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~~IMPACT~~ OF RICE RESEARCH IN LATIN AMERICA
AND THE CARIBBEAN DURING THE PAST THREE DECADES



By *LS*

Luis R. Sanint*
Stanley Wood

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* Leader of the CIAT, Rice Program, A.A 6713, Cali, Colombia.
Associate Member of Senior Staff, IFPRI-CIAT.

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Abstract

The past three decades have resulted in strong national rice improvement programs high yielding rice varieties on farmers' fields and networks of germplasm improvement and related information linked via CIAT to the premier upstream research resource IRRI

The main beneficiaries of the technological innovations have been the consumers with an annualized flow of benefits (discounted at 3% per year) of US\$518 million. Producers have received great benefits as a group with US\$340 million per year. But it has been the irrigated system the one that has received the benefits of research (US\$437 million per year) while the other ecosystems have been adversely affected by the rapid gains in the irrigated sector. All these ecosystems had net annual losses of US\$9 million in rainfed US\$70 million in mechanized upland and US\$5 million in manual upland. With productivity gains in irrigated rice prices have decreased making upland rice less competitive and reducing the economic incentive to open new rice lands in those upland ecosystems. Productivity gains in irrigated rice have played a role of release valve for the more fragile ecosystems of the forest margins and the savannas.

The future of rice research holds exciting challenges and opportunities. Rice research aims to make significant contributions to environmental goals and reduction of agrichemical use as well as in feeding people through devoting its efforts to the development of improved rice gene pools and integrated crop management. Rice research plays an important role in the development of agropastoral protocols for the savannas adjoining the margins of the rain forest in tropical America. Breeding to develop germplasm adapted to the acid soils savannas and the understanding of rice/pasture associations will lead to a more sustainable rice production in this ecosystem and a more rational use of pesticides.

As a result of recent strategic changes in international donors national organizations of LAC together with CIAT and IRRI have created the Latin American Irrigated Rice Fund (FLAR). This could ensure continuity in irrigated rice research activities at the regional level. This process clearly shows that Latin American rice producers are aware of the value and innovation of new technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Significant advances in rice production have been made over the past three decades in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). Some 275 new rice varieties have been released the majority of them (90%) targeted to flooded environments. Of the new varieties 39% came from crosses made at CIAT 12% at IRRI and several of the rest has parentage from IARC's progenitors (Table 1). Modern semidwarf rice varieties now account for 93 percent of all flooded rice production itself representing more than 80 percent of total rice production in the Region (Table 2). Average yields in flooded areas have risen from 3.3 tons per hectare in the mid-1960s

to 4.6 t/ha in 1995 and total rice production doubled between 1967 and 1995 to reach about 20 million tons of paddy rice (Table 3) making the Region largely self sufficient in rice. With rice prices falling by about 50 percent in real terms over the period (Table 4) consumers have benefitted greatly. Rice is well established as a 'wage good' and the crop has become the most important source of calories and proteins for that 20 percent of the Region's population with lowest incomes.

Central to these accomplishments have been

- a linkage by the Region through CIAT to the world's premier source of rice germplasm (IRRI)
- the development of a strong regionally relevant rice improvement program through a productive partnership of CIAT, Fedearroz and ICA in Colombia and
- close cooperation between CIAT's regional rice program and national programs and producers in major rice producing countries of LAC

While the upstream linkage to IRRI was a valuable component of this three-part improvement model, high quality downstream activities at the country level frequently involving cooperation between public programs of research and extension with private producer organizations, as in the case of Colombia, Brazil and Venezuela were key to locally relevant adaptive efforts which accelerated and expanded the spread of improved germplasm, complementary cultural practices and related institutional and policy developments. Even though the investment commitments made by the private and public sectors all along the way over the past three decades were of major proportions, handsome (even unprecedented) returns have been gained.

Measuring past benefits and identifying the shares apportioned by main interested parties is a valuable exercise not only to gain an idea of the profitability of past research investments but also to guide future efforts. The model used here measures benefits to producers and to consumers. A further breakdown permits to calculate benefits by major production ecosystems: irrigated, rainfed lowlands, mechanized upland and traditional (or manual) upland. The model also calculates foregone benefits to producers resulting from imports.

RICE IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

Throughout this century, rice gradually became a staple food in the diets of consumers of tropical Latin America. Per capita consumption of white rice went from 10 kilos in the 1920s to about 30 kilos in the 1990s. Rice is the most important grain crop for human consumption across most of the tropics of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). It supplies more calories to these people's diet than wheat, maize, cassava or potatoes. In the rapid process of urbanization of LAC, where 70% of the population now lives in the cities, rice has displaced from the diets traditional, bulky and perishable staples like plantains, cassava, yams, etc.

About half of LAC's population lives below the FAO poverty line and income is lowest in the tropical parts of LAC. Food purchases account for over 50% of total expenditures for the poor and rice accounts for about 15% of their total food purchases. For the poorest 20% of the population, it even supplies more protein to the diet than any other food source, including beef, milk, and beans.

Evolution of Rice Production in Latin America

Latin America produces some 20 million MT of paddy rice which represents about 3.6% of the world rice output in an area of 6.7 million has (4.5% of the world rice area). By 1995, the dominant rice environments in this continent are wetland rice (54.5% of the area) and upland rice (45.5% of the area). Wetland rice, with 3.7 million has, is dominated by irrigated cropping which occupies two thirds of that area; the rest is almost entirely cultivated under rainfed lowland rice. Upland rice (with 3.0 million has) is predominantly mechanized (2.1 million has) while manual rice farming covers almost 1.0 million has (Table 3). For most of this century, rice has been a pioneer crop in the vast savannas and in the forest margins of Latin America. Mechanized upland rice predominates in the colonization of the savannas while manual traditional rice cropping has been a key component in the forest margins.

Stages in rice production, 1966-1995

The advent of the new rice technologies has had a sharp impact on the relative shares of the predominant rice production systems. Different stages can be distinguished:

Early adoption 1966-1981 By 1966, the tall traditional varieties covered the entire rice area (5.8 million has). The 1970s witnessed a very rapid adoption of the new semidwarf varieties for irrigated environments, mainly in the tropical countries. By 1981, the region produced 15.7 million MT, an increase of 50% from 1966. About half of this rice came from MSVs and more than 75% of the irrigated rice area was under these new varieties. With the advent of the new semidwarf rice varieties in the late 1960s, the irrigated rice systems became more competitive; higher yields resulted in lower unit costs and lower rice prices. As a consequence, upland rice, confronting a lower relative price but without yield advances, was also displaced by maize, soybeans, cassava, cotton, and other crops as a pioneer crop in the areas of deforestation. The area under manual traditional upland rice fell from about 1.1 million has in 1966 to 0.85 million in 1981. In the savannas, the story was a little different. Brazil produces 90% of upland rice in the region. This country made a firm commitment in the 1950s to develop the vast acid savannas (Cerrados); the decision even embodied the removal of the nation's capital from the Coast (Rio de Janeiro) to the Cerrado (Brasilia) in the 1960s. Today, the acid savannas of the Cerrados produce over 40% of the country's total agricultural supply. This aggressive expansion of the Brazilian frontier had a peak during the 1970s and was heavily based on government support. Large mechanized rice exploitations were favored by several schemes based on price supports, crop insurance, forward contracting by the public sector, etc. As a consequence of the policies, rice area in Brazil peaked in 1976 at 6.7 million has, accompanied by a surge in upland

area that reached 6.1 million has. Over this period, mechanized upland area went from 2.8 million has in 1966 to 4.8 million has in 1981 (Table 3).

The lost decade 1981-1989 Throughout the 1980s, economic stagnation was the norm in the Region. Promotional rice policies were phased out in the late 1970s when the heavy foreign debt and the fiscal burden, coupled with rampant inflation rates, meant that promoting extensive agriculture became unviable. Mechanized upland rice subsidies were virtually eliminated in Brazil by the mid-1980s.

Total rice area in LAC decreased from 8.3 million has in 1981 to 7.3 million has in 1989, but fortunately, yields increased from 1.9 to 2.5 MT/ha as the adoption of new varieties continued, mainly in Brazil where MSVs became widely adopted in the early 1980s. By 1989, regional paddy rice production reached 18.4 million MT. MSVs accounted for two-thirds of rice production and 44% of the rice area. In irrigated rice, 85% of the area was already under MSVs.

