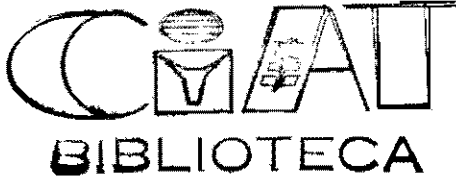


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The views and conclusions expressed in this Preliminary Report are those of the authors and should not be construed to represent those of the management or Board of CIAT nor its donor agencies.

"If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do, and how to do it."

Abraham Lincoln

(Speech to the Republican State Committee, Springfield, Illinois, June 18, 1858)

"To say that a thing happened the way it did is not at all illuminating. We can understand the significance of what did happen, only if we contrast it with what might have happened."

Morris Raphael Cohen

[Quoted in R.P. Thomas (1965), "A quantitative approach to the study of the effects of British imperial policy upon colonial welfare: Some preliminary findings," *Journal of Economic History* Vol. 25, No. 4.]

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge, without implication, the contributions of the following persons to this study:

Randolph Barker, Economist, IRRI, Philippines.

Dana G. Dalrymple, Economist, USDA, Washington, D.C.

Bruce L. Gardner, President's Council of Economic Advisers, Washington, D.C.

Uriel Gutiérrez P., Universidad de Los Andes, Bogotá.

Reed Hertford, Ford Foundation, Bogotá.

Peter R. Jennings, Associate Director for Agricultural Sciences, Rockefeller Foundation, N.Y.

Loyd Johnson, Rice Program, CIAT

Patricia Juri, Biometrics Unit, CIAT

Gustavo López A., Economist, FEDEARROZ, Bogotá.

Per Pinstrup-Andersen, Director, Agro-Economic Research Division, I.F.D.C., Alabama.

Manuel J. Rosero M., Director, National Rice Program, ICA, Colombia.

G. Edward Schuh, Purdue University, U.S.A.

Alberto Valdés, Economist, CIAT.

In addition, this study would not have been possible without the collaboration of the following Colombian institutions: INCORA, ICA, DANE, IDEMA, INCOMEX and the Banco de la República, all of whom collaborated in providing unpublished data.

CONTENTS

I	Introduction	1
II	An overview of rice production and trade in Latin America: 1950-1974	4
III	Impact of HYV's on rice production in Latin America	10
IV	Rice in Colombia: some economic aspects	13
V	An economic model to measure the benefits of HYV's in Colombia	40
VI	Gross benefits, costs and net benefits of HYV's in Colombia	59
VII	Distribution of net benefits	69
VIII	An analysis of the marketing margins for rice in Colombia	85
IX	Summary	98
	References	101
	Appendix tables	107
	Glossary	165

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The setting

The contribution of technical change to agricultural productivity in developed countries (e.g., Griliches, 1958; Hayami and Ruttan, 1971) and in developing countries (e.g., Schultz, 1964; Evenson and Kislev, 1975) has been widely recognized. However, as noted by Ramalho de Castro (1974), it has only recently been fully appreciated that technical change can take alternative routes, emphasizing some products at the expense of others, concentrating on certain ecological zones, or stressing either biochemical or mechanical advances.

With continued pressure on food supplies in much of the developing world, together with some national and much international concern for the welfare of low-income people, attention is being increasingly focused on the allocation of public research monies for agriculture (Arndt et al., 1976; Fisher, 1971; Pinstrup-Andersen and Byrnes, 1975). In appraisal of potential research projects (Ramalho de Castro, 1974) and in the evaluation of existing or past research (Akino and Hayami, 1975; Ayer and Schuh, 1972), two central economic issues arise: efficiency and equity. The first is related to the economic return on the public investment in agricultural research; was a particular line of research a socially efficient way to invest scarce public research funds? Equity refers to the distribution of the net benefits by economic classes of the population.

It can arise that the two goals, efficiency and equity, may not be mutually exclusive. Investing in those lines of research which have high net payoffs may not necessarily result in an equitable distribution of the benefits of technical change. If a country invested research funds generating new technology for an export crop produced solely by a large-scale commercial agriculture, then while this may satisfy an efficiency goal of being profitable in terms of the economic payoff to the country, it might have little or no impact on improving the distribution of income. Whether or not new agricultural technology is an appropriate vehicle for achieving social equity is an open question; the answer will depend on the nature of the crop, the structure of consumption and production, and the alternative tools available for

income distribution. While agricultural technology may prove a long-run catalyst for social and economic articulation (de Janvry, 1975), expectations that it can solve a broad spectrum of social ills in the short run may be unrealistic.

Whatever the final outcome, equity is becoming a more widely applied criterion for appraising investments in agriculture (McNamara, 1973). This study will be concerned with both efficiency and equity criteria in agricultural research. However, given the abundance of literature referring to social questions following the introduction of technological changes in agriculture (Falcon, 1970; Hill and Hardin, 1971; Pearse, 1975; Wharton, 1969) and the paucity of empirical studies at the national level, particular attention is focused on the question of equity.

1.2 Rice in Latin America*

Rice is one of the most widely produced crops in Latin America; it is grown in virtually every country of the region and under a wide range of ecological conditions. As a result of the development of high-yielding varieties of rice (HYV's), Latin America is experiencing part of the widely heralded Asian-born "green revolution" in rice production. Starting in the mid-sixties, new material stemming from the International Rice Research Institute in the Philippines has been transferred to and adapted for Latin America. The term HYV is used throughout this study to refer to the dwarf rices with a higher grain/straw ratio than the traditional varieties.

1.3 Objectives of the study

1. To measure the impact of HYV's on Latin American rice production
2. To measure the size and distribution of the economic benefits resulting from the introduction of HYV's in Colombia.

Colombia was selected as the country for detailed study, not only since the adoption of HYV's had been much more widespread than in any other country, but largely because as a result of a strong National Rice Growers Federation (FEDEARROZ), higher quality data was more readily available. In addition, the time available for the study did not permit a more extensive coverage in the detail required to fulfill the second objective.

1.4 Outline of the report

Chapter 2 presents an overview of rice production and trade in Latin America and concludes with some observations on trade prospects. Chapter 3 is dedicated to measuring the additional output of rice in Latin America due to HYV's, while Chapter 4 is intended to provide some economic background to the Colombian rice industry, presenting data which will form the basis of subsequent analyses. In Chapter 5 a

*Throughout this report, the term Latin America is used to include Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean and South America.

model is developed to measure the economic benefits of the introduction of HYV's, and the estimation of the parameters required by the model is discussed.

The gross benefits, costs, net benefits and rates of return are given in Chapter 6, while the distribution of net benefits by income level is discussed in Chapter 7. In Chapter 8, an analysis of the farm-to-retail marketing margin is presented, and a summary of the study is given in Chapter 9.

2. AN OVERVIEW OF RICE PRODUCTION AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA: 1950–1974*

2.1 Production

Table 1 presents a summary of the production data for various regions of Latin America. Regional production grew at an average annual rate of 3.6 percent between 1950 and 1974, compared with a world growth rate of 2.8 percent. Latin America produced 3.6 percent of world output in 1974. Latin American production is highly concentrated (Table 2); over half the output comes from Brazil, and five countries account for about 80 percent of the production. Yields have been static for 25 years in the region as a whole, averaging 1.7 tons/ha of paddy rice. However, this figure is heavily weighted by Brazil (1.2 tons/ha) and disguises such higher yields as Colombia (4.2 tons/ha), Uruguay and Peru (3.9 tons/ha), and Argentina (3.8 tons/ha) in 1974.

Table 1. Production of paddy rice in Latin America and in the world: selected years.

Region	1950	1960	1965	1974
	(000 t.m.)			
Mexico and Caribbean	405	823	509	1,022
Central America	211	228	332	503
South America	4,249	6,530	9,672	10,156
Latin America	4,865	7,581	10,513	11,681
World	161,900	239,500	256,617	323,201

*In Appendix Table 1, data for production, area, yields and trade in rice are given by country for Latin America for 1950-1974.

Table 2. Contribution of five major rice-producers in Latin America: selected years.

Ranking	1950		1960		1965		1974	
	Country	(%)	Country	(%)	Country	(%)	Country	(%)
1	Brazil	65	Brazil	63	Brazil	72	Brazil	56
2	Colombia	6	Colombia	6	Colombia	6	Colombia	13
3	Peru	4	Peru	5	Peru	3	Peru	4
4	Mexico	4	Mexico	4	Mexico	3	Mexico	3
5	Argentina	3	Cuba	4	Guyana	2	Cuba	3
Total		82		82		86		79

The pattern of growth of the Latin American rice industry is depicted in Table 3. Two periods were analyzed: 1950-54 to 1965-69 and 1965-69 to 1970-74. The first period saw the expansion in rice output coming from greater area under rice, especially in the land-extensive South American region. Yields were constant or falling. Since the mid-sixties (and corresponding to the period of introduction of HYV's), yields have risen at an annual average rate of 2.5 percent, contributing much of the growth in total output. Central America has experienced a notable growth in yields in this latter period. Overall, the annual average improvement in yields has been higher than the world figure of 1.5 percent, although Latin America as a whole is still below the world average of 2.4 tons/ha in 1974.

2.2 Trade and trade prospects.

Latin America as a whole is a net rice-importing region (Table 4), although its imports represented only about 1.5 percent of world trade in rice in the period 1970-

Table 3. Average annual growth rates of production, area and yields in Latin America (by regions).

Region	1950-54 to 1965-69			1965-69 to 1970-74		
	Production	Area	Yields	Production	Area	Yields
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Mexico and Caribbean	2.5	1.7	1.0	8.1	5.9	1.9
Central America	3.1	2.8	0.0	2.3	-1.3	4.0
South America	3.8	4.4	-0.4	3.0	0.9	1.3
Latin America	3.6	4.1	-0.4	3.3	1.2	2.5

Table 4. Average annual net exports of milled rice in Latin America: five-year averages (1950-1974).

Region	1950-54	1955-59	1960-64	1965-69	1970-74
	('000 t.m.)				
Mexico and Caribbean	-301*	-235	-232	-244	-381
Central America	3	-16	-11	-10	-4
South America	160	105	141	293	253
Latin America	-138	-146	-102	39	-132

* Negative sign indicates imports.

1974. However, there are marked regional differences in rice trade. South America is a significant rice exporter; but generally the import demands of Mexico, the Caribbean and Central America exceed the exportable surplus of South America, making Latin America as a whole a net rice importer.

Tables 5 shows the major rice importing and exporting countries. Imports of 350,000 m.t. enter the Caribbean annually, about two thirds going to Cuba. This pattern of imports has been constant for the last twenty-five years. However, the pattern of exports is much less consistent. Because so much of Brazilian rice comes from the upland sector, which is subject to seasonal fluctuations, Brazil's exportable surplus is variable. Uruguay, Guyana, Surinam and Argentina have been consistent exporters in the last fifteen years. It is thought that almost all South American countries will either be self-sufficient or exporting in the next few years. Central America as a region is also self-sufficient. Hence, in the Western Hemisphere, there are only two rice deficit areas, Canada and the Caribbean, representing a combined annual market of about 400,000 m.t. of milled rice.

However, the United States, the world's largest exporter (over 2 million m.t.) is well located to serve these markets. Improved relations with Cuba could well provide the U.S. once more with a major market for rice exports in Cuba. Both private (Morrison, 1974) and public (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1975) pronouncements have shown the interest and importance of the Cuban market for U.S. rice.

The Caribbean import market is partially governed by the Caribbean Rice Agreement, which ties many of the principal importing countries to Guyana for 50 percent of their imports until all of Guyana's exportable surplus is marketed (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1972). Hence if Latin American exporters are to significantly increase their level of exports in the future, markets outside the Western Hemisphere will have to be sought in Europe, Africa and perhaps Asia.

Data on world trade flows in rice are difficult to obtain and assemble. Table 6 presents such data for one year only, 1970. First, the relative insignificance of Latin

Table 5. The five major rice-importing and exporting countries in Latin America: selected years.

Ranking	Importers						Exporters					
	1950	Vol.*	1960	Vol.	1974	Vol.	1950	Vol.	1960	Vol.	1974	Vol.
1	Cuba	- 293	Cuba	- 160	Cuba	- 220	Brazil	95	Guyana	65	Uruguay	73
2	Other Caribbean	- 54	Other Caribbean	- 87	Other Caribbean	- 160	Ecuador	62	Ecuador	27	Guyana	71
3	Venezuela	- 28	Bolivia	- 8	Peru	- 104	Guyana	30	Surinam	23	Argentina	48
4	Bolivia	- 8	Venezuela	- 4	Mexico	- 100	Mexico	28	Uruguay	6	Surinam	35
5	Costa Rica	- 2	El Salvador	- 3	Chile	- 22	Chile	12	Argentina	5	Venezuela	30

* Milled rice, '000 m.t.

7

America in world trade is evident; this suggests that changes in Latin American exports would have no influence on world prices; the region is a "price-taker." Of the total Latin American exports of 375,000 m.t., only 25 percent went to other Latin American countries. Africa and the EEC were important markets for South American exporters. Even if South America could capture all of the Caribbean market in the future, it must continue to look toward Europe and Africa for any expansion in export markets. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (1971, p. 67) projected a growing import demand to 1980 in both these regions. Blackeslee et al. (1973, p. 314) also predict growing import demands in Africa, Eastern Europe and the USSR until the year 2000.

Table 6. World rice flows with emphasis on Latin America (1970).

