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Market Goods:

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- ... often use market prices
 - or adjust market prices → shadow prices [C&B Ch. 5; FP Ch. 7.2; S&W Ch8; DoF]
 - or use the changes in consumer's and producers' surplus when prices change. [C&B Ch. 7; S&W Ch 9,10; FP Ch. 8.4; DoF]

Other values?

but: value of convenience value of time saved value of new road value of increased quietness ? value of privacy

But: what if there are no markets?

[C&B Ch. 12; FP Ch. 11; S&W Ch 11; DoF]

Then Use Opportunity-Cost Prices

Q: what is

forgone sacrificed given up

?

Then Use Opportunity-Cost Prices

- Q: what is forgone sacrificed ? given up
- A: with over-the-counter prices: Money
 - with going to hospital (or AGSM):
 - time
 - forgone income
 - fees
 - with using a road/bridge/tunnel
 - time
 - out-of-pocket money
 - eg \$2.20 Harbour Bridge v. other

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Willingness to pay

Q:

how can we express in \$ what is given up?

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Page 4

Willingness to pay

Q:

A:

how can we express in \$ what is given up? use individual's valuation (CS) — "willingness to pay" A G S M © 2006

Page 4

Willingness to pay

Q:

A:

How? –

- how can we express in \$ what is given up?
 use individual's valuation (CS)

 "willingness to pay"

 1. by asking (CV)
 2. by revealed choice.

 otherwise –

 by opport unity-cost method
- 3. by opportunity-cost methods



- 1. The value of time saved (3)
- 2.

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- 2. The Travel Cost method (3.1)
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- The Change-in-Cost method: benefits = costs avoided (4.5)
- 7. The Change-in-Output method: benefits = higher value of output (4.6)
- 8. The Replacement Cost method: revealed value & costs of replacement (4.7)

1.

1. (Other) markets — Hedonic pricing



- 1. *(Other) markets Hedonic pricing*
 - what is the effect of the pollution on prices in affected markets?

e.g.



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e.g. land. — hedonic pricing

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— what is the cost of abating the pollution?

Property rights

Coase theorem — bargaining over externality

Numerical example: what is the value to Joe of a faster commute home?

Joe's wage rate is \$10/hr, and

Joe would pay up to \$8/hr not to work.

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:. Joe values his reduction in commuting time at 5/hr = 2 - (-3),

since the value to Joe of a reduction in commuting time
= the benefit to Joe of increased leisure (\$2)
_ the forgone benefit to Joe of commuting (-\$3)

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e.g. (values from surveys and revealed preferences)

w = \$10/hr $MB_w \equiv (forgone)$ benefits of working = -\\$8/hr $MB_c \equiv (forgone)$ benefits of commuting = -\\$3/hr $(\therefore MB_L \equiv (forgone)$ benefits of leisure = 10-8 = \\$2/hr) $\therefore V_c = w + MB_w - MB_c = 10 - 8 + 3 = \$5/hr$

The Manly Jetcat: Estimate V_c , the value of shorter commuting time.

compare Jet Cat from Manly with ordinary ferry

the Jet Cat is 20 minutes faster at \$5.50 more expensive. (check)

The complete demand curve: Hotelling/Clawson. travel costs ~ individuals different costs

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Observe only 1 point on each group's demand curve: assume a single curve, or estimate each separately.

- National Parks
- method used to estimate value of visiting NPs



Can be applied to any activity where the quantity consumed varies in response to the (opportunity) cost of travel to undertake it, e.g. recreation.

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1. Define the benefit to be valued. e.g. car visits to a specific park over a year

Week 6

3.1 The Travel Cost Method [C&B pp. 276, S&Th pp. 88]]

Can be applied to any activity where the quantity consumed varies in response to the (opportunity) cost of travel to undertake it, e.g. recreation.

Steps:

- 1. Define the benefit to be valued. e.g. car visits to a specific park over a year
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On the cost of each visit, the origin of each group; travel costs include marginal costs of the visit: wages forgone, vehicle wear & tear, food, petrol, accommodation.

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3. *Define zones of origin.* Based on distance (travel cost) to the park. Need average

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- 4. Calculate the visit rate per 1000 population per zone p.a.
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- 6. Simulate the number of visits with a particular entrance fee.