The 1990s This has been a period of economic growth, open markets, and reduced inflation rates in LAC. By 1995, paddy rice production reached 20.6 million MT, or 3.6% of the world rice output. About 98% of the irrigated rice area was under MSVs. Significant growth in production has occurred in temperate South America (South Brazil, Argentina, and Uruguay) as the MSVs have been quickly adopted. Irrigated yields for LAC have reached 5.0 MT/ha, while total rice yields are at 3.1 MT/ha due to the low upland yields of 1.3 MT/ha. Since the 1980s, upland rice area in Brazil has continued to decline to its current level of around 3.0 million has by 1995 (Table 3).

THE RICE RESEARCH AGENDA FROM A CIAT PERSPECTIVE

Rice research in Latin America has emphasized growth, equity, and enhancement of the resource base. Rice is particularly important from these standpoints. Technological progress, improved efficiency, marked production increases, and important linkages with the rest of the economy have put rice at the top of priorities for agricultural growth policies in most countries of LAC. Rice is preferred by the poor because it is cheap, nutritious, appealing, easy to prepare, and easy to store and transport. Rice has also been a pioneer crop in Latin America, playing a protagonistic role in the expansion of the agricultural frontier of the lowlands, the savannas, and the forest margins.

Besides outstanding technical innovation, two major external reasons why rice research has had greater impact than any other area of work at CIAT are: i) simplicity of seed-borne technology delivery for a crop that is as simple and inexpensive to multiply as rice, and ii) the well-organized commercial rice sector in LAC, which quickly adopts new technology. These external factors will continue to give rice research a comparative advantage in achieving future impact.

Research activities at CIAT's Rice program are executed in the framework of three Projects that enable a broad commodity approach

Project 1 Improved Rice Gene Pools

Project 2 Integrated Rice Pest/Crop Management

Project 3 Strengthening public and private sector linkages

The future of rice research holds exciting challenges and opportunities. Rice research can continue to make significant contributions to environmental goals such as the protection of rain forests and reduction of agrochemical use, as well as in feeding people. The progressive involvement of the private sector in funding national and regional rice research shows that this sector continues to be at the forefront of technology development and institutional maturity in LAC countries.

Project 1 Improved Rice Gene Pools

New varieties represent a pooling of valuable new traits into an adapted genetic background that farmers can use to increase and stabilize yields. By improving production efficiency, these varieties generate cost savings to farmers, much of which is passed on to consumers in the form of lower prices.

Wetland Rice More efficient rice varieties with higher, more stable yields are the essence of what happened in the lowland rice "Green Revolution". New semidwarf varieties enabled farmers to achieve a 45% yield increase across LAC's most favored irrigated rice area from 3.5 mt/ha in 1966 to 5.0 MT/ha in 1995, stimulating an increase in production efficiency and an expansion of irrigated rice production from 4.3 million MT to 12.5 million MT over that period (Table 3).

The ongoing nature of this impact is reflected in the rather steady rate of release of new lowland varieties since the start of the Green Revolution. New varietal releases are an important indicator of progress because they usually represent improvement for at least one key trait while maintaining other gains already achieved. Over the past 25 years there have been an average of 10 new lowland varieties released per year across LAC (Table 1). A number of new traits are being generated in Latin America, as well as globally, which promise to continue the remarkable record of past impact.

It has been estimated, using pedigree information (Cuevas Perez et al. 1992) that the relative diversity of the genetic core of LAC irrigated rice may have reached its limits in terms of yield potential. Further yield enhancement may require the design of alternative genetic combinations. Monitoring advances in genetic base diversification may benefit from methodologies more precise than pedigree analysis. CIAT's major research in wetland rice germplasm development is typically focussing in pre-breeding activities with the aid of molecular markers, testing and adaptation of the new plant types, commercial crosses with wild rices.

population improvement as well as some conventional pedigree breeding work done in collaboration with national rice programs. Promising lines are made available to other NARS through the INGER network and serve as parents for further regional breeding use. The objective is to develop high yielding germplasm adapted to irrigated and rainfed lowland conditions, tolerant to major diseases and insect pests, with good grain quality and early to intermediate growth duration. To ensure good disease pressure, hot spot sites are used.

Market acceptable grain quality is important for LAC rice varieties. Most Latin American rice consumers prefer long, slender, translucent grains that cook dry and loose and remain soft after cooling. High percentage of head rice is required by millers. The objective of this activity is to better understand the genetic control of factors affecting grain quality. On the other hand, demand for alternative uses of rice is increasing, particularly in the U.S. Research on new uses of rice appears as an important window of opportunity for the next century in Latin America.

Anther culture to bridge wide crosses is now a routine and useful tool in breeding in this part of the world. Preliminary data as well as Chinese work suggest that anther culture can be used to overcome sterility in wide crosses. It also appears to produce more intermediate types of recombinants as opposed to the parental types that seem to emerge from wide-cross populations when generations are advanced through selfing. Since 1985 CIAT has incorporated anther culture (AC) as a tool to reduce generation time in rice. Research on AC has increased the yield of doubled haploids, making the tool more cost-efficient for breeders. When compared with the traditional pedigree method, AC appears to be an economically practical new tool (Sanint et al. 1995). Several national programs in LAC have started to apply the AC protocol.

Upland Rice Much higher yielding savanna upland rice germplasm developed in the 1980s is now reaching the farm and promises an important breakthrough for the savannas. The new upland varieties are shorter, have a more efficient use of fertilizers, do not lodge so easily and have better grain quality than traditional upland varieties (Sarkarung and Zeigler, 1990).

About 45% of Latin America's 6.7 million hectares of rice are in the freely-drained (aerobic soil) uplands, producing almost 20% of LAC's rice crop (Table 3). About two-thirds of the total upland area is in the savannas of Brazil where large, mechanized farmers predominate. Upland rice is more tolerant of the acid soils of these areas than any other major food crop, so it plays a strategic role in the development of sustainable systems there. Traditional upland rice farming accounts for about 5% of the regional production of rice (or about 1.0 million MT). Yet, over 80% of rice farmers in LAC belong to this system. These farmers are rather poor and constitute important niches where rice improvements can have significant impact on their livelihood. However, adoption of modern varieties by those groups is relatively low (less than 30% of their area).

The new upland rices will help drive the adoption of improved pastures, a leverage effect far beyond the value of the rice crop itself. These agropastoral systems could provide the region with a viable alternative to clearing the Amazon forests to satisfy basic food needs. Rice is also

a major staple of forest margin smallholders many of whom live in extreme poverty The new upland rice germplasm promises to enhance their production and nutrition as well

Since breeding for this agro ecosystem is fairly new in most LAC countries other than Brazil much of the effort in this research area goes to developing and strengthening linkages with national as well as international groups including planning of joint projects exchange of germplasm and methodologies training and collaborative research CNPAF is a member of the Upland Rice Research Consortium coordinated by IRRI

Acid savanna soils are deficient in Nitrogen (N) Phosphorus (P) Potassium (K) Calcium (Ca) Magnesium (Mg) Silicon (Si) and toxic for Aluminum (Al) and Manganese (Mn) These constraints are interrelated and compose acid soil syndrome

Phosphorous is one of the major constraints of acid oxic soils of the savanna The development of upland rice varieties having higher efficiency in uptake and use of phosphorous can contribute to more sustainable agriculture Study of the mechanisms of genetic differences in phosphorus uptake continues in collaboration with Japan

In South America there is an active project on agropastoral systems Colombia hosted the first workshop in 1992 Brazil held it in 1993 Venezuela in 1994 and Bolivia in 1995 Very positive results of rice-pasture systems are interchanged as well as cropping systems including other crops like soybean and corn

Project 2 Integrated Rice Pest/crop Management

Chemical control of rice pests (weeds fungi insects) is costly as well as hazardous both to the applicator and the environment We estimate that US\$483 million are spent each year on chemical pest control in LAC rice More than half of this expenditure could probably be replaced by integrated pest management (IPM)

Pests rapidly evolve to overcome resistances and breeders have to constantly bring in new resistance sources just to maintain the same level of varietal performance as before This is called 'maintenance breeding' While it sounds mundane economics tells us it is in fact one of the highest payoff activities done because it prevents substantial yield losses and reversals that would otherwise have occurred

Integrated Crop Management (ICM) is a term expressing a concept similar to IPM In fact the two go together as crop management practices affect pests and vice versa ICM is a strategy which directly focuses on the yield gap to understand the reasons for the difference between researcher's yields and those of farmers ICM really deals with economic efficiency the result of technical efficiency (an agronomic concept based on optimal input-output ratios) and price efficiency (finding the most profitable combinations of inputs for the profit maximizing output) Increased efficiency makes rice farmers more competitive and eventually translates into lower prices for consumers

Rice traits to enhance weed control The greatest expenditure (\$218 million or 45% of the total) is on herbicides. IPM strategies involving thresholds, rotation, better water control and seeding practices, and use of varieties with weed interference properties and adapted to water seeding could probably reduce herbicide use by at least half. Weeds are the number one pest of rice throughout LAC. In Colombia and Venezuela, unpublished panel data for 1991 to 1996 from producers show that the weed control represents an increasing share of crop production costs and has escalated from around 12% to 15%. Chronic annual production losses of 11% are estimated, as compared to 7% for diseases and 4% for insects.

