| | CASSAVA 1991 | | | | | | TRADE 1990 (1000 t) | | CASSAVA UTILIZATION (1000 t) 1990 ^a | | | | CASSAVA CONSIJEPTION | | | | | POPULATION 1992 | | | LAND USE 1990 | | | |
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- a Year of compilation 1993
- b FAO reports 92 caseava producing countries
 Of these 52 were selected to analysis
- c Major cassavs importers a e countries of the European Community Japan Rores and Taiwan
- d Domestic utilization only excluding the volume of cassava processed for export
- e The consumption of rice the world's most important grain stable in each country is included as a means of compansion
- f Agric area includes arable land land under permanent crops and land under permanent meadows and pastures

SOURCES FAO Agrestat Database 1992 World Bark World Tables 1992 CIAT Cassava Program

Cassava: The Latest Facts About an Ancient Crop

October 1993



A summary of information on 52 major cassava producing and consuming countries in Africar Asia Oceania Latin America and the Caribbean





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An Ancient Crop Becomes Modern

Cassava a starchy root crop has been cultivated in tropical America for over 5 000 years. Before 1600 during the European exploration of America. Portuguese traders took it to the Congo in Africa and later to eastern Africa and Asia. By the end of the 19th century, it was growing throughout the tropical world. It now feeds about 500 million people and is grown in 92 countries in the tropics and subtropics.

For a long time the crop was unknown outside the tropics and received very little research until the 1960s when the "Green Revolution" based on new varieties of wheat and rice stimulated the founding of several International Agricultural Research Centers that worked on tropical crops. Two of the Centers developed cassava research programs the International Center for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT) based in Colombia has a global mandate whereas the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) based in Nigeria has a regional mandate for Africa. These two Centers also encouraged the development of national cassava research programs particularly as the advantages of cassava as a food crop and industrial raw material became evident.

The Plant

Although each of the more than 5 000 known varieties of cassava has its own distinctive plant form genetic structure and adaptability to different environments the generalized cassava plant is a perennial woody shrub that grows from about 1 m to about 3 m (3 to 9 feet) tall. The woody stems are topped by hand shaped (i.e. palmate) dark green sometimes purplish leaves.

Flowering cassava varieties have small inconspicuous flowers that lack petals. Male and female flowers grow on the same plant and are cross pollinated by insects. Fruits are dehiscent and seed production is low and erratic. Seeds are oval about 10 mm long, and mottled brown and gray.

The cone shaped roots vary in number and size according to variety and environmental conditions. Normally, they have a dark or light brown papery bark which often peels off, leaving a pink or cream cortex. This too can be peeled off to expose the white starchy flesh. Through the center of the root runs a (usually) thin and fibrous pith.

Cassava is almost always grown from mature cuttings of the woody stems—this is unusual because the stems are not otherwise an economically important part of the plant. The 7 to 30 cm long cuttings are planted horizontally vertically or inclined with or without tillage.

Taxonomy

Scientifically cassava is known as Manihot esculenta Crantz and is a member of the Euphorbiaceae No wild direct ancestor of cassava has been proven to exist Cassava was probably domesticated at different locations A major center of diversity is found in the Amazon/Orinoco basin and another in Mesoamerica

Yields

Under favorable experimental conditions cassavi as a single crop can yield as much as 90 tons of fresh roots per hectare (25 to 30 tons of dry matter per hectare). But cassava is usually grown under marginal soil conditions and harsh climate and in association with crops such as maize cowpeas and other root or tuber crops.

Under these conditions average yields in tons of fresh roots per hectare are much lower worldwide—9 8 Africa—77, Latin America—124, and Asia—130 In tons of grain per hectare these yields are equivalent to 31 25 40 and 42 tons respectively Cereal crops grown under similar conditions would produce 1 to 2 tons of grain per hectare

One ton of fresh cassava yields 280 kg of flour 230 kg of starch or 330 kg of dried chips Researchers have also obtained 170 liters of gasoline alcohol from one ton

Production and Consumption

Most cassava is produced by poor small scale farmers as a crop for food, feed and cash. They use traditional farming methods and work marginal lands.

World production grew from 70 millions tons in 1960 to 154 million tons of fresh roots in 1991. The five major cassava producing countries are Brazil (25 million tons). Nigeria (20). Thailand (20). Zaire (18). and Indonesia (16).

The total area harvested is about 16 million hectares with 57% in Africa 25% in Asia, and 18% in Latin America

Annual consumption is greatest in Africa averaging 96 kg per capita with the greatest consumption in Zaire at 391 kg per capita (or 1 123 calories per day). Average world consumption is 18 kg per capita. About 85% of the world's cassava crop is used domestically food—58% animal feed—28%, industrial uses—3% and wastage—11%. The remaining 15% (i.e. about 30 million tons) is exported to Europe and Japan as either chips or pellets and starch. Thailand accounts for 75% of exports followed by Indonesia and China.

Nutritional Value and Food Products

The cassava root contains between 30% and 40% of dry matter which is principally carbohydrate (124 kcal per 100 grams—the potato contains 76 kcal per 100 grams). It is rich in vitamin C and calcium has acceptable levels of B vitamins and provides other minerals. But it is low in protein (1% of fresh weight). In contrast, the leaves contain high levels of protein 8% to 10% of fresh weight. Various parts of the cassava plant also have medicinal value.