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Travel	Cost Exampl	e

Travel Cost I	=хатріе т	C: Basic Data		
Zone of visitor origin	Average travel cost (\$/car)	Total car visits	Population of zone	Total car visits per 1000 pop.
1	2	150	5	30
2	4	64	4	16
3	6	16	2	8
4	8	8	2	4
5	10	3	1	3
6	12	0	3	0
Total		241		

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Travel	Cost	Exam	ble

TC: Basic Data				
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Total		241		

TC: simulation of \$2/car entry fee

				Simul	a t e d	
Zone of visitor origin ('000)	Average travel cost (\$/car) visits		Total visit cost (\$/car)			Total
1	2	2	4	5	16	80
2	4	2	6	4	8	32
3	6	2	8	2	4	8
4	8	2	10	2	3	6
5	10	2	12	1	0	0
6	12	2	14	3	0	0
Total						126

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Simulation of Travel Cost Method

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Simulation of Travel Cost Method

Zone 1 visitors now face a cost/car of \$4/visit.

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- Etc.

Note that a cost of \$12/car chokes off demand, previously from Zone 6, now from Zone 5 as well.

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 Demand schedule: 	Simulated entrance fee	Simulated number of visits/year
	\$0	241
	\$2	126
	\$4	62
	\$6	32
	\$8	15
	\$10	0

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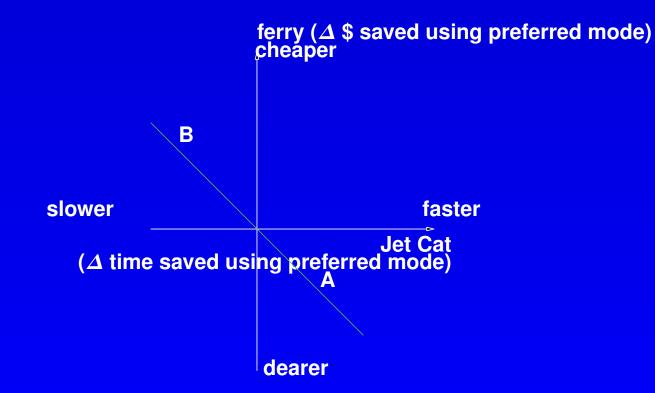
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	\$10	0

7. Calculate the value.

The consumer surplus = the area above the price (\$0/visit) below the demand curve plotted from the above table = \$700 total.

Sydney Harbour Travel [S&W pp. 150–156]

Q: "how do you travel?", "what's the next best alternative?" e.g. Manly Jet Cat (\$8.00 & 15 min.) v. ferry (\$2.50 & 35 min.)



Then the slope of green line \rightarrow \$??? per minute saved i.e. price, value of time saved. Line of indifference between slow and fast modes. Min. number of wrong responses to the SW. Assumptions: individual rationality, equal values.

Estimating the Relationship — NFX

 $C_i = a_i + bT_i + M_i$ where C_i total cost of mode *i* a_i intrinsic value *i* T_i time spent travelling M_i money cost (fare +)

The probability of using ferry instead of the Jet Cat p_F is (using the logit transform – NOT FOR EXAMS):

$$p_F = \frac{e^{\Delta C}}{1 + e^{\Delta C}} = f(\Delta C)$$
$$\Delta C = C_{JC} - C_F$$
$$\log \frac{p_F}{1 - p_F} = \Delta CR = a_{JC} - a_F + b\Delta T + \Delta M$$

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4. Valuing the Environment

Q: Is an improvement in environmental quality an economic improvement?

A: Only to the extent that we value these improvements.

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 - improved growth and quality of crops, etc.

A two-stage process:



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A two-stage process:

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1. Evaluate the project (which will harm the environment) without environmental effects (costs)

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Are these sufficient to reduce NPV to zero?

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Negotiating positions depend on the prior allocation of property rights.

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Negotiating positions depend on the prior allocation of property rights.

3. A decision balancing the net economic benefits against the costs to particular groups.

(distributional impacts)



Total Economic Value = Actual Use Value + Option Value + Existence Value

To determine these:

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Uses the changes in land values as a measure of the costs or benefits imputed to changes in environmental amenity due to the project. (e.g. land near the airport)

Can be useful when similar projects already undertaken, or ex post for damage estimation.

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3. Contingent Valuation Method (see 4.3)

Asks people what they are Willing To Pay for the benefit or what they are willing To Accept as compensation.

It's very general, but may be costly to perform, and has severe qualifications (see below).