Importers	Exported by						Total
	South America	Latin America	USA	Asia	EEC	Others	
	('000 m.t.)						
Mexico					16		16
Central America	1	1	1			2	4
Caribbean	75	75	32	130		9	246
South America	17	17	11			11	39
Latin America	93	93	44	130	16	22	305
U.S.A.	1	1					1
Canada	8	8	53	1			62
EEC	87	87	104	16	77	37	321
Other W. Europe	41	41	82	49	51	33	256
Eastern Europe	17	17		81	15	108	221
U.S.S.R.	7	7		44		330	381
Asia	25	25	1,232	2,951	128	299	4,633
Africa	83	83	161	318	133	175	870
Oceania			13	8	3	56	80
Others	13	13	6	11	19	106	155
Total	375	375	1,695	3,609	440	1,166	7,285

Source: Adapted from U.S. Department of Agriculture (1972)

Instability in the world price of rice will continue to characterize export markets in the absence of any global stockholding scheme. Only a very small percentage (generally less than 5 percent) of world rice production is traded, and most of this is within the Asian region. Both major exporters and importers are located in the same monsoonal belt. Poor seasonal conditions, therefore, simultaneously reduce export surpluses and raise import demands, the reverse occurring in good seasons; price instability is in part a consequence of this phenomenon. In addition, a large proportion of world trade in rice is based on concessional sales and government-to-government contracts. Hence a fairly thin market in freely traded rice exists, and this has to absorb the residual excesses of demand and supply, resulting in sharp sawings in world export prices. The rapidity and magnitude of changes in the world rice situation is reflected in the fact that by July 1, 1976 world stocks are expected to be 30 percent higher than a year before and will have returned to the levels prevailing before the monsoon failure in 1972 (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1975c, p. 3).

A formal projection model used by the U.S. Department of Agriculture* (1971) concluded that in general the outlook for rice to 1980 was poor, with continued downward pressure on world prices to be expected. The World Bank (1975) has predicted rice prices (Bangkok, f.o.b., 5 percent broken grain) of \$(US) 240/m.t. (in 1973 dollars) for 1980 and 1985, down 31 percent on 1973 prices, although still well above the level of the 1960's. The difficulties in making such market price projections are notorious. Efferson (1971) writing in 1971 predicted prices of \$(US) 100-140 for Latin American rice exports up until 1976; by 1974, exporters were receiving \$(US) 333 per ton.

*The U.S. Department of Agriculture is presently further developing a global model of rice production, disappearance, prices and trade (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1975a).

3. IMPACT OF HYV's ON RICE PRODUCTION IN LATIN AMERICA

3.1 Area sown to HYV's

In 1975, CIAT conducted a postal survey of Latin American countries in an endeavor to provide up-to-date information on the sowings and yields of HYV's in the region. This effort was only partially successful, and the data have been supplemented with other sources as indicated. Only those countries for which data was available are listed in Table 7, which shows the estimated HYV area in 1974.

3.2 Contribution of HYV's to output*

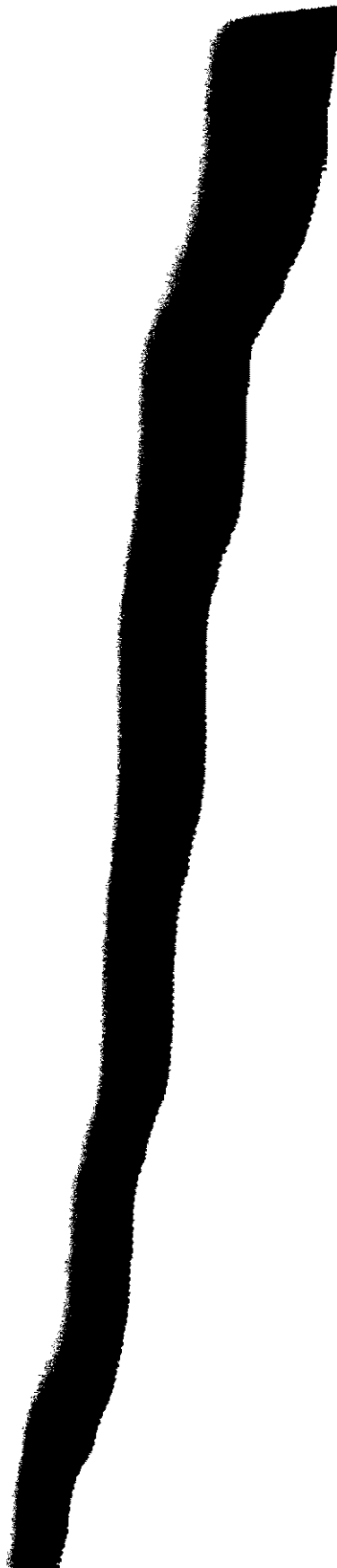
The data in Table 7 were used as a basis for estimating the contribution** of HYV's in 1974 (Table 8). The traditional yields were based on the regional averages for 1950-1964, a period prior to the introduction of HYV's. The irrigated sector of Colombia is included to illustrate the potential impact when adoption is widespread. For Latin America (excluding Brazil), 1974 rice production was estimated to be 40.3 percent higher than it would have been in the absence of HYV's. If Brazil is included, the corresponding figure is 14.5 percent. This result compares most favorably with the estimate of 4.9 percent for Asian rice in 1972-1973 (Dalrymple, 1975, p. 35) and should help dispel the not uncommon impression that the impact of HYV's of rice has been largely an Asian phenomenon.***

Two additional comments are in order. The yield superiority attributed to HYV's

*The authors acknowledge the close cooperation of Dana G. Dalrymple in obtaining the information in this section.

**The method used follows Dalrymple (1975).

***Pearse (1975) states that "rice is the second cereal in total production in Latin America, but there have been few attempts to introduce IRR1 seeds. . . in Latin America. . . little progress has been made in promoting the use of HYV's."



th HYV's in Latin America* (1974).

Area (ha)	Source
108,420	CIAT survey, 1975
145,600	Dalrymple, 1976
10,000	Dalrymple, 1974
264,020	
2,200	CIAT survey, 1975
11,130	CIAT survey, 1975
20,700	Dalrymple, 1976
64,173	CIAT survey, 1975
5,100	CIAT survey, 1975
165,303	
270,221	
38,237	CIAT survey, 1973
40,000	Dalrymple, 1974
61,900	Dalrymple, 1976
28,130	CIAT survey, 1975
438,488	
807,811	

which data was obtainable. It is understood that no HYV's

the fact that they have been sown on superior land
 tary inputs. Of course, in the absence of improved
 rior land and higher input levels may not have been
 f the percentage contribution of HYV's (Table 8) is
 regional areas and outputs have been included in
 for the reporting countries is included. Provided the
 lar yield margins, then the additional production
 were the total HYV area known.

Table 8. Estimated contribution to HYV's in Latin America, excluding Brazil; by regions (1974).

Item	Mexico and Caribbean	Central America	South America	Colombia (irrigated)	Latin America (Excluding Brazil)
1. Total area ('000 ha)	452.0	257.1	1,088.0	273.0	1,797.0
2. Total production ('000 m.t.)	1,022.0	472.2	3,647.1	1,420.1	5,141.4
3. Yield (tons/ha)	2.261	1.837	3.352	5.203	2.861
4. HYV area ('000 ha)	264.0	105.3	438.5	270.2	807.8
5. Traditional area ('000 ha)	188.0	151.8	649.5	2.7	989.2
6. Traditional yield (tons/ha)	1.779	1.284	2.399	3.100	2.040
7. Traditional prod. ('000 m.t.)	334.5	194.9	1,558.2	8.4	2,018.0
8. HYV production ('000 m.t.)	687.5	277.3	2,088.9	1,411.7	2,123.4
9. HYV yield (tons/ha)	2.604	2.622	4.764	5.225	2.667

COLOMBIA: SOME ECONOMIC ASPECTS

Colombia for almost 400 years and today is one of the major rice producing countries. Outside of Asia, Colombia ranked fifth in world rice production. In Asia, it ranked twentieth (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1974). Rice was the single most important source of calories in the diet, providing 13.6 percent of the calorific intake, or 286 calories per person per day. It was the second most important source of protein, providing 11.2 percent of the protein intake, or 6.3 g per person per day (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1974).

This report traces the total development of the Colombian rice industry. The report contains a wealth of information. Historical aspects are covered by Jennings (1961), the technical aspects by Rosero and Jennings (1975), economic and institutional aspects by Rosero (1967), and finally a broad range of information by López (1966). The present report cannot cite all the material documented in these references, and the reader is advised to consult them.

The rice program began in 1957, with a national rice program initiated by the government and the cooperation of the Rockefeller Foundation.

The variety Bluebonnet-50 was extensively grown; but in 1960 a disease, "hoja blanca," causing extensive losses. The program was then directed with a primary objective of selection for resistance

See Hartford (1976) and Rosero (1974).

1, another U.S. variety showing some resistance

ected Napal for release (see Figure 1), a cross
net-50 and a selection (Palmira 105) for resistance.
susceptibility to rice blast disease in an attack in
riety with partial resistance, was released in 1965.

ce Program of CIAT joined in a collaborative effort
d dwarf lines from IRRI were introduced into the
was released, which was resistant to hoja blanca,
v. IR-22 was recommended in 1970. Two additional
e never widely grown due to their lower yields com-

program released their first variety, CICA-4, which
ad better grain quality. This variety was followed
nt six advanced lines* (see Figure 1) are undergoing
and release of a further variety. In the regional tests
roughout Colombia in the first semester of 1975,
a, compared with 5.8 tons/ha for the dwarf varieties
e principal problem facing the breeding program is
us readily adapts; and one or two years after planting,
release become susceptible. The present strategy is to
or two years; a longer term strategy is the incorpora-
e varieties incorporating a number of sources of
y.

portant characteristics of the varieties, and Table 10
in Colombia based on the seed sales of FEDEARROZ,
d seed. The introduction of the dwarfs has been
replacing the previously predominant Bluebonnet-50.
made: first, much of the new material has been
rather than locally developed; the remainder (Napal
, based on imported lines. This serves to underline
technology transfer, combined with strong national
fusion (Evenson, 1976). Second, Colombian rice
ence with varietal changes; the introduction of
usual problems of adoption, an aspect generally
development and introduction of new agricultural
pread adoption of dwarf rices was, of course, largely
responsiveness to higher input levels and improved
ca.

rice research and the use of new varieties would be
o the role of FEDEARROZ. With its strong network

these lines in regional trials, see Rosero (1975).



Table 9. Percentage distribution of varieties in Colombia (1964-1974).

Year	Blue- bonnet-50 (%)	Napal (%)	Tapuripa (%)	ICA-10 (%)	Dwarfs			Others (%)
					IR-8 (%)	IR-22 (%)	CICA-4 (%)	
1964	87	5	—	—	—	—	—	8
1965	87	5	—	—	—	—	—	8
1966	90	—	—	—	—	—	—	10
1967	80	—	7	—	—	—	—	13
1968	53	—	42	—	—	—	—	5
1969	50	—	36	1	5	—	—	8

Blue Belle	Tall	S	S	S	EX	EX	EX	Long
Tapuripa	Tall	MR	S	S	Poor	EX	Good	Long
IR-8	DWF	S	R	S	Poor	Good	V. Poor	Long
IR-22	DWF	S	MS	R	EX	Good	EX	Long
CICA-4	DWF	S	R	R	EX	EX	Fair	Long
CICA-6	DWF	MR	R	R	EX	Good	Good	Long

1 Dwarfs (DWF) have a higher grain/straw ratio.

2 S = susceptible, R = resistance, M = moderately

3 Poor milling quality is due to high proportion of grains splitting crosswise.

4 Cooking quality is poor when there is a low amylose content, resulting in "sticky" product (characteristic of Japonica varieties).

5 Because of the presence of "white belly," a characteristic which, although totally unrelated to cooking properties, is difficult to remove through breeding and has been a source of consumer bias, as well as lower prices for IR-8, especially.

of advisory services, input sales, training courses, public data gathering services and collaboration with the National regional testing, FEDEARROZ has been an important part of the Colombian rice industry.

4.3 Production and disappearance

The basic data on area, production and yields for 1975 are given in Table 11. Colombia produces rice under three types (n. 1, p. 221):

1. In leveled fields with controlled water supply (the irrigated sector)
2. Swamp rice planted on river banks and "irrigated" by the river
3. Upland rice which depends on rainfall.

The classification used by FEDEARROZ (and the FAO) is based on the type of water supply (the first category, together with that part of the third category, is irrigated and the remainder is upland (the remainder)).

The upland sector is now relatively unimportant; in 1975, when 10% of production came from this sector, it produced only 1.5% of the total. This has in part been due to the introduction of new varieties. Since the first impact on yields was felt, the upland area started to be converted to irrigated culture gave a comparative advantage. Upland production with its static yields commenced to decline.

In the irrigated sector, where yields had averaged 3.0 tons/ha until 1970, due solely to higher yields. Since 1970, crop relative to irrigated alternatives, the irrigated area has increased. Total production more than doubled between 1970 and 1975. The average yield was 4.4 tons/ha. This was only 0.4 tons/ha above irrigated commercial checks in ICA's regional trial network. In 1975. This remarkable closeness of farm and experimental yields with the gap between potential and actual yields of the Philippines (Herdt and Wickham, 1975, p. 167).

Table 12 sets out a summary of the annual flows of rice in 1975. All are from FEDEARROZ (1975). The reliability of the data on trial use is probably questionable; certainly wide variations. Based on U.S. Agricultural Attaché reports, Gislason (1975) estimated human and industrial use in 1974, compared with 7.5 million m.t. closing stocks of 287,000 m.t. compared with the present. Rice is used for livestock feed, for beer and breadmaking. It is well known with any certainty. However, the important part of the

	1959	153,610	180,366	1,174	62,190	241,734	4,632	205,800	422,100	2,051	57	43
	1960	160,230	186,770	1,166	67,070	263,230	3,925	227,300	450,000	1,980	58	42
	1961	132,100	200,150	1,515	105,000	273,450	2,604	237,100	473,600	1,997	58	42
	1962	154,200	231,310	1,500	125,350	353,690	2,822	279,550	585,000	2,093	60	40
19	1963	138,600	206,000	1,486	115,400	344,000	2,981	254,000	550,000	2,165	62	38
	1964	178,300	215,000	1,206	124,200	385,000	3,100	302,500	600,000	1,983	64	36
	1965	244,750	275,600	1,126	130,000	396,400	3,049	374,750	672,000	1,793	59	41
	1966	236,000	338,600	1,435	114,000	341,400	2,995	350,000	680,000	1,943	50	50
	1967	180,850	280,500	1,551	109,850	381,000	3,468	290,700	681,500	2,276	58	42
	1968	150,200	250,600	1,668	126,925	535,000	4,221	277,125	786,300	2,837	68	32
	1969	134,570	220,275	1,637	115,890	474,225	4,092	250,460	694,500	2,773	68	32
	1970	121,113	198,248	1,637	112,100	554,347	4,945	233,213	752,595	3,220	74	26
	1971	109,130	173,696	1,590	144,380	730,652	5,061	253,510	904,348	3,567	81	19
	1972	103,220	160,524	1,555	170,620	882,724	5,174	273,840	1,043,284	3,810	85	15
	1973	98,840	154,769	1,556	192,020	1,021,102	5,318	290,860	1,175,871	4,043	87	13
	1974	95,600	149,830	1,570	272,950	1,420,110	5,200	368,550	1,569,940	4,260	90	10
	1975	95,000	152,000	1,600	273,650	1,480,100	5,408	368,650	1,632,100	4,427	91	9

* Data for the breakdown between the irrigated and upland sectors for 1955-1962 were estimated on the basis of state data. For the remaining years, data are from FEDEARROZ, except 1975, which were estimates by the Oficina de Planeación del Sector Agropecuario, Ministerio de Agricultura.

have been no imports and virtually no exports¹ in the 1970s. Outside of some recent rises in stocks, all of the expansion has been consumed on the domestic market; whether this consumption is in bread, beer, pork, poultry or eggs, need not concern us.