As human food the cassava root is prepared in many ways for example boiled baked fried as meal flour and even as beer. Starch extracted from the root is also used to make a wide range of sweet and savory foods such as crackers tapioca pearls noodles or cheese breads. Fresh leaves are eaten as a vegetable especially in West and Central Africa. Indonesia and parts of Brazil.

Other Uses

As animal feed fresh roots are a good source of carbohydrates and the leaves can be used as a protein supplement for beef and dairy cattle. Dried cassava is used to make concentrates for poultry swine, and cattle. The countries of the European Community import more than 5 million tons of cassava pellets annually to incorporate into animal feed rations.

In industry cassava starch is used directly in food processing paper making textiles adhesives or as lubricant in oil wells. It is also used in the manufacture of many chemical products such as monosodium glutamate citric acid mannitol sorbitol glucose high fructose syrup and alcohol.

Most cassava is processed on a small scale in rural areas where it generates considerable employment. Because of the crop's flexibility in processing some African and Latin American governments are using cassava to improve the economic status of socially "depressed" areas. Even in areas where cassava processing is carried out on an industrial scale as in Thailand Indonesia China the Philippines. India and southern Brazil most cassava is supplied from small scale farms rather than from plantations.

Advantages as a Sustainable Crop

Cassava is well known for its ability to tolerate drought and yet maintain yields. Several factors are involved (1) leaf stomata are sensitive to humidity closing whenever the air becomes dry (2) roots can extract water from deep soils.

even as much as 2.5 m (7 to 8 feet) and (3) the plant possesses a carbon fixation system that allows cassava to continue effective photosynthesis under prolonged water stress

The crop also survives in soils with low contents of phosphorus—an essential plant nutrient—by forming associations with certain soil fungi (mycorrhizae). It can also grow and produce well in poor acid soils with high aluminum content.

The plant accepts rainfall regimes that range from less than 600 mm (24 inches) to more than 3 000 mm (120 inches) per year but does not survive flooding. It grows at altitudes from sea level to 2 300 m (7 667 feet). Although it can tolerate light frosts at produces best in a warm climate with temperatures ranging from 25 to 35 °C (77 to 95 °F).

The plant can be harvested at any time from 7 months to 3 years after planting. Being able to keep the roots in the ground is a particular advantage in countries opening up agricultural frontiers or suffering natural disasters like drought and locust attacks or social conflicts such as war. Such flexibility is highly useful considering that the roots once harvested perish within 3 or 4 days, and must be consumed at once or be processed into products, such as flour or starch, that can be stored for longer periods.

Diseases and Pests

Although cassava is a hardy plant yield lesses occur through diseases and pests. Significant foliar and stem diseases are the cassava bacterial blight, which is widespread and in Africa the African cassava mosaic virus. Root rots also cause considerable yield losses. Because they damage the most economically valuable part of the plant they are potentially the most harmful diseases.

Major pests are those that suck or ear leaves the green spider mite mealybug whitefly lackbug and hornworm. Root damaging pests are the hurrowing bug and subterranean mealybug.

Cyanide Production

The cassava plant contains a substance hnamarin which releases the poisonous cyanide or hydrocyanic acid when plant tissues are damaged "Sweet" varieties produce as little as 20 mg of acid per kilogram of frest roots whereas "bitter" varieties may produce more than 1 000 mg. No acyanogenic varieties are known

Traditional methods of food preparation are effective in reducing cyanogenic content to innocuous levels. But if roots of bitter varieties are underprocessed and the diet lacks protein and iodine as occurs during famines and wars cyanide poisoning can cause serious health problems.

Despite the disadvantages of linamarin some farmers actively select for bitter or cyanogenic varieties. Why they do this when processing bitter varieties is such hard work is not yet known but possible reasons are that the cyanide helps protect the plant from potential pests, and certain food products if made from bitter varieties, have better texture than those made from sweet varieties.

Research

Cassava researchers aim to develop the full potential of the crop so that those farmers and processors who depend on cassava for their hyelihood can improve their incomes and general well being

Because cassava is usually grown on poor soils with low rainfall and has a potential for multiple end uses scientists need to integrate different fields of research that is breeding and crop management with postharvest processing and market research

Through breeding scientists develop varieties that are well adapted to major diseases pests and soil and climatic constraints. These varieties also need to have qualities suitable for different end uses.

Research in crop management offers a particular challenge because cassava is mostly grown in fragile and socioeconomically marginal environments where solutions to soil and water degradation are needed. The integrated management of pests and diseases including biological control, is particularly appropriate to a long cycle crop like cassava.

If technology developments are to benefit cassava farmers then links between farmers and markets must be strengthened—which research on processing can help do by developing new products

Biotechnology—a new field in cassava research—will accelerate investigations in most of the areas mentioned

Interinstitutional relations are important for advancing cassava research. Regional and global cassava networks link scientists from national institutions of developing countries with those from developed country universities and research laboratories international organizations and donor agencies. These networks significantly increase the flow of information among collaborators and help prioritize research for more effective and rapid results in the common endeavor of alleviating hunger and poverty.