Indirect (monetary) benefits, e.g.,

- reduced air pollution

- reduced air pollution
- fewer respiratory diseases

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- consumer surplus gain from improved health

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Example: Road through the Grampians

Benefits & costs	Alternative	
	Α	B
Benefits from recreation	40	32



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Example: Road through the Grampians

Benefits & costs	Alternative	
	Α	В
Benefits from recreation	40	32
Costs of construction	34	19

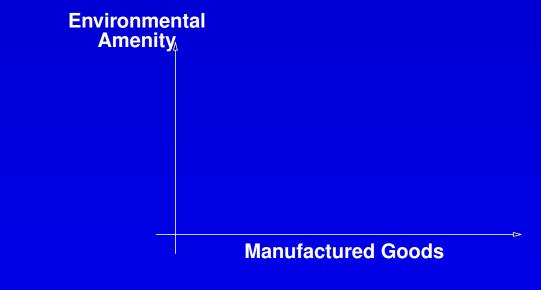


Example: Road through the Grampians

Benefits & costs	Alternative	
	Α	В
Benefits from recreation	40	32
Costs of construction	34	19
Loss of timber income	0	5

Example: Road through the Grampians

Benefits & costs	Alternative	
	Α	В
Benefits from recreation	40	32
Costs of construction	34	19
Loss of timber income	0	5
∴ Net benefit	6	8



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The lower slope at point B (new price ratio)

⇒ a higher value of environmental amenity in terms of manufactured goods.

Against this: expectations of a higher level per generation.

4.2 Hedonic Prices [C&B pp. 279, S&Th pp. 93] (Johansson Ch 7)

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s.t. $y = px + P_h(L, N, Z) = income$

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- regress housing prices against L, N, and Z
- compute incremental effect of Z on price P_h

But beware of double counting!



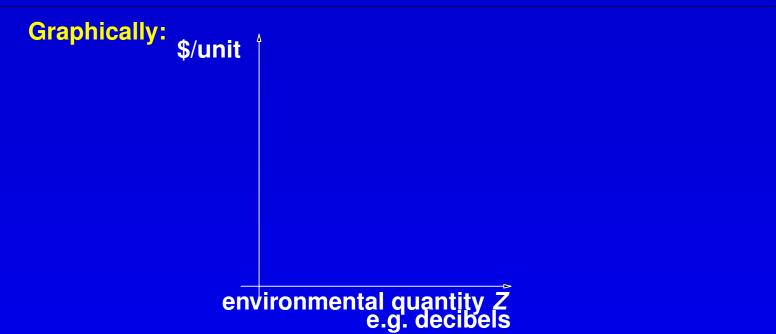
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Graphically: \$/unit

environmental quantity Z e.g. decibels

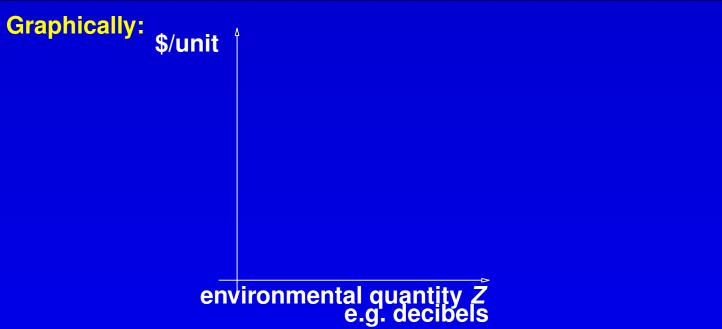


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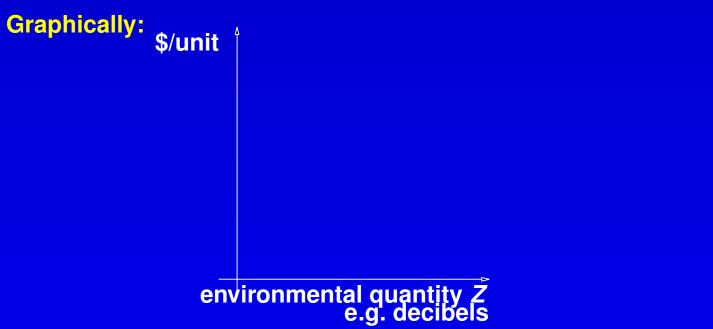
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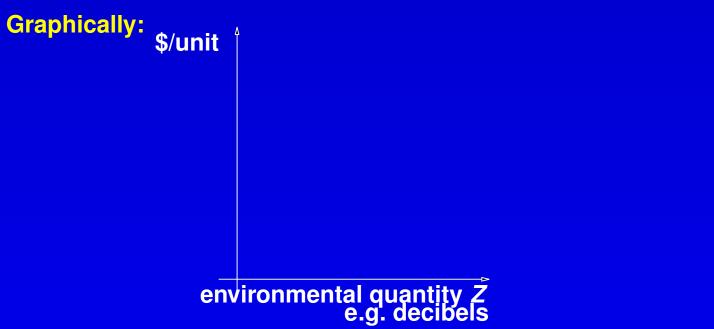
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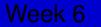


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- Comparison of survey and hedonic approaches

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The true measure should be in between.