4.4 Regional shifts in production³

In the last forty years, the regional pattern of rice production has changed markedly. The production of upland and swamp rice to serve the major consumption centers of Barranquilla, Cartagena and Medellín represented over 50 percent of Colombian output in 1950. With the decline in importance of upland rice, production became concentrated in the middle Magdalena Valley; the states of Huila and Tolima represented 60 percent of the national output in 1974. With greater use of machinery, mechanization has spread rapidly in the Llanos, and the state of Meta has become an important area in Colombia (Figure 2). The Cauca Valley has become more important as the area of sugar cane has expanded. In 1974, 40 percent of the country was in the Cauca Valley (Lourquin, 1967). The shift toward greater regional specialization were already apparent in the 1950s; it is probable these have been reinforced by the expansion of HYV's; it has increased the comparative advantage of the irrigated area and consequent decline in upland production.

4.5 Prices

Nominal and real prices for rice in Colombia are shown in Figure 3. These prices are affected so greatly by inflation that attention must be paid to real prices. Farm prices averaged \$1,437 per ton⁴ in 1965-1970-1974, a fall of 28 percent during the period of significant inflation.

¹ The question of exports in 1974 is far from clear. A land dispute in the Llanos cutting off a major rice-producing area from the Bogotá region was reported to Venezuela during this period. The official export figures show 1,000 tons of rice exported in 1974. The U.S. Department of Agriculture reports 176,000 tons of exports in 1974 and alternatively no exports in 1975 (Lourquin, 1975c, p. 5).

² When considering the distribution of benefits of the expansion of rice production, the form in which rice is consumed is of obvious importance. Rice has been used and entered the market as high-income livestock products, the distribution of which fits would be markedly affected. However, while sketchy, the total amount used outside direct human consumption is small. The total figure of 64,000 tons (net of seed) and the Ministerio de Agricultura reports 81,000 tons.

³ Lourquin (1967) presents a detailed analysis of historical changes in the geographical pattern of rice production.

⁴ All monetary data in this report are in Colombian pesos.

Figure 2. Regional distribution of rice production by principal states: selected years.

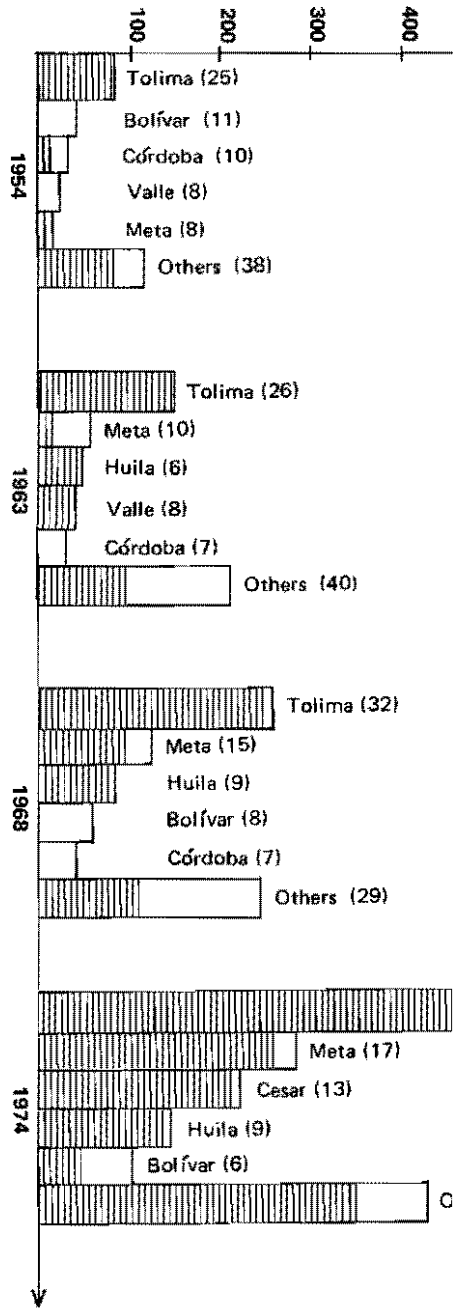


Table 12. Production and disappearance of milled rice: Colombia (1962-1974).

Year	Production*	Beginning stocks	Total available	Human consumption*	Exports*	Seed*	Industrial* use	Total used	Ending stocks
('000 m.t.)									
1962	356	50*	406	309	6	20	—	335	71
1963	333	71	404	374	3	19	—	396	8
1964	369	8	377	344	—	21	—	365	12
1965	414	12	426	380	—	22	—	402	24
1966	416	24	440	406	—	20	—	426	14
1967	414	14	428	404	—	17	—	421	7
1968	511	7	511	439	—	17	—	456	62
1969	436	62	498	453	21	16	—	490	8
1970	474	8	482	478	5	14	—	497	(—15)

	Atlántico, Sucre, Cesar, Magdalena*	52	28	32	17	31	27
Eastern Llanos	Caquetá, Meta	5	6	9	14	21	17
Middle Magdalena Valley	Huila, Tolima, Cundinamarca, Caldas, Quindío, Risaralda**	11	35	30	40	35	40
Cauca Valley	Cauca, Valle	13	15	10	10	6	3
Other areas	--	19	16	19	19	7	13
Total	20	100	100	100	100	100	100

* Bolívar, Córdoba and Magdalena were divided to create the new states of Sucre and Cesar included in 1967 and 1974.

** Caldas was divided to create Quindío and Risaralda included in 1967 and 1974.

Sources: 1934, 1949 and 1963 are from Leurquin (1967); 1959, 1967 and 1974 are from unpublished data of FEDEARROZ

Table 14. Colombian rice prices (1950-1974).

Year	Nominal prices			
	Farm ³	Wholesale ⁴	Retail ⁴	Farm
	(\$/m.t)			
1950	350	976	1,020	1,207
1951	465	944	1,060	1,453
1952	345	728	920	1,113
1953	400	1,128	1,240	1,176
1954	470	1,032	1,160	1,270
1955	475	928	1,160	1,284
1956	485	1,048	1,190	1,244
1957	615	1,472	1,700	1,337
1958	750	1,480	1,800	1,471
1959	770	1,468	1,720	1,375
1960	883	1,936	2,180	1,497
1961	954	1,864	2,360	1,490
1962	919	1,728	2,360	1,372
1963	1,040	2,232	2,569	1,321
1964	1,347	2,928	3,480	1,347
1965	1,703	3,616	4,120	1,592
1966	1,884	3,824	4,460	1,507
1967	1,914	3,248	4,400	1,418
1968	2,106	4,032	4,520	1,452
1969	1,887	3,744	4,460	1,217
1970	1,850	4,200	4,500	1,121
1971	1,931	4,272	5,060	1,044
1972	1,884	4,408	5,260	893
1973	2,514	7,080	8,000	978
1974	3,694	8,960	10,660	1,151

1 Deflated by the price index given in the last column

2 Based on the price index for workers for 1954-1974 and linked to total price index for 1950

3 Paddy rice prices from Boletín Mensual de Estadística No. 277, DANE, p.53

4 Source: December price for 1st grade rice in Bogotá, Banco de la República (unpublished)

The retail price of first grade rice in Bogotá fell from \$3.48 per ton in 1964 to \$3.00 per ton in 1974, a decline of 14 percent over the same period.*

A frequent source of confusion is the apparent inconsistency between the decline in the retail price and expanded rice production. If the farm price fell, why did rice output continue to rise so strongly? The simple answer is that with improved technology, rice production costs per ton fell, making rice production profitable even at the lower prices. Based on data from Gislaso, the cost of irrigated rice production in 1964 pesos was \$1,494 per ton, and \$976 per ton, for 1961-1964, 1965-1969 and 1970-1974.

*A detailed examination of the marketing margins is made in O...

real production costs per ton fell by 30 percent at exactly the same amount as the fall in the farm prices of new technology in the face of falling farm prices is widely documented. Cochrane (1958, pp.106-107) notes that the farmer "reasons 'I can't influence my own costs. I can get my costs down . . . thus the incentive for new cost-reducing technologies. Built into agriculture, then, is a powerful incentive for adoption. In peacetime tendency for aggregate supply to outpace demand, prices relatively low." Cochrane refers to this as the "Ve have no reason to doubt that a similar effect has been observed in the Indian rice industry. Early adopters (be they larger, more skilled farmers) test cost-reducing (i.e., yield-increasing) technologies initially has little effect on price, thus reducing real profits. Further adoption is then stimulated; but as prices fall, so that the remaining nonadopters are forced to exit the market. The data in Table 9 are dramatic evidence of the effect in Colombia's irrigated sector.

Prices of rice fall as a result of the new varieties, but rice also becomes a more expensive major food item (Table 15). For example, in 1959, a household purchased 1.67 kg of rice; but by 1974, it purchased 3.47 kg of rice, corresponding to the major impact of the HYV's, saw a sharp increase in the relative price of rice (Figure 3). Before had been no clear change in the relative price of rice, but in the final period (1970-1974), rice became 45 percent more expensive than other commodities.

Table 9. Rice that could be purchased with one kilogram of other selected commodities in the wholesale market: selected years.

Years	Kg of rice purchased with 1 kg of			
	Cassava	Maize	Potatoes	Beef
1967	0.31	0.49	0.63	1.43
1969	0.29	0.41	0.45	2.60
1969	0.16	0.36	0.37	2.18
1982	0.34	0.36	0.37	1.88
1983	0.48	0.45	0.29	2.64
1987	0.79	0.51	0.55	2.95
% change	-65%	-13%	-90%	-12%

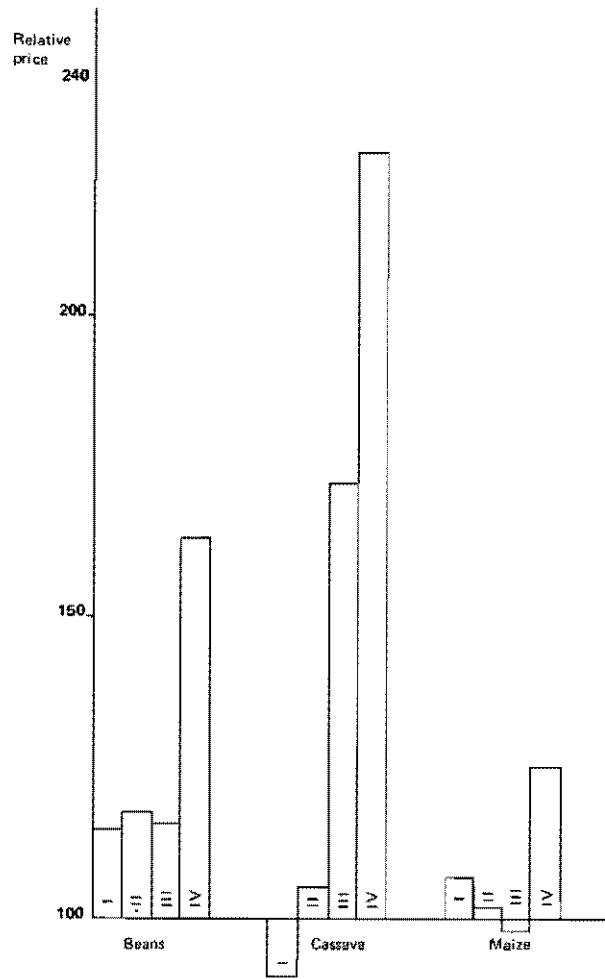


Figure 3. Changes in the relative price of five commodities to 1950-1954 (1950-1954 = 100).

The increased proportion of new varieties, some with qualities than the traditional variety (Bluebonnet-50), has affected the market of the various grades of rice entering the market. While quantities are available, Table 16 shows that first grade rice is more expensive relative to second and third grade rice; in the period 1970-1974 the change has been most marked in the period 1970-1974.

4.6 Government price support scheme

Since 1944, the Government has operated a price support scheme initially through the Instituto Nacional de Abastecimiento Agrario and through its successor, the Instituto de Mercadeo Agrario.

grade: Bogotá wholesale market (selected years).

Price of first grade rice relative to	
Second grade	Third grade
1.07	1.32
1.04	1.57
1.02	1.66
1.04	1.73
1.11	1.79

other years, for December.

ísticas, DANE (various issues).

parate support prices based on the type of rice, purities. The maximum and minimum prices are 1964 pesos, together with the average price paid used. The stated role of IDEMA has been to stabilize though it is doubtful whether it has had either "the age capacity to influence price levels significantly" Pérez and Hertford (1974, p.23) estimated that IDEMA's actions reduced the coefficient of variation

rice (1965-1974).

Minimum	Av prices paid by IDEMA**	Av farm price***
	(\$/m.t.)	(\$/m.t.)
692	n.a.	1,592
932	1,115	1,507
1,048	1,536	1,418
903	1,246	1,452
742	1,029	1,217
751	963	1,121
670	790	1,044
588	842	893
440	n.a.	978
704	1,097	1,151

la supplied by the Unidad de Estadística,

of farm prices by 13 percent although simultaneously to slightly lower due to state intervention. The data in Table 18 shows that the price paid by IDEMA was generally lower than the average farm price. This orientation of IDEMA to the low-income consumer, by favoring rice.

