territories; the creation of the state was therefore accompanied by a long historical process. In “Politics”, his *opus vitae* (edited in late 4th century BC by Theophrastus, his pupil) [Jasiński 2008], Aristotle defined the role and the need for the existence of the state as a product of nature necessary for the sake of human natural ends. Individuals living outside the state were viewed as miserable or inhumane [Arystoteles 2006].

Although the formation of states has accompanied humanity since ancient times, it took centuries for that process to mature. The initial forms of state considerable differed from those witnessed later. The process moved through different cycles which started and ended in breakthrough moments, e.g. when communities needed to reach an understanding with one another in order to protect themselves against external threats or to fight for better living conditions [Górski, Salmonowicz 2001].

The history provides numerous examples of states rising and falling due to natural factors (e.g. population concentration in Mesopotamia and in the Nile Valley, Mayan city-states), natural disasters (e.g. the Crete-Mycenaean Civilization) and, last but not least, political aspects (e.g. the Mongolian and Manchurian expansion in China) [Nosow 2018]. Although people organized themselves into states for security concerns, there had some other reasons, too, including economic imperatives. Indeed, economically or militarily stronger social groups exerted pressure on weaker ones. In order to place an even greater emphasis on their authority, they organized the lives of subjugated groups within the territories under their control. As a consequence, in addition to workforce, they also had access to land, making them even wealthier. The territorial expansion of states was of particular importance in the pre-industrial era where the availability of cropland (together with people working on it) was key to power. Also, it was a no-progress economy, with a market based on a zero-sum game where no one could increase their wealth without someone else incurring a loss. In turn, a capitalist economy underpinned by successive production growth driven by businesses seeking profit is mostly based on voluntary trade.

Hence, if one market actor gets wealthier, so do other ones. As a consequence, in the present era, for reasons which include the growing role of social and human capital (which is not geographically bound), territorial expansion has lost its economic importance, though not entirely. This is because in both the industrial and post-industrial era, the ability to develop strongly depends on having access to non-renewable sources of energy (which, in turn, are strictly geographically defined, and therefore provide incentive for war).

The importance of agriculture to the formation of state institutions seems obvious. Its fundamental characteristic (i.e. the production of surplus food) played an essential role in the formation of social groups not directly involved in food production. These primarily include the government, administration and army, as well as representatives of other non-agricultural professions, such as innovators. Nevertheless, there were some historical cases of hunters-gathers becoming sedentary and creating states or proto-states if they had abundant resources of comestible wild plants or animals. In turn, David Greaber and David Wengrow [2022] point out to Çatalhöyük, a Turkish city with a population of over 5,000, established in ca. 7400 BC where archeologists found numerous artifacts, including of a symbolic nature. This testifies to a quite mature and complex social life (including specialization) which could suggest the existence of agriculture together with its ability to deliver surplus food. However, according to the authors, animal remains found in that location are those of wild species.

The above examples do not negate the strict relationships between agriculture and the creation of the state. The abundance of natural resources is always restricted, and therefore makes it impossible for a population to grow above a certain limit (and reach a level of complexity far higher than that of the most developed hunting-gathering communities). James Scott [2020] believes that a key role was played by the production of cereals which provided a basis for taxation. Indeed, cereals meet the combination of the following basic criteria which do not apply to other plants, whether cultivated or wild: they are visible (cannot be stored under ground) and dividable, they mature at the same time (making it easier to define the tax collection time), and are easily transportable and storable. Also, they have a high and easily measurable value-to-volume ratio. The above means that the creation of the state would be impossible without agriculture, and in particular without the cultivation of cereals. Nevertheless, the state ecosystem itself can be assessed from the perspective of two classic philosophical concepts which address the essence of negative and positive consequences of its existence, namely the concepts developed by Jean-Jacques Rousseau and Thomas Hobbes. The former promoted an idealistic picture of living in natural conditions, i.e. in a society deprived of both agriculture and the state. However, rather than describing a certain reality, it was only a theoretical construct. For Jean-Jacques Rousseau, the root of the problem was the contribution of agriculture to the emergence of private ownership, a source of inequality and exploitation. According to Jean-Jacques Rousseau [Greaber, Wengrow 2022]: “The one who first fenced in a plot of