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Contingent valuations (CV)

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 - path-dependent:

A to B to C 1.3% A to C 0.9% Week 6

Example: CV converts environmental ratings to \$

[Sinden & Thampapillai, Box 6.2, p.97]

CV: value of recreational visit per group ranged from \$7 to \$30, they said

Then:

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CV: value of recreational visit per group ranged from \$7 to \$30, they said Then: agency scored each on 10 environmental factors Example: CV converts environmental ratings to \$ [Sinden & Thampapillai, Box 6.2, p.97]

CV: value of recreational visit per group ranged from \$7 to \$30, they said Then: agency scored each on 10 environmental factors and found a correlation: Δ 1 unit in rating \rightarrow increase of \$8 per visit Week 6

4.4 Defensive Expenditure [C&B p. 272, S&Th p. 99]

Agents sometimes willing to sacrifice to defend their existing position.

When the action exactly maintains their utility, the expenditure measures the avoided loss in CS.

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Examples:

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- moving house to avoid noise, dust, or smoke
- filtering river water for household use

A project may lower the costs of production.

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Example: tollway benefits > cost of toll for those who pay it



4.6 The Change-in-Output Method [S&Th pp. 102]

Soil conservation can reduce erosion or soil salinity, neither of which are directly traded on a market (yet).



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The value of a project which supplies more soil conservation can be derived from changes in the value of an associated output, such as agricultural produce.

e.g. Lower erosion or salinity should also improve the market value of the land, as in Hedonic Pricing.

So: the benefit is propoertional to the Δ output value



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e.g. lack of replacement of a burnt-out bridge implies that the value of the bridge is less than its replacement cost.

A range:

Minimum	<	Value	<	Maximum
replacement		of		replacement
cost		benefit		cost

[Sinden & Thampapillai, Box 6.3, p.105]

Anglers visit the Ovens River: they spend ~ \$43 and catch 1–5 trout per visit

Next best alternative would cost ~ \$151/visit, they said.

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On average 15 visits per year to the Ovens, and 9 visits per year to the next best.

Plot the implied demand curve.

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Property Rights

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- special interest groups
- emission permits, e.g. CFCs in Australia

Example: Proposed Gold Mine: NSW South Coast.

Environmental Impact Statement:

detail of the mine proposal Financial Appraisal economic appraisal abatement undertaken social effects—*local* economic effects "public" goods water supply/pollution * landscape wildlife noise dust prostitution/...

employment infrastructure

closing down ? moving away rehabilitation

Summary tables:

Methods of estimating values.		
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Defensive expenditure	Net benefit, total benefit	Change in expenditure to maintain existing level of welfare

Methods of estimating partial values

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Methods of estimating partial values

Method	What can be valued?	What data are required?
Change in cost	Minimum value of benefit	Money costs, before and after a change
Change in output	Total benefit	Money revenue, before and after change
Replacement cost	Range for a benefit	Actual and likely costs of replacement
(Source:	Sinden & Thampap	oillai, pp. 88–89)

e.g. airport noise

5. Criticisms of Contingent Valuation

Introduction

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- use values, and
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Use values:

information revealed in market transactions — out-of-pocket expenses losses to those who make active use of the affected areas: eg.

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Passive-use (or *Existence* or non-use) values: individuals who make no active use of a particular asset but who still derive satisfaction from its mere existence, even though they never intend to make active use of it

How to evaluate passive-use values? No direct market transactions to observe. No indirect methods → clues to lost values? Answer: Contingent Valuation.

Contingent Valuation

— the direct elicitation of these values from individuals through carefully designed and administered sample surveys.

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Typically: provide responents with information about hypothetical government programs that would reduce the likelihood of a future adverse environmental event.

Respondents given some specific information about the exact nature of the damages to be prevented.

Respondents confronted with questions that provide information about the economic sacrifice (their WTP) they would have to make to support the environmental program.

Why Not Willingness to Accept?

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- responents may not understand the issues
- respondents may not take the questions seriously, since they're not binding (talk is cheap¹)

Criticisms of the Contingent Valuation Method

(See Hausman & Diamond in Package)

First: The impossibility of external validation of CV results.

Experiments may provide an artificial opportunity to pay for environmental goods, including passive use.

Then compare CV WTP with "real" results.