Weed scientists report that very few new herbicides are coming into the market because of the high costs of registration due to environmental concerns.

While tillage and herbicides will continue to play a major role in the future, there is clearly a need for complementary approaches which are cost-effective and environmentally-friendly. IRRI, WARDA and CIAT have recently begun research programs on traits of rice to enhance weed control in their agro-ecosystems.

Some rices are much more vigorous competitors against weeds than others. Allelopathy is another promising avenue for investigation. Crops can inhibit weeds through chemical means, i.e. root exudates. CICA 4 and other lines identified as allelopathic in the USA have been screened for their activity against similar weeds in Colombia.

The promising new upland rice-pasture system for the tropical savannas will also benefit from this research. Farmers want rices that will give maximum yields without endangering pasture establishment. Research to understand what traits are needed, and how to select for them, has been useful to breeders in the region.

Besides interfering directly with weeds, other traits in rice might contribute indirectly to better weed control. For example, the water seeding system has been widely adopted in developed countries mainly to control weeds such as red rice that can not establish under flooding. Breeding can probably develop rice types that emerge through a water layer and establish more vigorously under tropical conditions.

We estimate that rice traits for enhancing weed control could probably reduce weed control costs by 30%. This would more than justify the research investment.

Durable Blast Resistance Blast is one of the most intractable fungal pest problems in cereal cultivation. Crop losses cost an estimated US\$200 million annually. When resistance is not effective, farmers use fungicide sprays. This costs the region an estimated \$170 million annually, or 35% of total pesticide expenditures. Besides being costly, most are hazardous both to the applicator and the environment. Durably-resistant varieties, lower seeding rates, more efficient use of lower amounts of applied nitrogen fertilizer, the use of silicon fertilizers, and

fewer but better timed fungicide applications cut the need for the use of these chemicals by more than half

High levels of genetic resistance exist but they are ephemeral. The fungus rapidly overcomes resistance. Durable resistance is a concept receiving much theoretical attention but progress has been difficult and slow. One of the world's most blast resistant varieties, Oryzica Llanos 5, is a recent product of CIAT's gene pyramiding approach. There are over 10 advanced lines in this region that have a similar level of resistance to Oryzica Llanos 5.

A new technique called MGR DNA fingerprinting is revealing the genetic structure of blast in a way not previously possible. This technique can act as an early warning system to detect the appearance of new genetic lineages of blast. It might also help breeders identify resistance genes that are more durable than in the past if the lineage exclusion hypothesis is proven correct (Zeigler et al. 1994).

Diversified Tagosodes/Hoja Blanca Resistance The most hazardous pesticides are the insecticides which account for an estimated \$95 million or 20% of the region's total pesticide bill. Control of the *Tagosodes* leafhopper by pesticide application is often self-defeating because it eliminates the predators that could assist in keeping this pest in check. Practical methods for monitoring the predator population as well as that of pests could give farmers the confidence to avoid unnecessary sprays.

Rice hoja blanca virus (RHBV) causes severe recurrent epidemics and is exclusive of the the Andean, Central American and Caribbean countries of tropical LAC. It is transmitted by the planthopper insect *Tagosodes oryzicola* which can also cause serious feeding damage even when not viruliferous. Colombian rice farmers were spraying up to 5-6 times to control the RHBV vector and other insect pests in the 1980s. The uncertainty of epidemics induces farmers to spray even when the problem is not apparent as 'insurance'. Currently we estimate that about half of the lowland rice farmers outside of Brazil apply an insecticide spray for *Tagosodes* each cropping season. This costs the region about US\$15 million annually.

The RHBV-*Tagosodes* problem provided the original impetus for creation of the Rockefeller funded rice improvement project at ICA (Colombia) the predecessor of CIAT's Rice Program. It also represents one of its most notable successes. *Tagosodes* resistance was achieved by 1970 (CICA 4 variety) and was increased in CICA 8 (1978) based on the 'Tetep' varietal source. RHBV resistance based on the Colombia 1 source was added by 1989 (Oryzica Llanos 4).

There is risk however in depending on only a single resistance source for each pest for the whole region. New sources have been identified but their genetic control and crossability to adapted LAC materials need to be understood and applied. Transformation with viral genes is also being attempted to create an entirely novel resistance source.

For Tagosodes in breeding populations screening activity tests segregating populations and advanced rice breeding lines for resistance to non-viruliferous Tagosodes (resistance to feeding damage per se) Potential parents for crossing as well as characterized lines are sent to NARS For resistance to Rice Hoja Blanca Virus (RHBV) in breeding populations the screening activity tests segregating populations and advanced rice breeding lines for RHBV behavior

Project 3 Strengthening Private and Public Sector Linkages

The past three decades have resulted in strong national rice improvement programs high yielding rice varieties on farmers fields and networks of germplasm improvement and related information linked via CIAT to the premier upstream research resource IRRI

FLAR Building on this model and stock of capital for sustained progress while assuring its continued dedication to the tasks ahead is the challenge for the rice sector of LAC is the main purpose of the Irrigated Rice Fund for Latin America and the Caribbean (FLAR in Spanish) The Fund created in 1995 brings resources from private and public national organizations Twenty member 20 countries in LAC plus CIAT and IRRI assumed the responsibility and the control of FLAR's own rice research agenda FLAR appears to be a viable alternative by reason of several emerging constraints and opportunities

First the maturity and high level of development of national capacities for rice improvement in LAC impose a more important role and responsibility than in the past on national organizations in determining the direction and conduct of future rice improvement efforts

Second with large returns currently being enjoyed from rice improvement efforts those organizations that paid for programs of the past are logically expecting that mechanisms can be devised in the future to capture and turn some of those returns to the long-run maintenance of needed programs

Third given the process of globalization and the opening of the economies it is well known that the patterns of demand for new technologies of all kinds will change the quantities demanded of them will increase and the need to participate in economic blocks will also become more pressing Rice producers and improvement programs will be especially challenged by these changes

Fourth the rapid technological advances in the rest of the world imply that countries of LAC must find ways to keep in touch with other regions by maintaining strong linkages to foreign sources of technology The mechanism of the past has proved to be efficient in avoiding duplication of efforts using the specialization of tasks achieving economies of scale and providing a fully participatory research apparatus In this sense the new effort is being based in the principle of cooperation and efficiency in research while providing stability to the regional research system

The dissemination of technologies and information has been vital to the achievement of impact in rice. The generation of more new technologies depends on knowing what has already been achieved. The rice sector of LAC is dynamic and trends must be observed on a continuous basis to guide research and development planning. The creation of FLAR brings stakeholders and technology generators closer together ensuring higher levels of efficiency in information and technology exchange mechanisms which are a crucial part of the international rice research and development process.

INGER-LAC CIAT and IRRI through the INGER LAC mechanism have convened a regional Rice Research Conference every two or three years since 1976. INGER-LAC serves as a major source of elite germplasm for most rice programs in tropical LAC. Germplasm nominations for network exchange are obtained from Latin American breeding programs. CIAT's rice program and from the rest of the world through the INGER Global network operating from IRRI (Table 1). Materials are pre-tested in the region before going out in the network to identify those most useful and characterize them for important traits. Nurseries are custom-assembled based on the combination of traits requested by network members. They are sent as unreplicated observation trials. These features increase the likelihood that materials sent will meet needs of the requestor and minimize seed dispatch and trial expenses. Results are sent back to the coordination headquarters at CIAT, collated, analyzed and reported back to network members. INGER LAC also convenes breeder training workshops every few years and maintains a germplasm information database. Due to a funding crisis, INGER LAC activities have been at a reduced basic level since 1993. From 1995, FLAR has been funding the activities of the network, a top priority for Fund members.