Table 18 shows various measures of the intensity of IDEMA's purchases in the rice market. Between 1950 and 1965, IDEMA purchased 2 percent of the rice crop, averaging 2 percent per year (Gutierrez, p. 11). Since 1965, the purchases have been increased, and the funds invested by IDEMA in rice has grown (Table 18). Between 1970-1974 IDEMA purchased an average of 10 percent of the rice crop. The price paid by IDEMA during 1966-1969 and 1970-1974 was 13 percent of the average farm price in both periods. This suggests that IDEMA's purchasing strategy in terms of the quality of rice is the introduction of HYV's.

Table 18 also gives the percentage of IDEMA's purchases in the irrigated sector, together with the proportion of the national rice production in that sector. If IDEMA were to be following a neutral purchasing policy, its source of purchases (rather than say favoring smaller producers for political reasons, favoring the larger irrigated producers) would be in proportion to IDEMA's purchases to follow the observed national trend of output. In fact, a Chi-square test provided no evidence to reject the hypothesis that IDEMA was in fact merely shifting its purchases from the irrigated and upland sectors to the irrigated sector. If IDEMA has no deliberate policy of favoring one sector or another, then we would expect the proportion of its purchases to have come from the upland sector, which is comparatively disadvantaged due to the introduction of HYV's.

4.7 Credit

Limited data on the public sources of credit available to farmers (Table 19) indicate that there was no apparent rise in the real interest rate per hectare made available publicly during the period of adoption of HYV's.

4.8 Chemical inputs

Attempts to examine whether the use of chemical inputs has increased with the introduction of HYV's meet with severe limitations due to the available data (Table 20) for fertilizers, while incomplete for pesticides. The total quantity applied, implying a perhaps surprising increase in the use of fertilizer per ton of total rice production in 1971 to 1974.

A very crude approximation to the input of herbicides suggested that their use per unit of rice production

29	1968	8.9	7.6	87.2	73	68
	1969	20.6	17.6	148.9	76	68
	1970	8.1	6.9	58.6	87	74
	1971	14.2	10.7	101.4	89	81
	1972	12.7	9.1	84.6	90	85
	1973	3.6	n.a.	n.a.	81	87
	1974	9.9	9.7	175.6	92	91

-
- 1 Calculated as (average price paid by IDEMA x quantity purchased by IDEMA) / (average farm price x national output)
 2 In 1964 pesos
 3 Based on unpublished state data supplied by the Unidad de Estadística, Oficina de Planeación, IDEMA
 4 From Table 11

Table 19. Public credit* for rice production (1968-1974).

Year	Credit for rice production	
	Caja Agraria	FFA**
		(\$m)
1968	161	108
1969	161	87
1970	179	72
1971	197	81
1972	176	111
1973	114	157
1974	183	229

* Expressed in 1964 pesos

** Fondo Financiero Agrario

1965-1967 and 1971-1973, suggesting that the increase was accompanied by some intensified use of these products.

The standard commentaries on the green revolution that improved genetic potential of seed is only expressed when applied as a "package" with high levels of chemical control). Sketchy as they are, the Colombian data do support to this notion, at least in the case of chemical applications were constant* during a period of rapid HYV's (implying a lower fertilizer use per unit of output and other chemical products per unit of output rose very

4.9 Labor usage

In Table 21, an estimate of the total labor usage. In the period since the introduction of new varieties, labor usage has apparently declined by 33 percent. The advantage a comparative advantage to mechanized irrigated rice production. However, it is almost certain that labor in the and distribution sector rose as a result of the large irrigation, the expanded demand for farm inputs would have required labor for their provision, especially where the production

Finally, there are two indirect effects of expanded

* Fertilizer prices rose during this period, which undoubtedly reduced their use and perhaps a slower increase in yields than would have been constant.

rice production (1965-1974).

Insecticidas	Herbicidas	Fungicidas
('000 liters or kg of active ingredient)		
547	424	19
954	740	38
962	680	25
1,344	457	103
1,430	374	120
1,550	394	129
1,773	400	144
1,673	675	270
2,304	960	384
n.a.	1,082	303

products for 1972-1974 from the Ministerio de
; the remaining data from ICA (1973)

due to increased incomes of rice producers, their
service increases. Secondly, if the price of rice is low
pressure for increased industrial wages is diminished
(. This has the effect of cheapening the cost of
and hence stimulating the demand for labor in the
of this effect depends on the proportion of total
ce. These data for five major Colombian cities
cate that especially among the lower income
part of the total household expenditures. Between
n the industrial sector rose by 104 percent while

Colombian rice production: selected years.

Sector		Total
*	Upland**	
('000 man-days)		
	9,976	12,918
	14,593	16,420
	23,251	27,801
	12,919	16,975
	9,120	18,698

terio de Agricultura, 1973, p.30)
terio de Agricultura, 1973, p. 30)

Table 22. Proportion of household expenditures spent on rice in Colombian cities (1970).

City	Income level (\$)		
	0-18	18-42	42-72
			(%)
Bogotá	3.0	2.1	1.5
Cali	5.1	4.0	2.5
Bucaramanga	2.3	1.7	1.0
Barranquilla	5.2	4.3	3.6
Pasto	4.8	3.6	2.2

Source: DANE: Boletín Mensual de Estadísticas No. 264-265

the retail price of first grade rice in Bogotá rose only slightly as a wage good, rice represented a dampening effect on wages.

In conclusion, despite the apparent decline in on-farm labor usage, it would be presumptuous to conclude that HYV's caused a technological change. Indirect expansion of the demand for labor due to the large increases in rice production due to HYV's caused an increase in on-farm labor usage.

4.10 Distribution of rice farms, area and production

In this section we present a review of the structure of rice production by farm size categories and indicate how this has changed over time. The principal purpose of this somewhat detailed section is to show the distribution of rice production by farm size for both the upland and lowland areas in 1970. This information will be needed subsequently to analyze the distribution of costs and benefits of the new rice varieties.

The analysis is based on unpublished census data prepared for 1970 and on a special tabulation by DANE for 1959. Unfortunately no data exist for years subsequent to 1959. The effect of the introduction of HYV's on the structure of the rice sector cannot be assessed. However, some clear trends were apparent in 1970 and there is no reason to believe that the pattern of change observed in 1970 has not continued.

The census data for 1959 and 1970 were available to

“Irrigated,” on the basis of the percentage of the production. Fortunately, in almost all cases, these geopolitical boundaries are very closely to the two types of rice-production systems. The data are based on FEDEARROZ data for 1963 (the closest year for which state production data were available (Lourquin, 1970), presented in Appendix Table 2. The data show a high concentration of production in the irrigated sector by states. The only low value of concern is the production from the irrigated sector in Meta; this was classified the remaining 43 percent upland as irrigated

is the 1970 figure of 57 percent of production from the irrigated sector. This implies we have incorrectly classified the remaining 43 percent of production.

For 1970, Appendix Tables 3, 4 and 5 were constructed. The data for 1966 are shown in Appendix Table 6. The breakdown by states was not available. The 1959 and 1966 data reported rice as the principal crop, whereas the 1970 data reported rice as the principal crop on irrigating farms.

One feature revealed by these data is the concentration of rice production on large farms. In 1959, farms of greater than 100 ha represented 15 percent of the farms producing rice as the principal crop, yet they sowed 53 percent of the area. In 1966, 32 percent of the farms were over 50 ha, and they produced 42 percent of the total rice output, 42 percent coming from farms

There has been some tendency for the concentration of rice production to shift from small- and medium-size groups declining relative to the large farms (50 ha and over). This trend was particularly marked in the irrigated sector. Farms over 50 ha accounted for 59 percent of all farms producing rice as the principal crop in 1959 and 50 percent in 1970 (Table 24). The distribution of farm size are shown for 1966 in Appendix Table 6; the 1959 and 1970 data are in parentheses, except for the largest size group (over 500 ha) which has higher yields.

Production has become more concentrated in the larger farms. The number of large farms declined substantially between 1959 and 1970. In the upland sector and evenly distributed across the irrigated sector, the number of small and medium producers declined, while the number of large producers increased. In 1970, the number of large farms produced 74 percent of the national production.

For estimating the distribution of production in 1970 by the irrigated and upland sectors.

For estimating the number of farms in each time period (the data not in parentheses). A constant annual rate

Table 23. Percentage distribution of rice farms by three categories (selected years).

Size group (ha)	1959
Small (0-5)	30
Medium (5-50)	43
Large (50 +)	27
Total	100

of change between 1959 and 1970 was assumed and the number of producers for 1966 estimated as 35,721. The relationship between the number of producers for 1959 and 1970 was assumed to be the same as the relationship between the number of the total irrigated and upland producers for 1959 and 1970 on the basis of the known proportions of principal producers.

For the upland sector the area sown by the *i*-th size group in 1970 was estimated based on the area sown in 1959 ($A_{59,i}$) adjusting upward for the increase in principal producers in 1959 and downward for the decline in upland producers.

This method assumes that changes in area were proportional to changes in the number of producers, an assumption supported by the evidence in Table 25. The distribution of area for nonprincipal growers was similar in 1959 and 1970 (as supported by Appendix Table 8, where the inclusion of nonprincipal growers does not alter the distribution significantly).

Table 24. Percentage distribution of farms where rice is the principal crop, by farm size, by sector: Colombia (selected years).

Size group (ha)	Upland sector	
	1959	1970
Small (0-5)	32	31
Medium (5-50)	44	42
Large (50 +)	24	27
Total	100	100

*As shown in Appendix Table 8, the size distribution for principal producers differed very little from that for the two end periods (1959 and 1970).

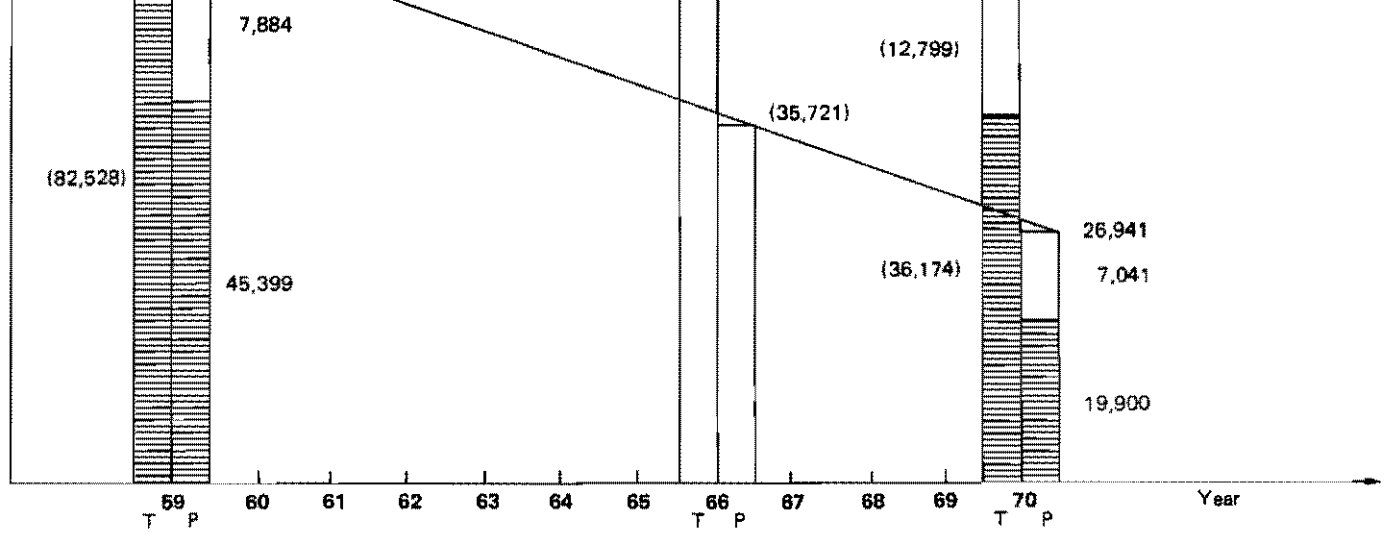


Figure 4. Number of rice farms in Colombia in selected years.

Table 25. Changes in the number of farms between 1959 and 1970 in three categories of farm size, by sector: Colombia.

Size group (ha)	Upland sector		
	No.	{ ⁰ /o}	No.
Small (0-5)	- 7,738	- 55	- 60
Medium (5-50)	- 11,885	- 59	- 79
Large (50 +)	- 5,876	- 52	+ 56
Total	- 25,499	- 56	- 84

For the irrigated sector the above method could not be used.

1. The area reported by principal growers exceeded the total area of the irrigated sector for that year.
2. The change in total area was not evenly distributed among the size groups (Table 25).

The following procedure was therefore adopted:

1. The reported number of farms in each size group in 1959 was multiplied by the ratio of 14,332/7,884 (see Figure 4), giving $NF_{59,i}$.
2. The reported area sown in each size group in 1959 was multiplied by the ratio 52,190/86,078, or the reported total to the reported total for the irrigated sector, to give $A_{59,i}$.
3. The area per farm ($A_{59,i}/NF_{59,i}$) in 1959 was then multiplied by the number of farms in each size group in 1970 and multiplied by the number of farms in each size group in 1970. Each of these was then raised by the ratio of the reported total in the irrigated sector to the estimated total ($\sum_i A_{70,i}$). The estimated total for 1970 by size groups were compared with the reported data for 1966 (Appendix Table 9) and showed the expected concentration among the larger size groups. A number of principal producers in each size group were identified from the reported data for 1959.