land, and took upon himself to say, ‘this land is mine’, and found people so simple-minded as to believe him, that man was the first founder of the social organization. From how many crimes, wars, murders, calamities, cruelties would mankind have been delivered had some man then uprooted the fences and filled up the ditches”. For Thomas Hobbes, in turn, living in natural conditions would mean the war of all against all (lat. *bellum omnium contra omnes*). Hence, for the sake of security, people surrendered a part of their liberty to a sovereign (i.e. to the state). He also claimed that the ultimate reasons for founding a state include preserving human dignity and hoping for a better, happier life, without it, people – driven by their egoism – become a threat to themselves [Stępnik 2012]. According to Thomas Hobbes, humans entered into a specific agreement, and thus crossed the point of no return. However, it allowed individuals to live within a widely adopted legal framework which, as the most important advantage, provided them with security [Arndt 2019]. As a matter of fact, both concepts are true in a certain way. On the one hand, state institutions collect taxes and duties from their citizens (serfs), and sometimes keep them at a near-subsistence level. On the other, however, they provide the population with a certain degree of security in three essential areas: the military, health and economic (including food security) dimension. Each of them is supposed to be of equal importance not only to a citizen but also to the authorities.

Aristotle viewed humans as *zoon politikon*, i.e. as political beings; this explained their ability to interact with one another and collaborate for the sake of common prosperity in city-states [Giza 2014]. Agriculture plays an important, if not a key, role for the state, whether viewed as an oppressor or as a security provider. On the one hand, as mentioned earlier, crops became the first form of taxes, whereas the agricultural policy, in its initial form, actually consisted in exploiting the farmers. On the other, however, it would have been impossible to ensure security (and, subsequently, development) without producing and seizing surplus food. This is because development essentially relies on specialized production efforts taken to ensure subsistence to representatives of every profession. Already in ancient times, Platon [2018] noted the following: “Must each one (...) like the farmer, though one, providing food for four, devoting fourfold time and effort to the provision of food and sharing with the others? Or, not caring for this, must he make for himself only a fourth part of this food in a fourth part of the time, and spend the other three on providing a house, clothes and shoes?”. Ultimately, he takes the side of specialization, just like Adam Smith, the father of modern theory of economics, who claims in turn that [Smith 2007] “The division of labor, so far as it can be introduced, occasions, in every art, a proportional increase of the productive powers of labor. The separation of different trades and employments from one another seems to have taken place in consequence of this advantage”. The division of labor was one of Adam Smith’s most popular ideas [Kalita 2015]. When looking at it from a modern perspective, it needs to be noted that no improvements to the quality of life had been witnessed for most of the time after the

emergence of agriculture (population growth, oppressive state elites, and other natural and anthropogenic factors). However, production specialization and public patronage for scientific and innovative activities (even if restricted to providing security) ultimately resulted in breaking out of the Malthusian era during the industrial revolution. With its multitude of innovations focused on meeting customer needs (which, however, often resulted in deteriorating the well-being of the poorest social groups), capitalism contributed to real improvements in the quality and expectancy of life. Deirdre McCloskey [2017] notes that as a consequence of the industrial revolution, despite considerable population growth, the average salary is ten times that of the 19th century. She compares the changes witnessed over the last couple of centuries to a hockey stick: indeed, explosive growth occurred after hundreds of years of stagnation. Johan Norberg [2019] views this problems in a similar way, and notes that "... in one of the countries I analyzed during my studies, the population suffered from chronic malnutrition; it was poorer than a typical Sub-Saharan state, had lower life expectancy and higher child mortality. What country am I talking about? That of my ancestors: Sweden from 150 years ago".