There are five databases related to rice germplasm research at CIAT: i) INGER nursery findings over the years; ii) crosses made in the LAC region and globally (NARS, CIAT, IRRI, IITA); iii) CIAT germplasm working collection; iv) CIAT rice breeding germplasm (segregating lines, etc.); and v) regional scientific personnel. These databases are an invaluable resource to monitor changes in the genetic origin of cultivar releases and frequency of parents used in crosses in the region; identify sources of germplasm which would broaden the genetic base of LAC gene pools; keep track of researchers, etc. We programmed the database to trace the parentage and calculate percentage contributions of different ancestors to the genetic makeup of current lines (assuming each parent contributed 50% of the genes in each cross) which led to a publication by Cuevas-Perez et al. 1992.

THE ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF PAST RICE R&D INVESTMENTS IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

This section reports some preliminary outputs from an on-going study to develop new databases and analytical tools for generating information on the social returns to R&D investment in Latin America and the Caribbean. This work is being undertaken in an IDB financed collaborative project involving IFPRI, CIAT and IICA together with sub-regional institutions and NARS. The main goal is to improve the capacity to undertake R&D evaluation, priority setting, and resource allocation in the region, and one of the sub-activities is to systematize the generation of aggregate ex post assessments. The ex post assessments are designed to serve two purposes: to provide R&D managers and sponsors with some broad measures of the social impact of past investments, and to help generate improved technical information on which to base benchmark ex ante assessments. The benchmark analyses will be performed at a more spatially disaggregated level and will provide the basis for a critical review of the technical and economic data used in order to help formulate improved policy, technology and trade scenarios for further ex ante evaluations.

Given the scarcity of consistent historic data on rice technology generation and utilization at the national level in LAC, a geographically aggregated approach is being taken to the ex post evaluation. However, an attempt is being made to track the evolution of the four major rice production systems of the region and to calculate separately the impacts of R&D on each. *Irrigated* and *rainfed lowland* represent the anaerobic production systems while *mechanized upland* and *manual or traditional upland* represent the aerobic systems. LAC rice production has been allocated proportionately among these systems based on an existing, diverse set of regional and sub-regional studies (Scobie and Posada 1977, Valente Moraes 1977, CIAT 1979, 1992, 1995, Posada 1981, CIAT IRTP 1983, Muchnik de Rubinstein 1984, Dalrymple 1986). The period of analysis is 1966 to 1995, 1966 being chosen to precede the widespread release and adoption of the modern semi-dwarf varieties in the region.

For both ex post and ex ante assessment, a multi-market economic surplus model described by Alston, Norton and Pardey (1995, pp. 395-410) is being used. The model, *Dream*, is capable of analysing multiple (horizontal) markets, trade in products and technology transfer between market regions, technology adoption and disadoption, exogenous (non R&D induced) growth in demand and supply, and tax/subsidy price distortions for both producers and consumers. Analyses are made using a software package based on the model (Wood, Wood-Sichra, Alston and Pardey 1995, 1996). The approach generates a time stream of R&D benefits to producers and consumers by simulating the expected market level changes induced by the adoption and application of new technologies at the farm level. The basic representation of technical change in such economic surplus models is shown in Figure 1. If we define a pre-research position at point *a* on the supply curve S_0 , the equilibrium price and quantity are P_0 and Q_0 respectively, and the associated consumer and producer surpluses are represented by the areas FaP_0 and P_0aI_0 . The application of new technology can be represented as a downward shift in the supply curve up to a maximum amount determined by the effectiveness of the technology (conventionally

described as the *potential unit cost reduction*) and the extent to which it is ultimately adopted. This supply curve shift takes place over a period of years determined by the adoption rate. In any given year the new market equilibrium position (P_t, Q_t) may be represented by point b on the shifted supply curve S_t . In this year the new consumer and producer surpluses are represented by areas FbP_t and P_tbl_t , respectively. The effects of R&D in the given year however are measured by the *changes* in economic surplus between a and b - the areas P_0abP_t (i.e. $FbP_t - FaP_0$) and P_tbcd (geometrically equivalent to $P_tbl_t - P_0al_0$). It can be shown that the sum of these two areas - the total economic surplus - is equivalent to the shaded area swept out by the movement of the supply curve (l_0abl_t).

Alston, Norton and Pardey (1995) describe this process and its ramifications in greater detail and present the generic equations for changes in surplus - that is the economic impacts of R&D. For any region j and time t the producer and consumer benefits may be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta PS_{jt} &= (k_{jt} + PP_{jt}^R - PP_{jt}) [Q_{jt} + 0.5(Q_{jt}^R - Q_{jt})] \\ \Delta CS_{jt} &= (PC_{jt} - PC_{jt}^R) [C_{jt} + 0.5(C_{jt}^R - C_{jt})] \\ \Delta TS &= \Delta PS + \Delta CS \end{aligned}$$

where PP_{jt} , PC_{jt} , Q_{jt} , C_{jt} are producer price, consumer price, quantity produced and quantity consumed in region j in year t assuming no R&D. PP_{jt}^R , PC_{jt}^R , Q_{jt}^R , C_{jt}^R are the equivalent values allowing for the effects of research and k_{jt} is the realised unit cost reduction in region j year t . Alston et al set out procedures for the calculation of these prices, quantities and unit price reductions using the parameters listed in Table 5. They also present procedures for calculating transfer benefits through government if producer or consumer taxes or subsidies are applied in any of the regions (although this feature is not implemented in the ex post study described).

The extension of the basic framework to the ex post case described here is shown in Figure 2. In addition to the R&D induced supply shift (S_t to S_t^R) there are also exogenous shifts in supply (S_0 to S_t) and demand (D_0 to D_t). At the start of the ex post analysis period the equilibrium position (P_0, Q_0) is found at a . During the analysis period the three shifts occur simultaneously resulting in a new observed equilibrium point b (P_t^R, Q_t^R). Without R&D (the counterfactual case) the final equilibrium position would have been c . Thus the shaded area ($l_0cbl_t^R$) represents the economic surplus attributable to R&D. It should be noted that even though the demand shift is assumed to be independent of research it generates a significant additional contribution to the total economic surplus attributable to R&D - as represented by the area $cbde$.

Market Regions and Their Interaction

Regions can be characterized in ways that describe their capacity to generate new technologies as well as to produce and consume (Table 5). A region may have any individual property or any combination of properties. Where regions are defined as countries they generally have all three properties. However, where important sub-groups of producers or consumers need to be

represented in a modeling framework for example small traditional producers and large mechanized producers or rural and urban consumers appropriate market regions of single properties may be constructed

The analysis proceeds by a simulation through time of the release adoption and application of new technologies and the consequent changes in prices and in quantities produced and consumed As new technologies are adopted the supply-curve shifting effects of R&D in each region are transmitted between regions through prices The model assumes that in each time period price levels adjust to ensure that production equals consumption across all regions that is an aggregate market clearing condition is imposed In addition to the R&D impacts based on price effects (or price spillovers) the model is capable of simulating the R&D effects that may arise as a consequence of the transfer of technologies between regions the technology spillover effect The analysis estimates present values of the economic benefits of R&D for each region - broken down by producers and consumers (and government if any taxes or subsidies are specified) If R&D cost data are available net benefits (benefits-costs) net present benefits and internal rate of return are estimated for each market region for each group of regions and across all regions

Model Specification and Parameter Estimation for ex Post Analysis

The ex post rice model has been formulated at a geographical scale of LAC using six analysis regions

- Irrigated rice production system - anaerobic
- Rainfed rice production system - anaerobic
- Upland mechanized rice production system - aerobic
- Upland manual/traditional rice production system - aerobic
- Rice consumption
- Net trade

The final region was necessary to provide the required balance between LAC rice production and consumption It is effectively another (external) production region since LAC has been and is increasingly a net importer of rice Rice consumption was assumed to be equivalent to rice supply as defined in FAO's Supply Utilization Accounts i.e. it is more properly defined as *apparent consumption*

The modeling strategy adopted was to simulate the evolution of regionally aggregated price and quantity over the 31 year period (1966-95) while fitting the disaggregated production system trends to the limited historic data points available at this level To reflect several distinct phases of the evolution of rice production in LAC as well as to coincide with the availability of key calibration datasets at the production system level the period was split into three sub-periods The sub period 1966-81 covered the initial phase of strong growth in the adoption of semi-dwarf varieties as well as major expansion in the mechanized upland area predominantly in Brazil

The regional overview of the situation with regard to rice production technology at the end of this period was summarized by Muchnik de Rubenstein (1984). The second sub-period 1982-1989 witnessed a major reversal in the growth of the upland mechanized area. A 1989 regional summary of the major rice production systems defines the end of that sub-period (CIAT 1992). The final sub-period 1989-1995 coincides with strong growth in production from the temperate irrigated areas but otherwise much instability in both production and prices.