Finally, the average reported yields in both sectors were multiplied by the estimated areas by size group, to give the distribution of yields by size for each sector in 1970 (Tables 26 and 27). It is expected that this will subsequently be used to allocate the distribution of yields by farm size.

s 26 and 27 is summarized graphically in Figure 5. The
 tion of output in the irrigated compared to the upland
 that year, it is estimated that the lower 50 percent of
 25 percent of the upland output; in contrast, only 9
 ut came from the lower 50 percent of irrigated farms.
 ns for the distributional impact of the benefits of the
 Chapter 7.

re reiterated that the structural changes noted in rice
 prior to any possible significant influence of HYV's. The
 ve not been examined; such an inquiry would form a

of rice production by farm size: upland sector (1970).

of farms	Area (ha)	Prod. (m.t.)*
1,180	719	1,177
4,402	486	4,069
2,707	3,280	5,368
825	3,193	5,226
458	3,025	4,951
255	9,821	16,076
374	12,342	20,202
2,563	7,355	12,039
916	5,855	9,583
652	5,265	8,618
1,743	18,543	30,354
2,485	16,338	26,745
2,036	15,444	25,281
380	8,491	13,899
131	4,861	7,957
67	4,095	6,703
5,174**	121,113***	198,248***

of 1,637 kg/ha (Table 11)

Table 27. Estimated distribution of rice production by farm size

Farm size (ha)	No. of farms	Area (ha)
0 - 1	162	324
1 - 2	498	996
2 - 3	427	854
3 - 4	265	530
4 - 5	293	586
5 - 10	885	1,770
10 - 20	1,362	2,724
20 - 30	920	1,840
30 - 40	816	1,632
40 - 50	721	1,442
50 - 100	2,060	4,120
100 - 200	2,560	5,120
200 - 500	1,065	2,130
500 - 1,000	351	702
1,000 - 2,500	276	552
2,500 +	138	276
Totals	12,799**	112,100

* Assuming a constant av yield of 4,945 kg/ha (Table 11)

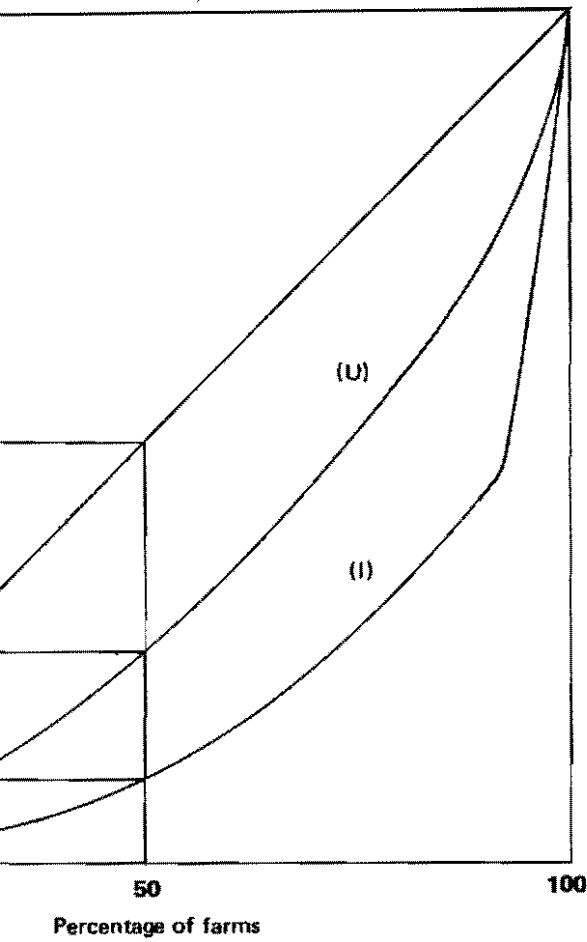
** From Figure 4

*** From Table 11

% of output

Upland (U)

Irrigated (I)



... output in Colombia by sector (1970).

5. AN ECONOMIC MODEL TO MEASURE THE SOCIAL RETURN ON RICE RESEARCH OF HYV's IN COLOMBIA

The desirability of investment in any particular line of research is usually judged using a wide variety of technical, social, economic, and political criteria. In this study, we propose to examine the impact of investment in rice research in Colombia using two criteria: efficiency and equity (Akin, 1974). To measure efficiency, we understand the social return on the scarce investment in rice research; i.e., was it a socially efficient way to invest the funds? To refer to the distribution of the net benefits by economic class, we will refer to equity.

There appears to be increasing concern on the part of the government and the share received by people in the lower income groups of the benefits derived from research at international centers. Given the dramatic increase in rice production in the Colombian rice sector, it was felt that efforts should be made to study the size and the distribution of the benefits of this technology. The government will devote more effort to the distribution of the net benefits of rice research, the magnitude only as a "by-product." An existing study (Akin, 1974) found that the investment in rice research in Colombia up until 1970 had a social return of between 60 and 80 percent, leaving little doubt that the investment was socially efficient.

We will consider three groups of people:

1. Upland rice producers
2. Irrigated rice producers
3. Rice consumers.

In measuring the incidence of the net benefits, we will calculate the net benefits for each group and subtract their share of the costs of the investment. This is a true indicator of the incidence of net benefits of rice research. The incidence is based on both the return and the costs borne by different groups. The incidence is only dividing the total gross benefits between producers and consumers.

pe (e.g., Ardila, 1973; Akino and Hayami, 1975;

producers into upland and irrigated categories because the relative benefits accruing to both groups from was developed specifically for irrigated culture. We for analyzing the differential impact of new agricul- to limited ecological adaptability, favor certain

a graphical representation of the model; this is statement. The model used is an extension of that (1972) for the case of cotton in the state of Sao involves dividing the total supply of Colombian rice produced under upland conditions (SUR) and that or (SIR), where

s (expressed as a function of the expected price of together with the supply curves S'IR and S'TR. The the irrigated sector when only traditional varieties ponding total supply, so that

displaced k percent to the left of SIR and STR, parameter, determined by the difference in yield eties and the proportion of the total area planted eters for SIR and STR are denoted k_I and k_T res-

y DR is a declining funtion of the current price of rice e supply of rice is postulated to depend on the previous

tant assumptions:

ombia is effectively closed; i.e., the foreign trade in rice, action of total production, is ignored.

et operates free from direct Government intervention; n 4.6) from 1950-1969, the proportion purchased by he assumption does more violence since 1970. Be- difference between the actual prices and quantities in ch would have resulted in the absence of Government

intervention have been estimated as 7 and 2.3 percent (Hertford, 1974).

3. Rice from both sectors is taken to be of identical quality.
4. The entire analysis will be conducted at the farm level. The calculation of benefits to consumers strictly requires the use of the consumer demand curve rather than the derived farm level demand curve. However, the marketing margin (the difference between farm and retail price) is assumed to be constant. No great violence is done. The problem of marketing margin is dealt in detail in a subsequent section.

In Figure 6, P_1 is the expected price which calls forth the quantity Q_1 that clear the market at a price of P_2 , while P_3 is the price that would prevail in the absence of sowings to HYV's.

First we consider only the total benefits (TB) and the net benefits to the development of the new rice varieties (in any case) by comparing the difference between total consumer utility of rice production, with and without the new varieties. In Figure 6, we can write

$$TB = (OABC - OAD) - (OEFC - OEG)$$

These total benefits are divided between changes in consumer surplus plus (ΔCS and ΔPS), so that

$$TB = \Delta CS + \Delta PS$$

$$\Delta CS = P_2 BC - P_3 FC = P_2 BFP_3$$

$$\Delta PS = (OABP_2 - OAD) - (OEF P_3 - OEG)$$

Equation (5.6) only gives the global change in producer surplus. To examine the impact on two groups of producers, we now write the change in upland and irrigated producer surplus (ΔUPS and ΔIPS) as

$$\Delta PS = \Delta UPS + \Delta IPS$$

$$\Delta UPS = -P_2 UVP_3$$

$$\Delta IPS = (OKJP_2 - OKH) - (OLNP_3 - OLR)$$

The loss in producer surplus in the upland sector, which took place, is simply the loss in gross revenue they suffered.

*Where possible we have maintained the same notation as Ayres (1974) for comparison.

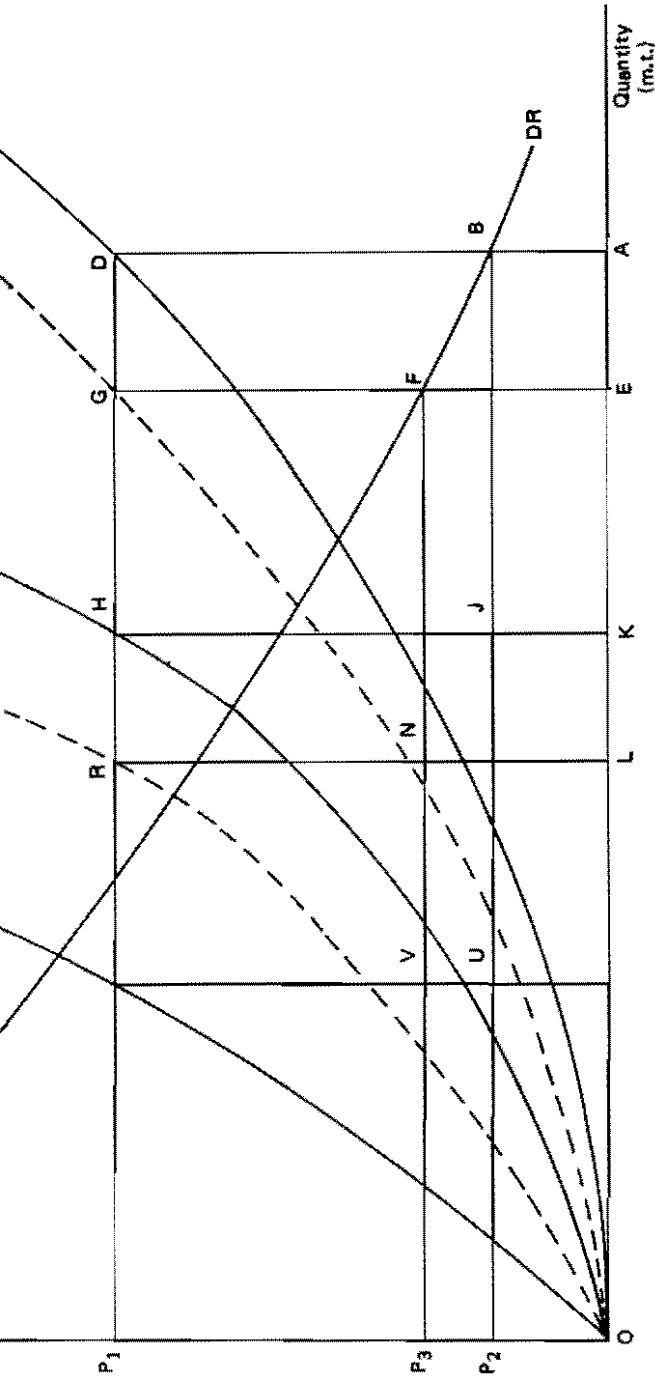


Figure 6. Graphical representation of the model for estimating the distribution of gross benefits from the introduction of HYV's of rice.

(P_3 instead of P_2^* which would have prevailed if the expansion had taken place in the irrigated sector). As the change in consumption can be noted that $P_2 UVP_3$ is simply a transfer from upland rice to lowland rice, i.e., of the benefits accruing to consumers; the part shown in Figure 5.1 is the expense of upland producers.

In summary, the consumers gained, some of this gain was transferred to upland producers; upland producers suffered a net loss, all of which was transferred to lowland producers. Whether or not irrigated producers had an overall gain will depend on the magnitudes of the supply and demand elasticities for rice.

5.2 Mathematical representation

The formal representation of the model in terms of the following set of equations is as follows:

$$DR: P_t = \alpha Q_{T,t}^{1/\eta}$$

$$SIR: Q_{I,t} = \beta P_{t-1}^\epsilon$$

$$SUR: Q_{U,t} = \gamma P_{t-1}^\epsilon$$

$$STR: Q_{T,t} = \delta P_{t-1}^\epsilon$$

$$S'IR: Q'_{I,t} = (1 - k_{I,t}) P_{t-1}^\epsilon$$

$$S'TR: Q'_{T,t} = (1 - k_{T,t}) P_{t-1}^\epsilon$$

with η and ϵ representing the demand and supply elasticities, respectively. The equations represent all the variables and parameters which affect supply and demand, implicitly included in the model.

Once we have established the magnitude of the supply and demand elasticities, we can derive (5.14) and (5.15) directly from SIR and STR and S'IR and S'TR equations (5.10) to (5.13) and eight unknowns: $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, k_{I,t}, k_{T,t}, \eta, \epsilon)$. In the following section we discuss the estimation of the

*Implicitly, we are assuming the elasticity of demand for rice is

parameter

taken the yield superiority of new varieties under experimental conditions (f),
proxy for their superiority under farm conditions (f),

$$Y_{T,t}^f \quad (5.16)$$

on arises simply because we generally lack farm level data (Y_{T,t}) for determining the yield superiority of the improved varieties (Y_{T,t}).

and Martin, 1965) that experimental yields are generally a result of the more timely control of the cultural practices given to small plots, etc. The implicit assumption that yields under experimental conditions might both overstate and understate the unknown farm level difference between the improved and traditional varieties (Kawano et al., 1974) is often reasonable to assume that the difference at the experimental level is more to fertilizer, water and superior cultural practices than the farm level differences. In the case of the Co-ordinated Agricultural Trials (CAT) based on a small number of observations suffer from experimental error which may not reflect overall farm

adopted an alternative approach. However, we first used regional trial data comparing improved and traditional varieties to unacceptable results.

$$(5.17)$$

area of improved varieties (taken together)

area of the traditional variety

and area.*

time subscript, t.

$$\frac{Q_I}{H_I + H_T} + \frac{Q_T}{H_I + H_T} = \frac{Q}{H}$$

$$\frac{Q_I}{H_I} \cdot \frac{H_I}{H_I + H_T} + \frac{Q_T}{H_T} \cdot \frac{H_T}{H_I + H_T} = \frac{Q}{H}$$

or, $Y_I \cdot P + Y_T \cdot (1-P) = Y$

where

P = proportion of the total area sown to improved variety

Y_I = average weighted yield of improved variety

Y_T = yield of the traditional variety

Y = overall observed yield.

If the experimental values for Y_I and Y_T are in fact ponding farm level values, we should be able to derive P [derived by rearranging (5.20)],

$$P_t = \frac{(Y_t - Y_{T,t}^e)}{(Y_{I,t}^e - Y_{T,t}^e)} \cdot 100$$

where:

Y_t = observed yield in irrigated sector

$Y_{I,t}^e, Y_{T,t}^e$ = yields of improved and traditional data of ICA.