As a matter of fact, although that progress was primarily driven by unlocking entrepreneurship, it needs to be recalled that it would not have been possible (at least when looking at it from today's perspective and from that of the sequence of historical events) without the institution of the state. As Lech Chojnowski [2018] remarks, it is the society, rather than the state, who produce all goods. In turn, the role of public institutions is to provide a secure framework for these activities. In that context, note that despite their oppressive nature (as described above), the states generally managed to comply (though not fully) with their basic commitment of providing security. Johan Norberg [2019] indicates that the number of violent deaths was 524 per 100,000 population in non-state societies, and went down to 30-40 between the 13th and 15th century. In today's United States, it is below 5, and even less in Europe.

Note however that modern states, which are home to a series of innovations, cannot operate without a developed agricultural sector and the surplus food it delivers. All of this means that agriculture lays, and most likely will continue to lay, grounds for living one's life and foundations for every civilization. However, it needs to be emphasized that changes enabled by the industrial revolution in the last couple of centuries were generally focused on non-agricultural sectors (initially mostly on coal mining and weaving). And yet, progress also (or primarily) translated into agricultural production growth. The use of mechanical traction, mineral fertilizers, plant protection products and, finally, biological progress made it possible to deliver larger quantities of agricultural produce to feed the ever-growing population. Hence, Yuval Noah Harari [2018] goes as far as calling the industrial revolution the second agrarian revolution.

GROUNDS FOR AGRICULTURAL INTERVENTIONS

The interest itself from public institutions in agriculture is not equivalent to the implementation of intervention mechanisms. However, the particularities of that sector prompt the authorities to engage in regulatory activities related both to production and to environmental and social impacts.

Just like any other social and political process, economic (including agricultural) intervention has its pros and cons. In many cases, it can discourage individuals from engaging in an activity, or even make people rely completely on the government. In that context, it is worth noting what Margaret Thatcher, the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom in 1979-1990, said: “There is no such thing as public money; there is only taxpayers’ money. If the State wishes to spend more, it can do so only by borrowing your savings or by taxing you more. It is no good thinking that someone else will pay – that ‘someone else’ is you”. Many years earlier, Ludwig von Mises, an Austrian economist and a well-known opponent to interventions, said the following: “state intervention is a command given by the government who have a variety of ways to put pressure on people. It forces the manufacturers and owners of productive inputs to use them otherwise than they would when under market pressure” [Mises 2005]. Thus, he suggests that economic security is something every citizen can attain on their own because they know best what they need, and they are free individuals which should solve their own problems, face dilemmas, and either derive benefits from it or come to terms with their failures. In other words, the opponents to state intervention believe that the free market is capable of providing economic security to every citizen.

Adam Smith claimed that most economic activities should not fall under the competence of the state, which has only three key commitments [Danowska-Prokop 2014]:

- to protect the society against external aggressors (which involves financing the army on an ongoing basis);
- to protect every citizen against acts in breach of generally applicable national laws (which involves the need for financing the police and the courts);
- to organize public works, and to create and maintain the economic and social infrastructure which provides benefits to the society as a whole.

The dilemmas related to the importance of the state to the economy are particularly relevant to agriculture as a sector which somehow “created” the state ecosystem itself and, most importantly, deals with its essential aspect: security. On the one hand, production volumes and lines should depend on market signals, but on the other, agriculture goes far beyond market itself and its supply and demand model. Therefore, the state has taken interest in that sector for much longer than the term “agricultural intervention” exists in economic theory. In the context of earlier considerations, food security remains a constant concern. The years of famine and abundance, as described in the Book of Genesis, are

an allegory for natural risks which the state can remedy by purchasing surpluses in periods of abundant yields. In this context, note that the story is about Ancient Egypt, one of the oldest civilizations. Although nowadays security is not expressly presented as a crucial issue, it needs to be remembered that today's prevailing social and environmental measures are ultimately expected to ensure an adequate supply of food while minimizing the environmental risk. Hence, the grounds and determinants have evolved over the thousands of years, but the goal has remained the same. Moreover, in the past and today, both farmers and public institutions have responded to unpredictable and potentially dangerous climate and weather factors. Historically, they had natural causes whereas today they are increasingly driven by human activity.