To evaluate the economic consequences of R&D it is necessary to decompose the observed production trends for each of the four rice production systems and for each sub-period. This is done in two stages: firstly into the relative contribution of the area and yield components of production change in each sub-period and secondly into the shares of those area and yield changes attributed to R&D and other (exogenous) sources respectively. Shares have been estimated on the basis of the sources used in deriving Table 3: other econometric studies of rice technology impacts (e.g. Evenson and Flores 1978) and frequently expert opinion. This heuristic process provides estimates of the R&D induced effect (that is the unit cost reduction as a percentage of the initial price), the exogenous supply growth rate (as an annual percentage rate) and the maximum adoption level (percentage of MSV production in total production).

For each sub-period it was assumed that technology was available to be adopted (R&D time lags were set to zero and the probability of R&D success was 100%) and that adoption was a continuous process (adoption lags were set equal to the sub-period length). Since R&D cost streams were not available that covered all sources of technology applied in LAC rice production only gross benefits have been calculated. Technology spillover was not explicitly modelled in the ex post analysis but its effects are embodied in the historic data. For example the 1988 national rice census of Colombia reports 24.6% of upland producers were using the CIAT/ICA-developed CICA 8 irrigated rice variety (FEDEARROZ 1990). None of the other 75.4% of varieties used in the upland manual systems were identified but a significant proportion of those are also thought to be MSV's developed for irrigated areas. On this basis we made a nominal R&D contribution of 5% to the *yield gains* in all non MSV (traditional variety) areas. Within the MSV areas the estimated contribution of R&D to *yield gains* ranged between 30% in the irrigated systems to 50% in the upland systems. We did not attribute any *area changes* to R&D. Table 6 shows the input dataset by production system (that is by market region) and by sub-period.

Results

The model tracked the evolution of production and prices very closely (Figure 3). Results indicate that the main beneficiaries of technological innovations have been consumers with annualized benefits (discounted at a real rate of 3% per year) of US\$518 million (Table 7). As a group producers have received annualized benefits of US\$340 million per year. But it was the irrigated production systems that generated practically all of the positive R&D benefits (US\$437 million per year). The other production systems were adversely affected by the rapid gains in the irrigated sector although those non irrigated producers who

adopted new technologies (targeted to them or to the irrigated sector) were less affected. In aggregate the non irrigated production sectors had net annual losses of US\$9 million in rainfed, US\$70 million in mechanized upland and US\$5 million in manual upland¹. It is probable that the large productivity gains in irrigated rice have played an important role in releasing pressure on the more fragile ecosystems of the forest margins and the savannas. With productivity gains in irrigated rice, prices have decreased, making upland rice less competitive and reducing the economic incentive to open new rice lands in those upland ecosystems.

¹ In this context "losses" signify the reduced economic benefits of rice production in the non irrigated areas relative to those that would have been generated without R&D. As a consequence of R&D, relative changes in the cost of production favour expansion of irrigated production and contraction of other systems. Rational producers in the less favoured (that is, relatively higher unit cost of production) systems may opt to switch out of rice and into their next most profitable production activity.

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Acronyms

CIAT Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (International Center for Tropical Agriculture)
FEDEARROZ Federación Nacional de Arroceros de Colombia
FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FLAR Fondo Latinoamericano y del Caribe para Arroz de Riego (Irrigated Rice Fund for Latin America and the Caribbean)
ICA Instituto Colombiano Agropecuario
ICM Integrated Crop Management
INGER LAC International Network for Genetic Evaluation of Rice for Latin America and the Caribbean
IRRI International Rice Research Institute
IARCs International Agricultural Research Centers
IITA International Institute for Tropical Agriculture
LAC Latin America and the Caribbean
MSV Modern Semidwarf Varieties
IPM Integrated Pest Management
NARS National Agricultural Research Systems
RHBV Rice Hoja Blanca Virus
WARDA West African Rice Development Agency

Table 1 Rice varieties released in Latin America and the Caribbean by origin.

Sub-region and Country	1970-1980						1981-1990						1991-1995						TOTAL					
	Total						Total						Total						TOTAL					
	Released	Local	IRRI	CT/P	Others	%CT	Released	Local	IRRI	CT/P	Others	%CT	Released	Local	IRRI	CT/P	Others	%CT	Released	Local	IRRI	CT/P	Others	%CT
Caribbean																								
Belize							1			1		100%							1			1		100%
Dom Rep	5	4	1			0%	4	2	1	1		25%							9	6	2	1		11%
French Guyana													1			1		100%	1			1		100%
Guyana	2	1	1			0%							1		1			0%	3	1	2			0%
Suriname	11	11				0%	1	1				0%							12	12				0%
Subtotal	18	16	2			0%	6	3	1	2	0	33%	2	0	1	1		50%	26	19	4	3	0	12%
Cuba	3	1	2			0%	5	4			1	0%	6	6				0%	14	11	2		1	0%
Mexico	22	14	8			0%	11	5	2	2	2	18%	3	2		1		33%	36	21	10	3	2	8%
Central America																								
Costa Rica	3		1	2		67%	2			2		100%	4			4		100%	9		1	8		89%
El Salvador							4			4		100%	1			1			5			5		100%
Guatemala	2			2		100%	5			4	1	80%	1			1			8			7	1	88%
Honduras							4			4		100%	1			1		100%	5			5		100%
Nicaragua	1		1			0%	1			1		100%	5	2		3		60%	7	2	1	4		57%
Panama	2	2				0%	4	1		3		75%	2			2		100%	8	3		5		63%
Subtotal	8	2	2	4		50%	20	1		18	1	90%	14	2		12		86%	42	5	2	34	1	81%
Tropical Brazil	4	4				0%	30	13	2	11	4	37%	18	10		6	2	33%	52	27	2	17	6	33%
Temperate Brazil	11	3	4	4		36%	12	5	1	4	2	33%	7	6		1		14%	30	14	5	9	2	30%
Andean Countries																								
Bolivia							2		1	1		50%	4			3	1	75%	6		1	4	1	67%
Colombia	6		1	6	1	75%	6			6		100%	6			5	1	83%	20		1	17	2	85%
Ecuador	4		2	2		50%	2		1	1		50%	1			1		100%	7		3	4		57%
Perú	4	1	3			0%	9	5	1	3		33%	6	2		4		67%	19	8	4	7		37%
Venezuela	1			1		100%	4			2	2	50%	2			2		100%	7			5	2	71%
Subtotal	17	1	6	9	1	53%	23	6	3	13	2	57%	19	2		15	2	79%	59	8	9	37	5	63%
Temperate South America																								
Argentina							2	2				0%							2	2				0%
Chile	3	3				0%							1			1		100%	4	3		1		25%
Paraguay	1			1		100%	3			1	2	33%							4			2	2	50%
Uruguay							4	4				0%	2	2				0%	6	6				0%
Subtotal	4	3	0	1	0	25%	9	6		1	2	11%	3	2		1		33%	16	11		3	2	19%
TOTAL	87	44	24	18	1	21%	116	42	9	51	14	44%	72	30	1	37	4	51%	275	116	34	106	19	39%

Varieties resulting from crosses made at CIAT

Table 2 Percent of modern semidwarf varieties (MSV) in LAC rice production and area

	Percent in Production				Percent in Area			
	1966	1981	1989	1995	1966	1981	1989	1995
Irrigated	0.0	79.3	88.1	98.3	0.0	76.4	84.7	97.6
Rainfed	0.0	53.3	69.3	76.7	0.0	50.3	61.8	71.7
<i>Subtotal Wetlands</i>	0.0	73.5	84.2	92.8	0.0	69.7	79.1	89.5
Mechanized Upland	0.0	6.9	13.3	24.7	0.0	5.8	10.3	18.0
Traditional Upland	0.0	30.0	30.0	30.0	0.0	26.0	28.2	31.2
Total LAC	0.0	49.9	67.5	80.3	0.0	28.2	43.6	58.8

Table 3 Participation of modern semidwarf varieties (MSV) in production, area and implicit yield, LAC, 1966-95