The data and results are shown in Table 28.

As shown, only 6 of the 17 results for P_t fall in the results are either greater than 100 percent or negative. One of these data is when P_t is greater than 100 percent (a $Y_t > Y_{I,t}^e$; i.e., the observed yields are higher than the trials. As not all the observed yield is based on improved varieties, that the experimental data are understating the yields. If P_t is negative (also nonsensical), it is almost always the case

of the area sown to HYV's, based on experimental yields
 of traditional variety (1964-1974).

*	Experimental yields		Implied proportion sown to HYV's (P _t)
	HYV's (Y _{It} ^e)	Traditional (Y _{T,t} ^e)	
	(kg/ha)		(%)
	5,166	4,336	- 149
	4,336	3,462	- 47
	3,645	1,590	+ 68
	2,690	2,893	- 283
	4,600	3,200	+ 73
	3,809	3,086	+ 139
	4,840	3,339	+ 107
	4,372	3,164	+ 157
	5,243	2,866	+ 97
	4,934	3,383	+ 126
	5,398	3,086	+ 91
		3,724	+ 55
	5,243	4,100	+ 70
		3,380	+ 129
		4,954	+ 3,200
	4,934	3,573	+ 131
		4,324	+ 274

yield under experimental conditions, indicating that
 traditional variety overstate the corresponding farm

$Y_{T,t}^e > Y_{T,t}$, so that

$(Y_{T,t}^e)^f$

margin of yield superiority is less than the farm

experimental data as a basis for estimating the superi-
 ority of the farm level.* We have preferred to base our esti-

mate on regional trials (Korten) argues that the regional trials are not specifically
 representative of the farm level; a wide range of other characteristics are also consi-

mates on observed farm level data; to do this we need data at the farm level. We took P_t from FEDEARROZ data that:

1. Their sales of improved seed (over 50 percent of total pattern of sowings to improved varieties.*
2. All the improved seed was sown under irrigation case, but the evidence of the observed upland yield was no apparent impact due to new varieties in

Rearranging equation (5.20), we have

$$Y_{I,t} = \frac{Y_t - (1-P_t) Y_{T,t}}{P_t}$$

where:

Y_t = observed yield under irrigation in year t

$Y_{T,t}$ = the traditional yield that would have prevailed

We took the average of years 1964-66 when 88 percent of the area was sown to Bluebonnet-50 as the base period, giving a yield of 2,938. We fitted the following equation:

$$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 P_t + \beta_2 t - \epsilon_t$$

obtaining

$$Y_t = 2,938 + 2,290 P_t + 38t; R^2 = 0.93$$

We then assumed that the estimated residuals ($\hat{\epsilon}_t$) were due to climatic factors and that the traditional yields were in the same proportion.

Using

$$\hat{Y}_{T,t} = 3,048 [(\hat{\epsilon}_t/Y_t) + 1]$$

we simulated the traditional yields for each year. Using equation (5.22), we obtained the results for $Y_{I,t}$ showing that the estimated yield superiority was very slightly negative. The yield superiority of improved varieties was only 0.2 percent so we restrict

*In 1974, 40,835 m.t. of certified seed were produced, which was used to sow all the irrigated area (ICA, 1974, p. 30).

th improved information about cultural practices
 ent fall took place gradually as the varieties spread
 age superiority of the improved varieties between
 7 tons/ha. This compares with 2.1 tons/ha in the
 see Appendix Table 11). Rosero (1975) estimates
 r this period.

ld be sufficient to allow us to proceed with the esti-
 t (for example, in the manner outlined by Ayer and
 eve that for the case of rice in Colombia this would
 of the HYV's. The reason for this is that it seems
 st part of the expansion in the irrigated area was due
 nce rather than attribute to the HYV's only the
 n, we also include all the production from the
 presence of HYV's. On this basis, the following
 d $k_{I,t}$ and $k_{T,t}$ respectively.

Traditional and improved varieties: Colombia (1964-1974).

Traditional variety ² ($Y_{T,t}$)	Proportion sown to HYV's ³ (P)	Yield of improved varieties ⁴ ($Y_{I,t}$)
	(%)	(kg/ha)
3,092	5.1	3,248
3,007	5.0	3,847
3,023	0.2	—(5)
3,292	6.9	5,843
3,164	42.6	5,645
3,039	42.6	5,510
3,339	58.8	6,070
3,417	57.2	6,291
3,007	87.4	5,486
2,936	97.8	5,371
2,835	99.2	5,219

975)
 ference between traditional and improved varieties was

ment-sponsored irrigation districts rose from 27,114 ha in
 the period of rapid expansion of the HYV's. The use of dwarfs
 aster of 1970 to about 80 percent in 1975 (all data are from
 his expansion in area reflects, in part, the relative profitability

$$k_{I,t} = \left\{ P_t [(Y_{I,t} - Y_{T,t}) * A_{N,t} + Y_{I,t} \cdot A_{A,t}] \right\}$$

$$k_{T,t} = \left\{ P_t [(Y_{I,t} - Y_{T,t}) * A_{N,t} + Y_{I,t} \cdot A_{A,t}] \right\}$$

where:

$A_{N,t}$ = area of irrigated land that would have been required in the absence of HYV's

$A_{A,t}$ = additional area sown due to presence of

$Q_{I,t}$ = total production from irrigated sector in

$Q_{T,t}$ = total rice production in year t.

To apply equations (5.25) and (5.26) we must first estimate the area of upland rice which would have been sown ($A_{A,t}$) due to HYV's; $A_{N,t}$ is found by subtracting $A_{A,t}$ from the area actually sown. The following steps summarize the procedure:

1. The area of upland rice which would have been sown in the absence of yielding varieties was estimated.
2. Multiplying this by the actual yields of the upland sector, the production from the upland sector was estimated.
3. The domestic demand was estimated by inflating the production in the period 1964-67 by a factor of 6.636 percent yearly, a real income growth rate of 3 percent yearly, a real income elasticity of demand of 0.538 (see Section 5.1).
4. The difference between the domestic demand and the production in the upland sector was taken as the production which would have been required in the irrigated sector.
5. Dividing this production by the yields in the irrigated sector, the area needed ($A_{N,t}$) was estimated.

Two methods of estimating the upland area in the absence of HYV's were used in order to test the sensitivity of the shift parameter β .

(A) First, the following equation for the area of upland rice was estimated:

$$A_{U,t} = 91,031 - 202,534 P_t + 9,298 - 149 Q_{I,t}$$

(-1.77) (1.26) (-0.3)

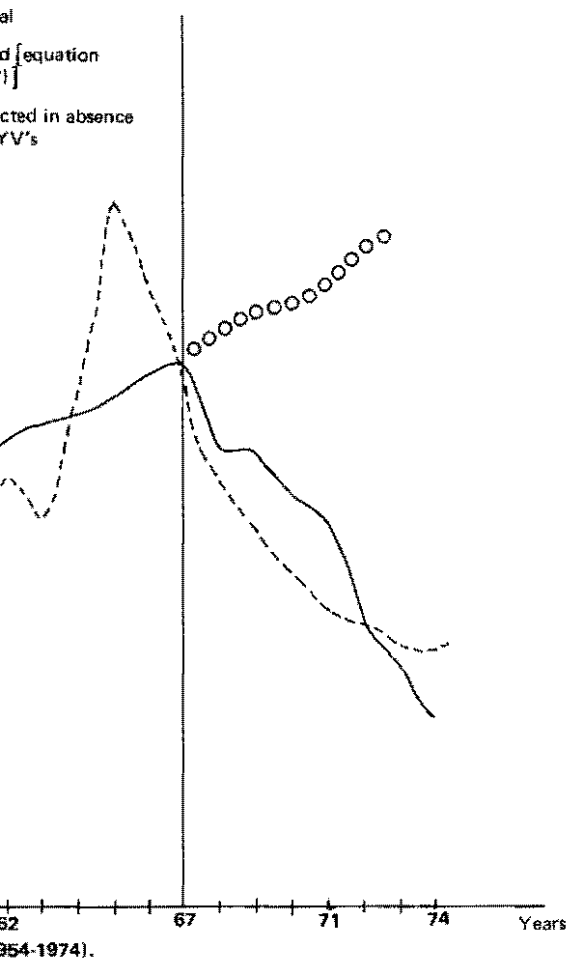
$$n = 21; R^2 = 0.62; DW = 1.04$$

where:

and rice in year t

irrigated sector sown to HYV's year t

irrigated sector sown to HYV's (P_t) was included as an independent variable in equation (5.27) that higher values of P_t would mean higher output (higher international prices and hence less area sown to upland rice would take place). The actual areas sown to upland rice were compared with the areas predicted by equations (5.27). In the absence of HYV's, P_t was constrained to zero in equation (5.27). These values are also shown in Figure 7.



estimated from this analysis as the proportion sown to HYV's that any additional area sown due to the HYV's would have

Table 30. Estimated area sown to upland rice in the absence of assumptions: Colombia (1969-1974).

Year	Actual*	Area sown to upland
		(A) From equation (5.27)
		(ha)
1968	150,200	196,977
1969	134,570	201,656
1970	121,113	206,037
1971	109,130	209,822
1972	103,220	213,905
1973	98,840	217,392
1974	95,600	220,581

* From Table 11

(B) The second method of estimating the area of upland rice was simply to take the historical area prior to the rise in the price of rice and use this figure for the subsequent years.

The average area sown during the years 1954-1963 was applied to the period 1968-1974.* In Table 30, the two different assumptions are given. The additional area sown because of the presence of the HYV's under the two assumptions is shown in Appendix Tables 12 and 13, respectively.

All the data needed to estimate the shift parameters are available, and the results of applying equations (5.25) and (5.26) are given in Table 31 for assumptions (A) and (B). Given the relationship between the shift parameters under the two sets of assumptions, only one set of shift parameters is used in the subsequent analysis.

In conclusion it should be stressed that the method of estimation employed above does not pretend to isolate the potential from the use of improved cultural practices and possibly higher input levels. The view is taken that the inputs necessary for the expression of the yield potential are not available (1974); hence measuring the return to the genetic potential is an artificial exercise.

5.4 Estimation of the elasticities

Estimates of income elasticity of demand and the price elasticity of supply are required.

	1964	385,000	156	0.26	0.17	0.26	0.17
	1965	396,400	840	1.38	0.81	1.38	0.81
53	1966	341,400	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	1967	381,000	2,551	5.07	2.92	5.07	2.92
	1968	535,700	2,481	35.03	23.87	36.75	25.00
	1969	474,225	2,471	29.82	20.36	28.59	19.58
	1970	554,347	2,731	39.56	29.16	33.92	24.94
	1971	730,652	2,874	44.09	35.62	44.29	35.79
	1972	882,724	2,479	59.96	50.75	55.27	46.84
	1973	1,021,102	2,435	65.89	57.20	59.25	51.52
	1974	1,420,110	2,348	73.68	66.65	68.94	62.11

* From Table 11

5.4.1 Income elasticity of demand (η_y)

Pinstrup-Andersen (unpublished data) provides an estimate of 0.34. While we might accept this as indicative of the urban population), it is likely that the rural sector would display other published studies for Latin American countries* of the urban and rural income elasticities of demand:

	Income Elasticity of Demand
<u>Country</u>	<u>Urban</u>
Chile	0.20
Mexico	0.18
Peru	0.21
Venezuela	<u>0.20</u>
Simple average	<u>0.1975</u>

The implied average ratio of the rural to urban elasticity to the Cali estimate, to give 0.779 ($= 0.34 \times 2.29$) for rural and urban figures were then weighted by the proportion of population in each sector.

$$\eta_y = 0.45 (0.779) + 0.55 (0.34)$$

$$\eta_y = 0.538$$

The resulting national estimate of 0.538 is between 0.5, estimated by FAO (1971) for Colombia, and 0.6, estimated by ECLA and Ruiz (1967) estimated a value of 0.982, but this was based on and given rising real incomes, the current value is likely

5.4.2 Price elasticity of demand (η)

There are only two known estimates of the price elasticity of demand for Colombian rice. The estimate of 1.372 presented by Gutiérrez was adopted for the following reasons:

- (i) 1. It is considerably higher than one would intuitively expect for a commodity facing essentially a domestic market.
2. It was calculated from a time series regression using farm prices rather than the retail prices (to which consumers would be more sensitive) would not do violence to the estimate of the price elasticity of demand relation between the farm and retail price had been available later (see Chapter 8), this has not been the case.

*See Appendix Table 14.

restricted demand equation (where a value for the in-
d), whose R^2 value is inexplicably larger than that for
. 16).

the values of the price elasticity of demand for rice for
regions; in all, 53 different estimates. While it is recog-
come from widely varying social and economic circum-
note that the maximum value is -0.65 , while the sim-
Gutiérrez and Hertford) is -0.309 .

Christrup-Andersen's value for Cali of -0.354 as a proxy
for. We calculated a value for the rural sector of -0.575 ,
using the proportions for the Venezuelan results (the
country reporting rural and urban values). Then by
proportions, we obtained:

$$-0.55 \quad (-0.345) \quad (5.29)$$

and of deriving η , we felt that a sensitivity analysis would
examined values of -0.300 and -0.754 . The first is gen-
lower income countries in Appendix Table 14; the
value Schlesinger and Ruiz (1967) is taken as the upper

of supply (ϵ_I , ϵ_{II} and ϵ)

We require estimates of the elasticities of supply
and total rice output. The only known estimate*
output, presented by Gutiérrez and Hertford (1974),
equation incorporating an expected price, the price
production, in the irrigated sector) and the area sown;
Colombian output between 1950 and 1969 was
is by accepting this value, as the short-run supply
It is in keeping with the values from other country
Table 14. However, we must now derive separate
for the irrigated and upland sectors.

subscripts T, I and U refer to total, irrigated and upland,
simply shown that

by Cruz de Schlesinger and Ruiz (1967) contains only a trend

$$\epsilon = \alpha \epsilon_I + (1 - \alpha) \epsilon_U$$

so that if we can find either ϵ_U or ϵ_I , given the other (and the proportion of output from the irrigated sector), we can find the unknown elasticity.