Therefore, other grounds for agricultural interventions need to be considered in the context of their core objective which is to assure food security. The following overlapping aspects are a non-exhaustive list of today's most pressing problems:

1. Spatial nature of production. In most countries, agricultural land accounts for a considerable part (often for more than a half) of the national territory. That fact alone makes the use thereof a matter of interest to public institutions.
2. The presence of externalities (both positive and negative), the vast majority of which are related to the spatial nature of production. Local and global impacts of agriculture on third parties, taking place outside the market mechanism (e.g. by polluting underground water with fertilizers, or emitting greenhouse gases), place the state in the position of an arbitrator and a regulator.
3. Long production cycles, the production's reliance on raw materials, and the relatively short period of capital use within a year (especially as regards field machinery) – all of this contributes to the need for a redistribution of public funds.

Especially the last (economic) reason could be skipped when considering other sectors, in which operators tend to discontinue economically non-viable activities. That rule does not apply to agriculture which, despite its low profitability, is essential from a social point of view.

SUMMARY

This paper attempted to identify the mutual relationships between the agricultural sector and the state. It shows that despite the existence of proto-states in hunting and gathering societies, the shift to production as a way of accessing food and obtaining food surpluses was a necessary booster of population growth and social complexity which laid grounds for the establishment of the state. Despite its oppressive nature and the fact that it had failed to increase wealth in real terms for thousands of years, it provided a certain degree of security which ultimately enabled the development of solutions which since

the industrial revolution have contributed to improving the wellbeing of a considerable part of humanity, and to an unprecedented demographic explosion. Hence, today, the agricultural sector must be meticulously supervised by public institutions because of the need to ensure food security to a growing population faced with previously unknown environmental problems.

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PAŃSTWO, ROLNICTWO I INTERWENCJONIZM ROLNY – WZAJEMNE ZALEŻNOŚCI

Słowa kluczowe: rolnictwo, interwencjonizm państwowy, interwencjonizm rolny, znaczenie rolnictwa w powstaniu państwa, znaczenie państwa w rozwoju rolnictwa

ABSTRAKT. Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie wzajemnej zależności między instytucją państwa a rolnictwem i interwencjonizmem rolnym. Przyjęto głównie perspektywę historyczną (retrospektywną). Rozważania rozpoczęto od wskazania społeczno-ekonomicznego znaczenia rolnictwa, następnie omówiono związki pomiędzy rolnictwem i instytucją państwa. Na koniec skupiono się na znaczeniu interwencjonizmu państwowego w sektorze rolnym, uwzględniając zarówno uwarunkowania historyczne, jak i specyficzne wyzwania współczesności (głównie o charakterze środowiskowym). Wykorzystano literaturę przedmiotu odnoszącą się do zagadnień wzajemnych relacji pomiędzy instytucją państwa i rolnictwa oraz interwencjonizmu rolnego. Stwierdzono, że mimo licznych wad, aktywna rola państwa w odniesieniu do sektora rolnego jest niezbędna. Prowadzone działania regulacyjne obejmują swoim działaniem nie tylko realny wpływ na produkcję rolniczą (jej wielkość i jakość), ale także wpływają na kwestie oddziaływania rolnictwa na środowisko i życie społeczne. Państwo przez zapewnienie podstawowego bezpieczeństwa umożliwia powstanie innowacji rolniczych, niezbędnych do rozwoju sektora, który ponadto musi być warunkowany nieznanymi w przeszłości występującymi problemami środowiskowymi. Poza tym, samo wytwarzanie i dystrybucja żywności stanowi jeden z podstawowych wymiarów bezpieczeństwa i jest gwarantem pełnego wzrostu gospodarczego.

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