	Production (1 000 MT)				Area (1 000 Has)				Yield (MT/Ha)			
	1966	1981	1989	1995	1966	1981	1989	1995	1966	1981	1989	1995
Anaerobic	6 354	9 888	13 863	16 792	1 927	2 630	3 291	3 662	3.3	3.8	4.2	4.6
MSV	0	7 272	11 676	15 587	0	1 832	2 602	3 278				
Irrigated	4 328	7 710	11 022	12 518	1 252	1 952	2 475	2 519	3.5	3.9	4.5	5.0
MSV	0	6 110	9 708	12 310	0	1 491	2 097	2 459				
Rainfed	2 026	2 178	2 840	4 273	674	678	816	1 144	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.7
MSV	0	1 162	1 968	3 277	0	341	505	820				
Aerobic (Upland)	3 799	5 858	4 561	3 879	3 912	5 633	4 050	3 063	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.3
MSV	0	587	752	1 009	0	499	580	675				
Mechanized	2 809	5 070	3 684	2 920	2 812	4 786	3 146	2 123	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4
MSV	0	350	489	722	0	279	325	381				
Manual	990	788	877	959	1 100	847	904	940	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0
MSV	0	236	263	288	0	220	255	293				
LAC total	10 153	15 745	18 424	20 670	5 838	8 262	7 341	6 725	1.7	1.9	2.5	3.1
MSV	0	7 858	12 428	16 596	0	2 331	3 181	3 953				

Source: Estimated by the authors on the basis of Muchnik de Rubenstein 1984, Dalrymple 1986, Valente Moraes 1977, CIAT 1979, 1992, 1995, CIAT-IRTP 1983, Posada 1981, Dalrymple 1986, Scobie and Posada 1977, Avila 1981, IRRI 1995.

Table 4 International Prices of White Rice Bangkok 5% Broken 1966-95

Year	US Wholesale Price Index 1995=100	Nominal Price of White Rice Bangkok 5% Broken	Nominal Price of Paddy Rice (White *0.5)	Real Price of Paddy Rice US\$ of 1995
1966	26.7	165.7	82.8	309.7
1967	26.7	221.0	110.5	413.1
1968	27.5	204.7	102.3	372.2
1969	28.5	185.1	92.5	324.5
1970	29.5	143.0	71.5	242.0
1971	30.6	130.3	65.2	213.2
1972	31.9	149.9	75.0	235.2
1973	36.1	296.6	148.3	411.2
1974	42.9	541.5	270.8	631.6
1975	46.9	363.2	181.6	387.4
1976	49.0	254.1	127.0	259.2
1977	52.0	272.4	136.2	261.9
1978	56.1	368.5	184.3	328.4
1979	63.1	334.3	167.2	264.9
1980	72.0	433.7	216.8	301.0
1981	78.6	482.8	241.4	307.3
1982	80.1	293.4	146.7	183.0
1983	81.2	276.8	138.4	170.5
1984	83.1	252.3	126.1	151.7
1985	82.7	217.4	108.7	131.5
1986	80.3	210.2	105.1	130.8
1987	82.4	229.8	114.9	139.4
1988	85.7	301.5	150.8	175.8
1989	90.0	320.3	160.2	177.9
1990	93.2	287.2	143.6	154.1
1991	93.4	312.6	156.3	167.4
1992	93.9	287.4	143.7	153.0
1993	95.3	267.9	134.0	140.5
1994	96.6	294.0	147.0	152.3
1995	100.0	353.0	176.5	176.5

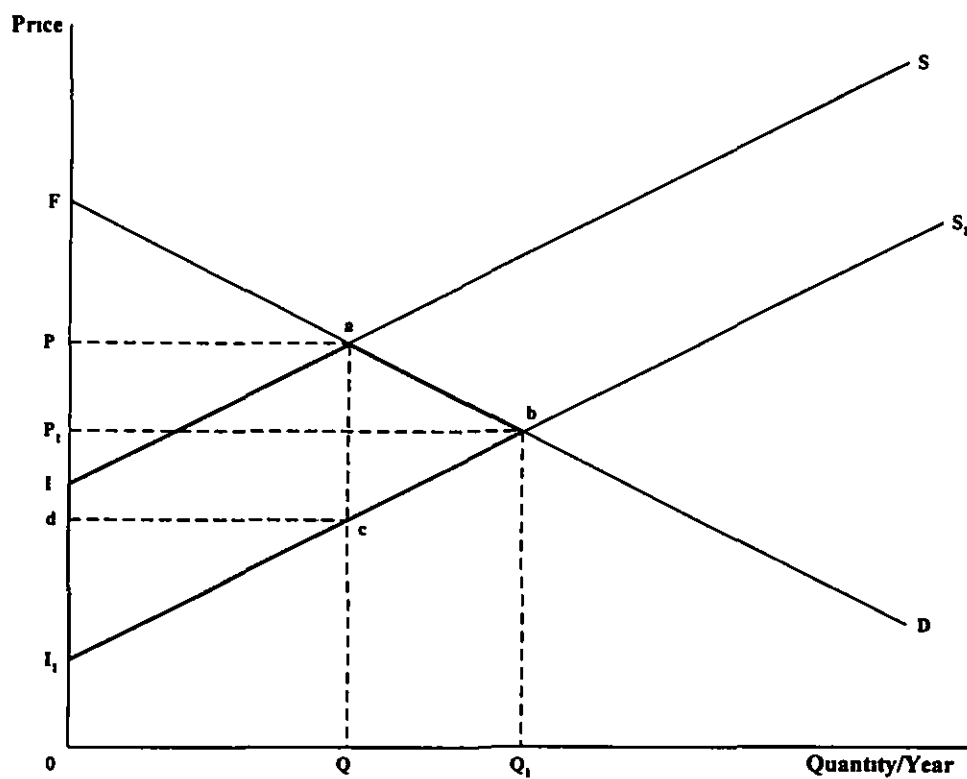


Figure 1 Representing gross annual research benefits in an economic surplus framework

Figure 2 Ex post Representation of Gross Annual Research Benefits in an Economic Surplus Framework