In an attempt to estimate ϵ_U , we fitted the following equation to the upland sector:

$$Q_{U,t} = -1.47 + 0.99A_{U,t} + 0.01PR_{(t-1)} +$$

(10.5) (0.1),

$$-0.04PY_{(t-1)} + 0.02PS_{(t-1)} - 0.35PM_{(t-1)}$$

(-0.3) (0.1) (-1.7)

$$n = 20; R^2 = 0.96; DW = 2.00$$

where:

Q_U = output of upland rice in Colombia

$A_{U,t}$ = area sown to upland rice in year t

$PR_{(t-1)}$ = price of rice in (t-1)

$PC_{(t-1), (t-3)}$ = average price of cattle in previous years

$PY_{(t-1)}$ = price of cassava in year t-1

$PS_{(t-1)}$ = price of sesame in year t-1

$PM_{(t-1)}$ = price of maize in year t-1

Values in parentheses are the values of Student's "t" test. All variables are expressed in logarithmic form.

The level of variance of output explained is high, due to the high variance of area sown. However, this and the lagged price of cattle are the only significant variables. The lagged price of cattle carries a positive sign, which comes from the North Coast and Piedmont areas of the country that competes with upland rice for land. However, higher cattle prices create a demand for greater areas of pasture; and as rice is frequently grown in the clearing of land and establishment of pasture, there is a positive relationship between cattle prices and upland rice output as expected.

and negative signs, but the price of sesame has a positive, t.*

elasticity of supply of upland rice (ϵ_U) is 0.01, but the value is very different from zero. While we have preferred a more conservative estimate (see below) to estimating (ϵ_U) and (ϵ_I), these results suggest that the elasticity of upland rice supply is probably low and almost negligible. The elasticity of supply of irrigated output.

The output coming from the irrigated sector changed from 1964-1974, three subperiods were selected and the average for each subperiod (Table 32). We now argue that

We can derive the two boundary values of ϵ_I corresponding to each of the three subperiods. The midpoint of the possible range is arbitrarily chosen and the corresponding values of ϵ_U calculated in Table 33 for the preferred estimate of $\epsilon = 0.235$, and $\epsilon = 1.500$. Appendix Table 15 presents the six sets of elasticities from the sensitivity analysis.

Reduction from the irrigated sector: Colombia (1964-1974):

Av proportion of total output from the irrigated sector* (α)
0.58
0.73
0.87

found a similar result in their equation for total rice supply.

Table 33. Values of supply elasticities for three subperiods: $\epsilon =$

Subperiod	α	Value of ϵ_I when	
		$\epsilon_U = 0$	$\epsilon_U = \epsilon_I$
1964-1967	0.58	0.406	0.235
1968-1971	0.73	0.73	0.322
1972-1974	0.87	0.87	0.270

* From equation (5.30)

Table 34. Values of supply elasticities for three subperiods: $\epsilon =$

Subperiod	α	Value of when	
		$\epsilon_U = \epsilon^0$	$\epsilon_U = \epsilon_I$
1964-1967	0.58	2.586	1.500
1968-1971	0.73	2.055	1.500
1972-1974	0.87	1.724	1.500

* From equation (5.30)

BENEFITS, COSTS AND NET BENEFITS HYV's IN COLOMBIA

estimates (5.10) to (5.15) was estimated; and using this from 1964 to 1974, the gross benefits to consumers (irrigated) were calculated using (5.3), (5.8) and (5.9), and the quantities of rice are from Table 11, and for producers (in 1964 pesos) from Table 14. The total gross benefits of consumer and producer (upland and irrigated)

Table 35 for the preferred elasticity estimates ($\eta = -0.449$) and for the other five combinations of elasticities are

our "most likely" estimates (for $\eta = -0.449$ and $\epsilon = -0.449$) estimates given by Ardila (1973, p. 132). Both sets of estimates are similar. Despite a number of differences in the assumptions, the total gross benefits are remarkably similar. However, the distribution of benefits between consumers and producers is markedly different in the two sets of estimates because of the elasticity of demand. Ardila used a value of $\eta = -0.449$ (Ardila, 1974), while the "preferred" value in this study is $\eta = -0.449$. The significance of this difference is that Ardila attributes 80 percent of the benefits to producers and 20 percent to consumers, while in this study 80 percent of the benefits go to producers and 20 percent to consumers. Producers' benefits are always negative, implying foregone benefits are positive because in the absence of HYV's the domestic market would have been much smaller (P_3 in Figure 6) and would have been very much lower. For the same reason, producers as a whole have foregone benefits (and entrepreneurial skills). With the rapid expansion of HYV's, prices received by producers were much lower than in the absence of HYV's. Both upland and irrigated producers' benefits are a result of the introduction of HYV's. This result

Table 35. Gross benefits* to consumers and producers of rice
($\eta = -0.449$ and $\epsilon = 0.235$).

Year	Consumer gains	Foregone income to producers	
		Upland	Irrigated
		(\$m)	
1964	3.0	- 1.1	- 0.9
1965	19.4	- 8.0	- 4.4
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	63.0	- 27.1	- 14.6
1968	823.6	- 304.1	- 207.9
1969	495.0	- 177.2	- 140.5
1970	806.3	- 256.7	- 246.2
1971	1,228.0	- 302.2	- 453.2
1972	2,341.8	- 550.8	- 855.2
1973	3,826.1	- 850.6	- 1,377.6
1974	9,340.0	- 1,917.4	- 3,536.0

* Expressed in 1964 pesos

should in no way be construed as meaning that rice production would have expanded to the introduction of HYV's. Obviously, if the production had been "profitable," their expansion to almost 100 percent of the area would have occurred. As noted in Section 4.5, real production would have been higher with the introduction of HYV's. All we can legitimately conclude is that, without the introduction of HYV's, the price of rice in Colombia would have presu-

Table 36. Comparison of preferred estimates of total gross benefits to producers in the Ardia (1973).

Year	Present study
1964	1.0
1965	7.0
1966	0.0
1967	21.3
1968	311.6
1969	177.3
1970	403.5
1971	472.6
Total	1,294.3

* Expressed in 1964 pesos

producers would have been higher by the amount of foregone income to producers, the gross benefits (producers plus consumers) have been positive and substan-

Quantity and gross value of additional rice due to

Equation (6) in Figure 6 can be simplified by considering (IR and STR) and assuming equilibrium prices pre-

Equation (6) where P_1 and Q_1 , and P_0 and Q_0 refer to prices and quantities without the new varieties, respectively. The quantity $Q_1 - Q_0$ in Figure 6 and is the quantity produced without HYV's, and Q_0 of interest is the quantity Q_0 which can be estimated

$$Q_0 = \left[\frac{P_0}{\epsilon/\eta} \right]^{-1} \quad (6.1)$$

Estimates of 0.235 and -0.449 for ϵ and η , respectively, are given in Table 37; $Q_1 - Q_0$ is then the additional production at the export prices received by Latin American countries in 1964-1974, and totalled \$(US)350m (in 1974 dollars). The estimated value of additional production was \$(US)127 million and \$(US)100m for the same period made by Jennings

If the costs of rice research in Colombia are explained in terms of these estimates which must be emphasized at least to include any costs incurred by the International Rice Research Institute in the development of IR-8 and IR-22, which occupied 1000 ha sown to HYV's in Colombia. Hence for these estimates, by allowing their contribution to production to include all costs. However, if the measurement of net benefits from a different standpoint, then it is valid to include only those costs incurred in multiplying and releasing the IRRI materials.

Expenditures by three entities:

of ICA

through FEDEARROZ under Ley 101 of 1963, and **Comento Arrocera**. This law authorizes the collectors. All rice buyers are responsible for deducting it

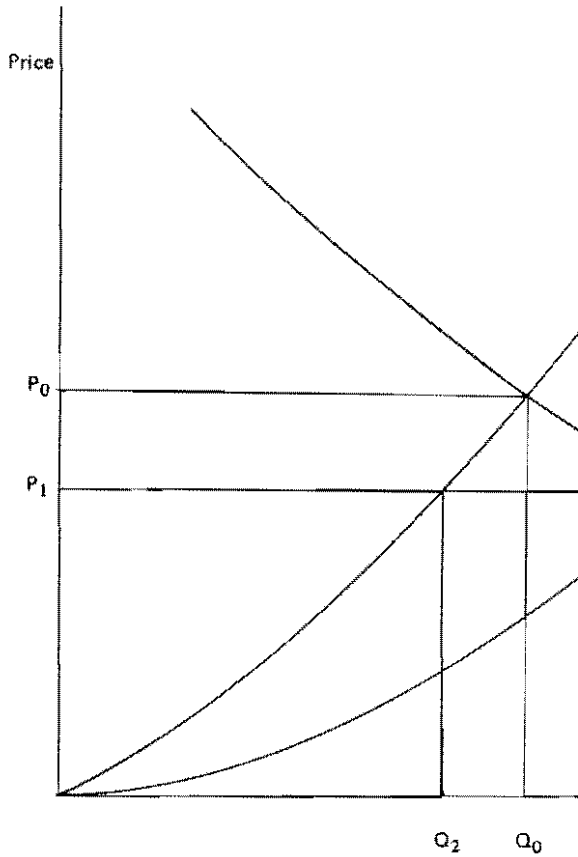


Figure 8. Simplified model showing impact of HYV's on equilibrium price and quantity.

from growers' receipts. The law authorizes FEDEARROZ to use these funds, and it is used for support of research, regional extension, and training, presenting training courses to field agronomists. The National Division of FEDEARROZ.

3. International Cooperation.*

The data for these three categories, respectively, were:

* In including the costs of International Cooperation, we make the argument that "only those costs incurred by Colombia" should be considered. However, that had those externally provided funds not gone to Colombia, they would have been available to Colombia for investment in other areas which would have an opportunity cost for Colombia.

1964	600,000	599,019	599,353	421	142	0.06
1965	672,000	666,596	668,433	2,319	110	0.26
1966	680,000	680,000	680,000	0	149	0.00
1967	661,500	642,196	648,759	8,282	142	1.18
1968	786,300	588,623	655,833	84,804	138	11.70
1969	694,500	553,097	601,174	60,662	123	7.46
1970	752,595	533,167	607,773	94,134	94	8.85
1971	904,348	582,236	691,754	138,186	107	14.79
1972	1,043,284	513,888	693,883	227,111	164	37.25
1973	1,175,871	503,263	731,950	288,549	212	61.17
1974	1,569,940	523,563	879,331	448,896	333	149.48

-
- 1 Corresponds to OA in Figure 6 or Q_1 in Figure 8 and is from Table 11
 - 2 Corresponds to OE in Figure 6 or Q_2 in Figure 8
 - 3 Corresponds to Q_0 in Figure 8 and given by equation (6.1)
 - 4 Corresponds to $Q_1 - Q_0$ in Figure 8 and converted to milled rice equivalent

1. From Ardila (1973), for 1957-1970, and converting instead of his \$(Col.) 1958; for 1971-1974, unpublished by ICA*
2. Based on a constant collection rate of 45 percent (F period 1963-1974
3. Based on Ardila (1973) for the years 1958-1971 and CIAT Controller's Office for 1972-1974.

The costs for each of the three categories are shown interesting to note that the producer contributions (th at a time when new varieties were being released by IC production increases came from the new varieties.

Table 38. Costs* of rice research program in Colombia 1957-1974

Year	Source		In c
	ICA	FEDEARROZ	
			(\$m)
1957	0.03	0.00	
1958	0.11	0.00	
1959	0.20	0.00	
1960	0.31	0.00	
1961	0.69	0.00	
1962	0.62	0.00	
1963	0.28	2.91	
1964	0.61	2.70	
1965	0.79	2.83	
1966	0.82	2.45	
1967	1.33	2.21	
1968	1.49	2.44	
1969	2.67	2.02	
1970	2.78	2.05	
1971	1.69	2.20	
1972	1.58	2.23	
1973	1.38	2.06	
1974	1.31	2.19	

* Expressed in 1964 pesos

*Personal communication, División de Presupuesto y Finanzas Presupuestal, December 18, 1975.

Research per ton of irrigated paddy rice production in Colombia

Excluding international cooperation	Total
(\$/m.t.)	
0.14	0.14
0.47	1.64
0.83	1.90
1.18	2.13
2.52	3.08
1.75	1.93
9.28	9.45
0.60	8.76
9.14	9.29
9.58	9.76
9.30	9.45
7.34	7.45
9.89	12.53
8.72	13.37
5.32	11.73
4.32	8.73
3.37	5.98
2.46	4.16

Overall view of the trends in investment in rice research, showing the amount invested per ton of irrigated paddy. The data demonstrate the intensified program built up with the aid of international cooperation in the 1960's. Recently, there has been a decline in the amount invested per ton of rice output. The data show a marked decline in research per unit of rice output. The data on investment per ton of irrigated paddy production show a marked decline in the intensive period of development of Colombian rice. The total investment per unit output has fallen over the years as the area sown to new varieties reached saturation. Were there to be any further resistance to rice blast disease, then one might expect investment to decline further in the future.

Costs of return

Costs of return from 1957 to 1974, under each of the investment alternatives. Net benefits were calculated by subtracting the corresponding flows of gross benefits (Table 35) from the corresponding flows of net benefits. Net benefits are all negative until 1964, as we have

Table 40. Costs, net benefits¹ and rates of return to rice research in Colombia for various elasticities of supply and demand (1957-1974).