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eg. Seip & Strand:

CV WTP for membership in a Norwegian environmental organisation was very much greater than the actual responses when the real opportunity was offered to a similar group: only 6 of 64.

eg. Duffield & Patterson:

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Compare expressed WTP with actual. CV WTP > actual by up to 50% (although casual design) Still possible to conclude that CV WTP reflects actual market demand, although significantly higher.

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- What requirements are imposed by rationality?
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- Weakest rationality: consistency:
 - If prices fall, individual purchaser better off (private goods and public goods)
 - WTP should be an increasing function of the scale of the program
 - Falling marginal WTP (as scale of project increases) shouldn't result in very abrupt falls.

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Average WTP for measures to prevent 2000 migratory birds (not endangered species) from dying in oil-filled ponds \approx AWTP for 20,000 or 200,000 birds from dying. Diminishing MWTP? Yes, but not to zero, especially when AWTP not negligible. Rational, consistent choice?

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Is rationality needed? Why not just accept values (WTP) as found? Well ...

- How to reason about values without rationality?
- Give a lack of external validation \rightarrow want internal consistency.

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But there are many types of possible environmental damage:

 \rightarrow much for each household to pay

 \rightarrow overestimates for large numbers of environmental problems, especially when exist substitutes too.

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i.e. What if respondents rely on a set of heuristics, such as

- "These environmental accidents are seldom as bad as we're led to believe."
- "Authorities almost always put too good a face on these things."
- then they're answering a different set of questions.

5.4 CV: "Warm Glow" Effects

Open-ended CV questions \rightarrow many "zeroes" (those who would pay nothing for the program) and a number of sizable reports.

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Do such responses to CV questions also reflect a *warm glow* from expressed support of environmental protection, rather than actual WTP?

If so, that would explain the lack of scale effects mentioned in 5.1 above.



5.5 CV: Absence of a Meaningful Budget Constraint

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5.6 CV: Extent of the Market

Undersampling and zero sampling of a subgroup of the relevant population only justified if the subgroup has a predictably low WTP for protecting the resource. \bullet

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The latter is *the Panel's preferred form*: realistic, no strategic reason not to answer truthfully, possible to validate with property tax referendums.

CV: Addressing the Embedding Problem

CV: Time Dimension of the Passive Use Losses

(From Pearce on the Gordon-below-Franklin — see Package.) Suppose: direct costs: \$1, benefits: \$D forever (a perpetuity)

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The N.P.V. of the dam is given by

$$NPV(D) = -1 + \frac{D}{r+k} - \frac{P}{r-g}$$

where D is the benefit perpetuity discounted at r p.a., with technological decay of k p.a.

and *P* is the forgone, lost benefits, with a real rate of growth of *g* p.a.

Let *r* = 5% p.a., and *g* = 4% p.a.



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So that if the initial year's preservation benefit > \$750,000 then NPV(D) < 0, so **STOP!**

Life: Nature of the Valuation [C&B pp. 284]

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from 1. benefits to evaluator of the life

e.g.

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Two senses:

- value to the individual of being alive
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Value of one's life to other people:

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- & from 2. *knowledge that person obtains utility while alive*
 - e.g. rescue strangers

S0

so subjective — not all lives equally valuable—(is, not ought)

vary by (a) probability of dying (b) life expectancy (c) quality of life

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Ethical issue — utilitarian perspective. Dread factor.

а.

a. preventing loss of life

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 - e.g. rescues accident prevention life-support
 - drugs
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 - —"triage"

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- a. preventing loss of life
 - e.g. rescues accident prevention life-support drugs chemicals —choice among lives: who will be saved? —"triage"
- b. possibility of causing loss of life

compare value of desired end v. probability of causing death

Life: Rationality

Moral issues; but not making a decision is a decision itself

а.

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Life: Rationality

Moral issues; but not making a decision is a decision itself

a. Preventing loss of life costs usually clear → threshold problem benefits?

voluntary donations \Rightarrow individual choices?

e.g. dialysis machines prolong life — clear

CAT scanners, MRI \rightarrow better diagnosis \rightarrow lives saved – whose?

longer-run decisions to prevent death

e.g. kidney dialysis machines, CAT scanners, NMR machines

- often need representatives to decide

e.g. value of additional lives saved by another doctor (marginal value of a doctor)

or group-insurance approach

– e.g. willingness to pay for *option* of having an ICU \rightarrow voluntary HMOs

 \rightarrow involuntary tax system

cultural guidelines ("women and children first")

b.

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b. causing possible deaths

e.g. fire department hazardous to firemen

probabilities are crucial when there are risks.

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