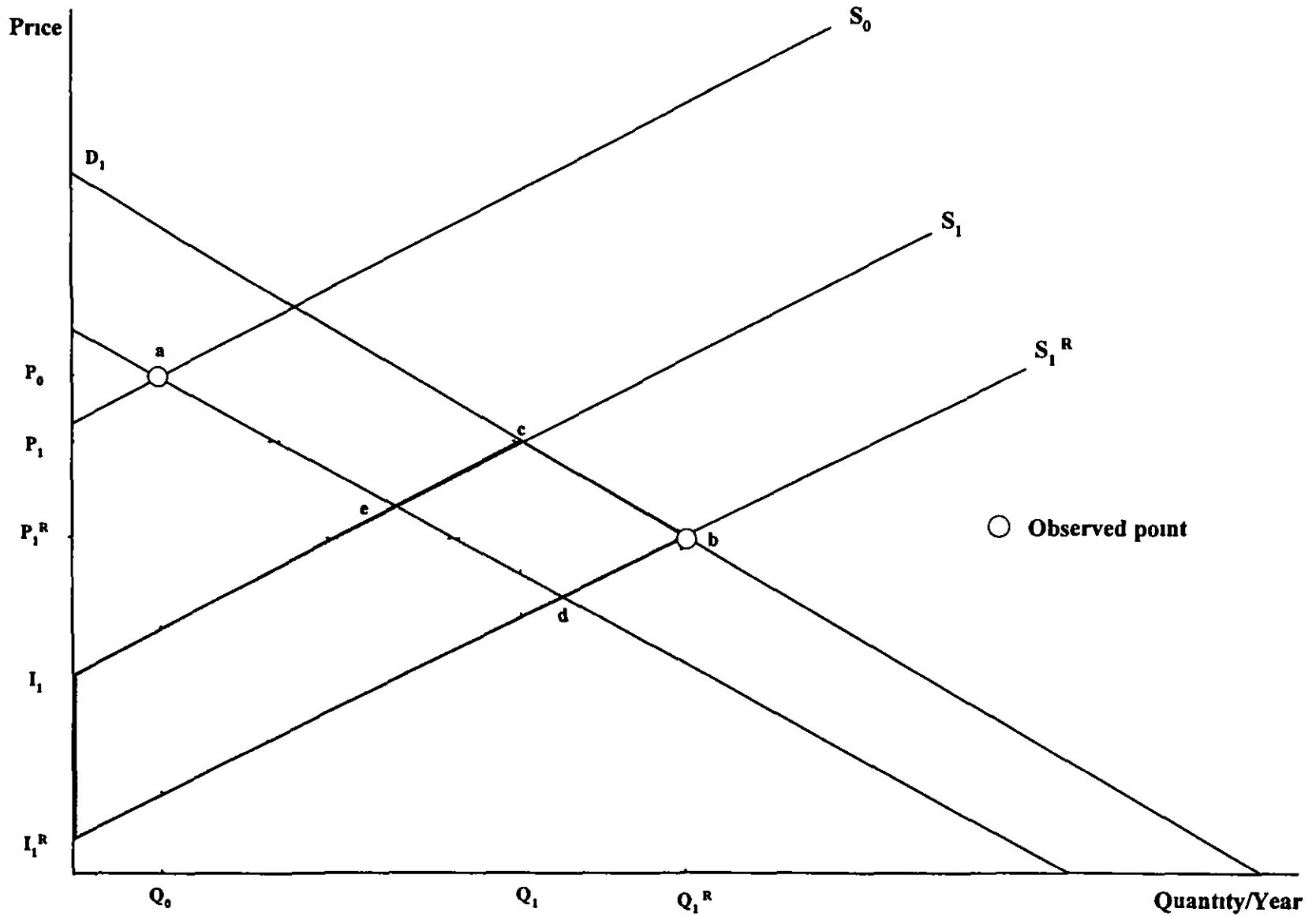


Table 5 Properties of market regions and related model parameters

Major property	Parameters in the <i>Dream</i> model
Capacity to generate technology	R&D research investments R&D lag times Type and expected range of unit cost reductions
Capacity to produce	Adoption lag time Maximum adoption level Disadoption lag Initial production quantity Initial producer (farmgate) price Price elasticity of supply Exogenous (non R&D induced) growth rate in supply Producer taxes/subsidies
Capacity to consume	Initial consumption Price elasticity of demand Exogenous (non R&D induced) growth rate in demand Consumer taxes/subsidies

Table 6 Input parameters for ex post analysis

Period	Region	R&D			Adoption		Production				Consumption					
		Time Lag	Probability of Success	Shift (Kmax)	Lag	Level	Initial Quantity	Initial Price	Elasticity of supply	Exog Growth	Initial Quantity	Elasticity of demand	Exog Growth			
		(yrs)	(%)	(\$/T)	(yrs)	(%)	(1000T)	(\$/T)		(%/yr)	(1000T)		(%/yr)			
1966 81	Irrigated	0	100	59 86	15	78 5	4218	288	0 7	4 7	10214	0 3	3 2			
	Rainfed	0	100	22 72	15	41 6	1925	288	1	4						
	Upland mechanised	0	100	12 87	15	8	3252	288	1 2	4 8						
	Upland Manual	0	100	8 65	15	8	760	288	1 2	2 7						
	LAC Consumption															
	LAC Net Trade						61	288	0	13						
1981 89	Irrigated	0	100	29 76	8	87	7676	208	0 7	5 3	16854	0 25	1 3			
	Rainfed	0	100	4 53	8	54	2847	208	1	1						
	Upland Mechanised	0	100	1 27	8	11	5138	208	1 2	1 7						
	Upland Manual	0	100	0	8	11	854	208	1 2	3						
	LAC Consumption															
	LAC Net Trade						339	208	0	8 3						
1989 95	Irrigated	0	100	23 39	6	95	1123	180	0 7	1 4	19031	0 2	2 4			
	Rainfed	0	100	4 72	6	84	2739	180	1	9 2						
	Upland Mechanised	0	100	4 43	6	19	3770	180	1 2	4 7						
	Upland Manual	0	100	8 07	6	19	904	180	1 2	2						
	LAC Consumption															
	LAC Net Trade						595	180	0	8 6						

NOTES

- 1 In the ex post setting we consider a timestream of undifferentiated technologies was adopted. Since the starting point is adoption, R&D lag time is set to zero and since the technology was available, probability of success was set to 100%.
- 2 Maximum unit cost (Kmax) is the product of the potential unit cost reduction (%) probability of research success (%) the maximum adoption level (%) and the producer price.
- 3 Adoption lags are set equal to the simulation period, i.e. adoption is continuous in the ex post context (up to the maximum adoption level specified for each period).
- 4 Exogenous demand growth rates were calculated by the authors on the basis of growth in population, real wages and income elasticities.
- 5 Initial estimates of the exogenous supply growth rates were calculated as described in the text but were subsequently adjusted to fit the equilibrium quantities and price to the available data points.

Table 6 Input parameters for ex post analysis

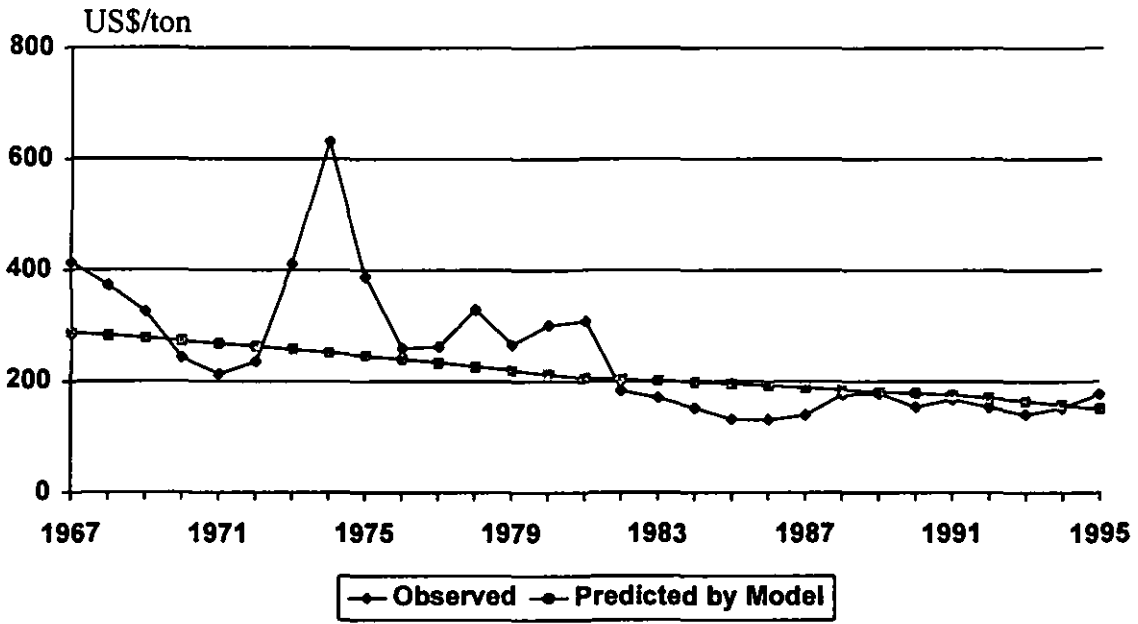
Period	Region	R&D			Adoption		Production				Consumption		
		Time Lag	Probability of Success	Shift (Kmax)	Lag	Level	Initial Quantity	Initial Price	Elasticity of supply	Exog Growth	Initial Quantity	Elasticity of demand	Exog Growth
		(yrs)	(%)	(\$/T)	(yrs)	(%)	(1000T)	(\$/T)		(%/yr)	(1000T)		(%/yr)
1966 81	Irrigated	0	100	59 86	15	78 5	4218	288	0 7	4 7			
	Rainfed	0	100	22 72	15	41 6	1925	288	1	4			
	Upland mechanised	0	100	12 87	15	8	3252	288	1 2	4 8			
	Upland Manual	0	100	8 65	15	8	760	288	1 2	2 7			
	LAC Consumption										10214	0 3	3 2
	LAC Net Trade						61	288	0	13			
1981 89	Irrigated	0	100	29 76	8	87	7676	208	0 7	5 3			
	Rainfed	0	100	4 53	8	54	2847	208	1	1			
	Upland Mechanised	0	100	1 27	8	11	5138	208	1 2	1 7			
	Upland Manual	0	100	0	8	11	854	208	1 2	3			
	LAC Consumption										16854	0 25	1 3
	LAC Net Trade						339	208	0	8 3			
1989 95	Irrigated	0	100	23 39	6	95	1123	180	0 7	1 4			
	Rainfed	0	100	4 72	6	84	2739	180	1	9 2			
	Upland Mechanised	0	100	4 43	6	19	3770	180	1 2	4 7			
	Upland Manual	0	100	8 07	6	19	904	180	1 2	2			
	LAC Consumption										19031	0 2	2 4
	LAC Net Trade						595	180	0	8 6			

NOTES

- 1 In the ex post setting we consider a timestream of undifferentiated technologies was adopted. Since the starting point is adoption, R&D lag time is set to zero and since the technology was available, probability of success was set to 100%.
- 2 Maximum unit cost (Kmax) is the product of the potential unit cost reduction (%) probability of research success (%) the maximum adoption level (%) and the producer price.
- 3 Adoption lags are set equal to the simulation period, i.e. adoption is continuous in the ex post context (up to the maximum adoption level specified for each period).
- 4 Exogenous demand growth rates were calculated by the authors on the basis of growth in population, real wages and income elasticities.
- 5 Initial estimates of the exogenous supply growth rates were calculated as described in the text but were subsequently adjusted to fit the equilibrium quantities and price to the available data points.

Table 7 Gross benefits in LAC of global rice R&D (period of impact 1966 96) All values in 1000 of 1995 US\$

Year	Gross Annual Research Benefits							Value if benefits invested at 3%		
	Producer Benefits					Consumer Benefits	Total Benefits	Producers	Consumers	Total
	Irrigated	Rainfed Lowland	Upland Mechanised	Upland Manual	Total Producers					
1967	10 723	113	1 941	667	8 229	14 887	23 115	18 826	34 059	52 886
1968	22 368	233	4 016	1 351	17 234	30 844	48 078	38 282	68 513	106 794
1969	31 983	360	6 231	2 052	27 061	47 928	74 988	58 359	103 360	161 719
1970	48 624	494	8 594	2 769	37 755	66 197	103 952	79 051	138 602	217 653
1971	63 346	635	11 111	3 503	49 367	86 715	135 082	100 353	174 240	274 593
1972	79 208	784	13 792	4 252	61 948	106 545	168 493	122 260	210 276	332 535
1973	96 271	941	16 643	5 015	75 553	128 757	204 310	144 768	246 712	391 480
1974	114 600	1 106	19 674	5 793	90 240	152 422	242 662	167 873	283 550	451 423
1975	134 263	1 280	22 891	6 584	106 069	177 616	283 684	191 672	320 794	512 366
1976	155 331	1 462	26 303	7 357	123 103	204 418	327 520	215 861	358 447	574 309
1977	177 877	1 653	29 920	8 200	141 409	232 911	374 320	240 740	396 515	637 254
1978	201 978	1 853	33 750	9 024	161 058	263 182	424 240	266 204	435 000	701 204
1979	227 716	2 062	37 802	9 855	182 122	295 325	477 447	292 252	473 910	766 162
1980	255 172	2 281	42 084	10 692	204 678	329 436	534 114	318 882	513 250	832 132
1981	284 436	2 510	46 606	11 532	228 808	365 617	594 424	346 092	553 028	899 120
1982	304 241	848	51 684	12 512	240 894	385 028	625 922	353 760	555 426	919 187
1983	326 065	813	56 439	13 522	255 292	405 062	660 354	363 985	577 522	941 507
1984	350 011	2 469	60 858	14 559	272 125	425 747	697 872	376 684	589 334	966 018
1985	376 186	4 114	64 929	15 631	291 513	447 112	738 625	391 769	600 881	992 650
1986	404 704	5 741	68 637	16 707	313 620	469 186	762 806	409 203	612 182	1021 384
1987	435 685	7 344	71 968	17 812	338 561	492 002	830 563	428 879	623 253	1052 132
1988	469 252	8 915	74 906	18 933	366 497	515 591	882 088	450 745	634 112	1084 857
1989	505 536	10 449	77 436	20 066	397 585	539 990	937 575	474 738	644 776	1119 514
1990	528 613	13 476	81 783	20 563	412 792	576 122	988 913	478 539	667 883	1146 421
1991	552 792	17 090	85 765	21 087	428 850	613 952	1042 802	482 675	691 008	1173 683
1992	578 022	21 360	89 384	21 638	445 641	653 571	1099 212	486 964	714 175	1201 138
1993	604 242	26 363	92 636	22 212	463 031	695 076	1158 107	491 230	737 406	1228 636
1994	631 387	32 185	95 518	22 808	480 876	738 569	1219 445	495 302	760 726	1256 028
1995	659 382	38 921	98 023	23 423	499 015	784 158	1283 172	499 015	784 158	1283 172
Annualized flow at 3%	436 651	8 551	70 396	5 454	339 551	518 312	857 863			



*Figure 3 Paddy Rice Prices (Bangkok 100% *0.5)*

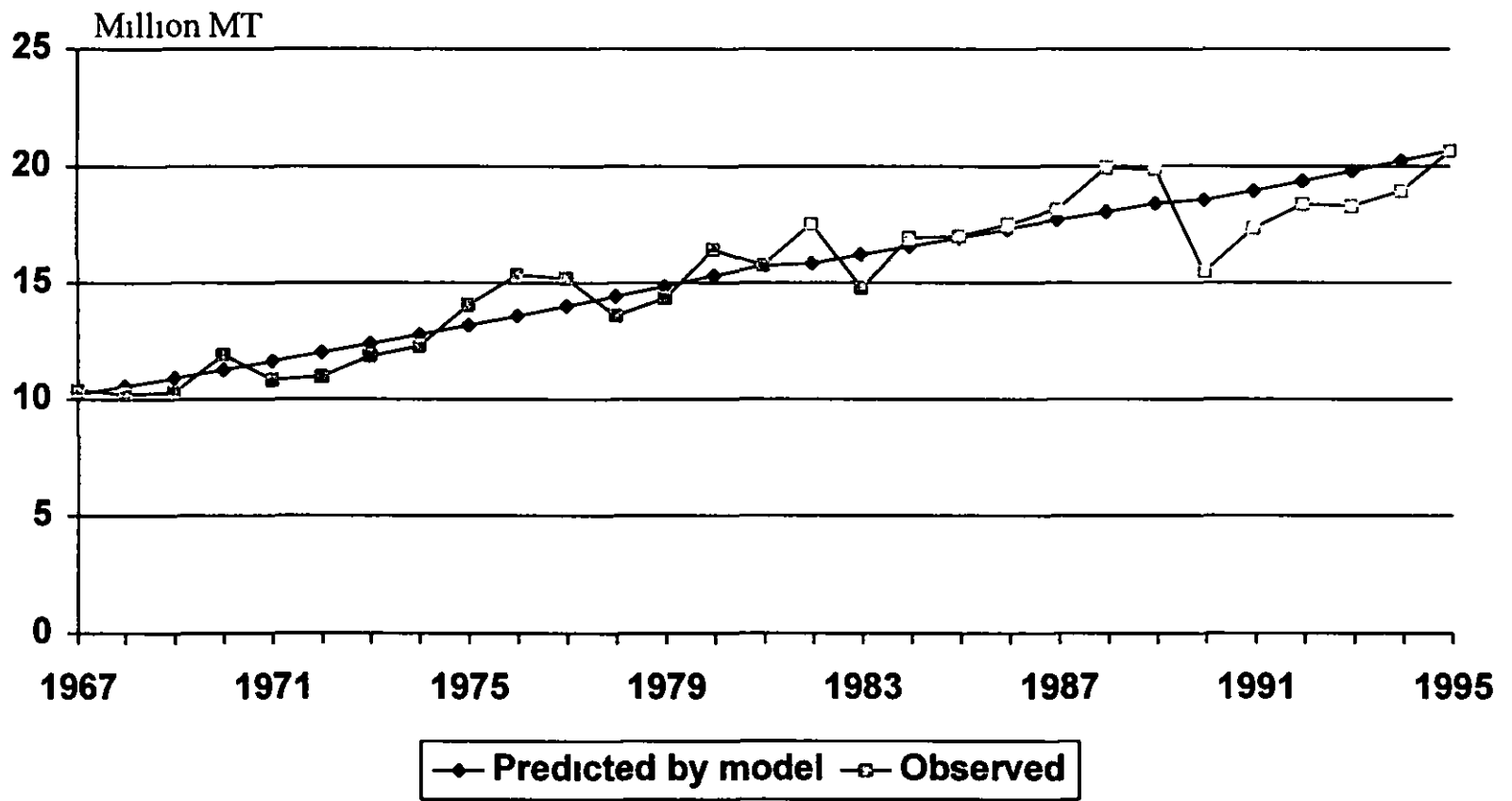


Figure 3 Total Paddy Rice Production in LAC