Year	Total costs ²	Net benefits (\$m.)					
		$\eta^3 = -0.300$		$\eta = -0.449$		$\eta = -0.754$	
		$\epsilon^4 = 0.235$	$\epsilon = 1.500$	$\epsilon = 0.235$	$\epsilon = 1.500$	$\epsilon = 0.235$	$\epsilon = 1.500$
1957	0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
1958	0.38	-0.38	-0.38	-0.38	-0.38	-0.38	-0.38
1959	0.46	-0.46	-0.46	-0.46	-0.46	-0.46	-0.46
1960	0.56	-0.56	-0.56	-0.56	-0.56	-0.56	-0.56
1961	0.84	-0.84	-0.84	-0.84	-0.84	-0.84	-0.84
1962	0.68	-0.68	-0.68	-0.68	-0.68	-0.68	-0.68
1963	3.25	-3.25	-3.25	-3.25	-3.25	-3.25	-3.25
1964	3.37	-2.27	-2.87	-2.37	-2.87	-2.37	-2.87
1965	3.68	3.42	0.22	3.32	0.22	3.12	0.12
1966	3.33	-3.33	-3.33	-3.33	-3.33	-3.33	-3.33
1967	3.60	18.10	5.60	17.70	5.20	17.30	4.80
1968	3.99	272.01	260.81	307.61	195.51	263.51	151.31
1969	5.94	203.26	116.66	171.36	84.76	149.06	62.36
1970	7.41	380.59	267.89	295.99	183.09	241.99	129.39

rice program of ICA since its inception in 1957. In research and training during those early years development and spread of subsequently released

have grown substantially, reaching almost \$4,000m elasticities. The analysis of the sensitivity of the estimates shows that the value used for the price elasticity is crucial. The two widely disparate values tested (1.5) only made a difference of 10 percent in net present demand elasticity (-0.449) was used. The changes in the demand elasticity. Higher values reduce net benefits. An infinitely elastic demand would result in zero net benefits; such is the case for a crop that is totally

Internal Rate of Return of the investment in rice research are also shown. The Internal Rate of Return is that rate which reduces the present value of net benefits to zero.* It is a measure of the profitability of the investment in rice research. "An internal rate of return of 20 percent means that, on average, each dollar invested returns 20 cents until the cut off date" (Peterson, 1967, p. 664).

The Internal Rate of Return was 94 percent. Given (Harberger, 1972, p. 155) that the social opportunity cost of funds is between 10 and 11 percent, there is little doubt that the investment is an efficient use of funds.

Benefit/cost ratio** as an alternative measure of the profitability of the investment.

The Internal Rate of Return is that rate ρ which makes

$$\sum_{t=0}^T \frac{B_t - C_t}{(1 + \rho)^t} = 0$$

where B_t and C_t are net benefits and costs respectively. If more than one sign change occurs in the net benefit stream (as in the case of multiple solutions to this equation (Hirshleifer, 1968) streams of Table 40 theoretically have two Internal Rates of Return. However, in this case the perturbation below zero (by reversing the signs for 1965 and 1966) makes no difference to the Internal Rates of Return shown in Table 40.

The 30-year period 1957-1986. The level of net benefits for the period 1975-1986. This simply implies that were the investment continued until 1986, they would continue to generate the same net benefits. In fact, because the above equation involves discounting future costs and benefits, the results are very insensitive to changes in the rates of return are all high, the results are very insensitive to changes in future costs and benefits.

the present value of Gross Benefits to the present value of Recurrent Costs of 10 percent (Harberger, 1972, p. 155).

DISTRIBUTION OF NET BENEFITS

As the question of the distribution of the net benefits; as previously stated, we are asking which groups in society benefited from the technological change in the Colombian rice industry. In view of the considerable limitations in the available data were encountered, certain assumptions; these should be borne in mind in interpreting the results. For this reason, the procedures are explained in some detail. It is noted that this is the first study to address the distributional basis, certainly with respect to income levels.

Net benefits and costs by sectors

The results are presented in Table 41, which gives a summary of the findings of the research program and the net benefits for various groups. The gross benefits are based on the benefits shown in Table 40 and the elasticity estimates. The values in Table 41 are the sum of the benefits from 1964-1974, expressed in \$(Col.) m. 1970, compounding the benefits and discounting back the years 1971-1974, both using a 10 percent for the real rate of return on capital in Colombia.

The net costs of the research from the three sources (ICA, FEDEARROZ and FEDECOOP) from Table 38 were summed and are presented in Table 41. The net costs of the ICA program were assumed to come from government. The net benefits between consumers and producers on the basis of urban and rural tax revenues in 1970 (Jallade, 1974, Tables 3.4 and 3.5). The net contribution was further broken down between urban and rural on the basis of the production coming from each sector. The net contributions from FEDEARROZ were distributed between the urban and rural assuming a 45 percent collection rate of one centavo per hectare. It is assumed that no contributions were assumed for upland pro-

Table 41. Size and distribution of benefits and costs* of HYV's in Colombia: (1957-1974).

Item	Producers			Consumers	Total Colombia	International cooperation
	Upland	Irrigated	Total			
	\$m					
Gross benefits	- 3,542.1	- 5,292.9	- 8,835.0	14,939.3	6,104.3	--
Research costs:						
FEDEARROZ	8.4	29.9	38.3	--	38.3	--
ICA	0.7	1.7	2.4	22.1	24.5	--
Total	9.1	31.6	40.7	22.1	62.8	18.8
Net benefits	- 3 551.2	- 5 324.5	- 8 875.7	14 917.2	6 041.5	--

expressed in 1970 pesos, \$(Col.) 81.6 m. were devoted in 1974. The contributions were made in the following

	%
Consumers:	27
Producers:	50
Irrigated:	39
Upland:	11
International:	23
Total:	100

Producers' incomes would have been higher in the absence of the tax, it is pertinent to inquire why 50 percent of the producers themselves. Were they simply contributing to the tax and if so, does this not imply irrational behavior on their part at least, with the discussion of the "agricultural revolution" in 4.5. Colombian rice production is dominated by small producers (see Section 4.10), who founded and continue to exist amongst these producers are undoubtedly a high proportion, at least temporarily, from the rapid adoption of the extensive network of technical advisors that is available as an important source of information to members, not only with respect to a wide range of cultural practices but also with respect to a wide range of cultural practices. FEDEARROZ, these growers have rapid access to the latest technologies in rice production, and the continually evolving and changing technology means that they can repeatedly be amongst the best in adopting technologies. Hence given that there are considerable benefits from the rapid adoption of both varieties and, equally important, financial support of FEDEARROZ is not an unreasonable cost to the producer. The rapid postwar growth of private, grower-owned farms in the U.K., Australia and New Zealand, is a

(through tax-financed support of public research) are captured by a dominated body politic, which captures the benefits of the tax. Lower wages in the manufacturing sector (as dis-

Benefits and costs by income level

In order to assess the impacts of the technological change, the gross benefits and costs of the program and the consequent net benefits were distributed among consumers, and upland and irrigated producers. In order to estimate the impact (benefits and costs) for 1970 was estimated. The net benefits of the gross benefits or costs expressed in 1970 pesos over a number of years.

Gross benefits to consumers were assumed to be directly proportional to the quantity of rice consumed. The research costs (paid to the consumers) were distributed on the basis of the proportion of rice consumed in each income strata in the urban sector. The results, shown by income level, are shown in Table 42.

The distribution of gross benefits to producers (in terms of net benefits) for each size group was calculated by assuming the foregone gross benefits to total production in each group. The results together with the "losses" per farm are shown in Table 43. The costs of production for producers, by size group, are shown in Table 44. The ICA (Internal Consumption) basis of the proportion of production from each size group to total production was proportional to output. The distribution of gross benefits has already been discussed. Table 44 also shows the net benefits per farm. Combining the results for gross benefits per farm (Table 43) and the costs per farm (Table 44) gives the distribution of net benefits by size group.

One further step is required in order to estimate the "net benefits" in relation to producer income. Ideally, income data would be available for upland and irrigated rice producers by size of farm. As such data do not exist, resort was made to a distribution of rural income data for the region (Berry, 1974, p. 610). The income data were inflated to 1974 prices using the Index shown in Table 14. We have no basis for knowing whether rural producers would have higher or lower incomes than the rural average. However, our principal interest is in the relative distribution of net benefits by income level, rather than in the absolute income levels. Table 45 shows the distribution of "net producer benefits" (negative) as a percentage of total net benefits corresponding to each size group.

The consumer net benefits shown in Table 42 (last column) are expressed on a per household basis, by dividing the number of households in each income group (Jallande, 1974, p. 22). Both rural and urban households in the urban sector are also rice consumers.* The average annual net benefits per household (first column, Table 47) were then expressed as a percentage of total income for each income group (second column, Table 47).

The net benefits to consumers were positive for all income groups. The annual average net benefits tend to decline at higher income levels, peaking in the second-to-lowest income group. As a percentage of total income, the net benefits accrued most significantly to the lowest income group, indicating that the technological change in rice favored the lowest income group, both absolutely and relatively. The relative distribution of net benefits by income level is shown in Figure 9. In Figure 10, the cumulative distribution of net benefits by income level is shown.

*This assumes that the rice consumption patterns in the rural sector are similar to those in the urban sector, as shown in the data shown in Table 42.

One study of rural food consumption reports that in a non-irrigated area, 60% of calories and proteins in the average family diet came from rice. These data are only slightly below the urban figures reported in Table 42. These areas and traditional consuming areas such as the Atlantic Coast of Mexico are at the lower levels of rice consumption.

costs and net benefits to consumers by level of income (1970).

% of total taxes paid***	Gross benefits	Research costs	Net benefits
(%)	(\$m)	(\$)	(\$m)
—	4.1	—	4.1
0.02	13.6	246	13.6
0.03	34.0	368	34.0
0.04	51.6	491	51.6
0.10	142.6	1,227	142.6
0.65	182.0	7,980	182.1
0.48	141.2	5,893	141.3
0.35	112.7	4,297	112.7
1.42	88.3	17,434	88.3
1.35	91.0	16,574	91.1
0.78	54.3	9,576	54.3
2.07	48.9	25,414	48.9
3.27	82.8	40,148	82.8
5.26	67.9	64,826	67.9
2.86	29.9	35,114	29.9
3.20	46.2	39,266	46.2
2.02	25.8	24,801	25.8
3.34	44.8	41,007	44.8
8.33	29.9	102,273	29.9
4.50	12.2	55,249	12.2
4.36	17.7	53,531	17.7
55.55	36.6	682,031	35.6
100.00	1,358.1	1,227,777	1,356.9

Encuesta de Hogares (household survey)

Table 43. Distribution of foregone producer income by farm size: upland and irrigated sectors,

Farm size (ha)	Upland sector		Irrigated sector	
	Distribution of foregone income	Per farm per year	Distribution of foregone income	per farm per year
	(\$m)	(\$)	(\$m)	(\$)
0 – 1	- 21.0	- 876	- 0.5	- 842
1 – 2	- 72.7	- 1,943	- 7.7	- 1,406
2 – 3	- 95.9	- 3,221	- 6.3	- 1,342
3 – 4	- 93.4	- 4,652	- 7.2	- 2,470
4 – 5	- 88.5	- 5,518	- 12.6	- 3,910
5 – 10	- 287.2	- 6,136	- 42.9	- 4,407
10 – 20	- 361.0	- 7,503	- 110.3	- 7,363
20 – 30	- 215.1	- 7,729	- 91.4	- 9,032
30 – 40	- 171.2	- 8,123	- 99.2	- 11,052

research costs borne by producers by farm size: total and per farm

Average annual research costs (\$)		Average annual total costs per farm (\$)		
Irrigated	Total	Upland	Irrigated	Total
527	729	*	3	a
2,633	3,240	*	5	1
2,107	2,916	1	5	1
2,282	3,040	1	9	1
4,213	4,971	1	14	3
14,220	16,546	1	16	3
36,516	81,157	10	27	14
30,371	69,248	15	33	20
32,829	63,769	16	40	23
33,707	61,513	17	47	26
129,384	227,310	21	63	33
330,045	416,343	35	129	83
353,393	434,939	40	332	140
251,396	296,239	118	716	405
262,280	287,912	196	950	707
269,653	291,240	322	1,954	1,421
1,755,556	2,261,112	14	137	46

Table 45. Distribution of annual average net benefits per farm

Farm size (ha)	Upland	
	(\$)	
0 - 1	- 876	
1 - 2	- 1,943	
2 - 3	- 3,222	
3 - 4	- 4,653	
4 - 5	- 5,519	
5 - 10	- 6,137	
10 - 20	- 7,513	
20 - 30	- 7,744	
30 - 40	- 8,139	
40 - 50	- 8,492	
50 - 100	- 10,413	
100 - 200	- 17,518	
200 - 500	- 20,209	
500 - 1,000	- 59,519	
1,000 - 2,500	- 98,887	
2,500 - +	- 162,872	
Totals	- 8,915	

with respect to the cumulative percentage of household income distribution. In this type of graphical analysis above or below the 45° line show an unequal distribution. The distance from the line of perfect equality, the greater the distance, the greater the inequality. The graph can be interpreted as follows: 25 percent of the households (the point marked on the graph) received 4 percent of the net benefits due to new rice varieties. The point marked) is that 50 percent of the households received 28 percent of the net benefits. The point marked) is that 50 percent of the households received 64 percent of the benefits.

Turning to producers, the group most severely affected (the group with the lowest income) upland producers. For these producers, the average net benefits were reduced through lower rice prices (and no compensating technical changes). For a high proportion of their assumed 1970 income, to the extent that their net incomes had been below the rural sector average, this reduction was more pronounced. On the other hand, the foregone income was more varied more erratically depending on the size group, with

producers as a percentage of 1970 income by sector.

*	Av annual net losses as a % of 1970 income (%)		
	Upland	Irrigated	Total
1,500**	58	56	41
3,647	53	39	37
5,330	60	25	39
5,508	71	38	47
7,406	75	53	52
10,295	60	43	42
15,652	48	47	38
18,934	41	48	35
23,394	35	47	33
28,620	30	45	30
35,904	29	48	31
45,759	26	53	41
58,398	18	79	41
75,513	21	69	47
92,389	19	49	45
110,199	11	36	32

to 1970

Table 47 . Annual average net benefits to consumers by inc

	Income group* (\$)	Av annual net benefits
1.	0 — 6,000	365
2.	6,001 — 12,000	642
3.	12,001 — 18,000	530
4.	18,001 — 24,000	333
5.	24,001 — 30,000	348
6.	30,001 — 36,000	353
7.	36,001 — 48,000	342
8.	48,001 — 60,000	200
9.	60,001 — 72,000	128
10.	72,001 — 84,000	232
11.	84,000 — +	135

* The distribution shown in Table 42 had to be reduced to the no. of households per income group was not available for

falling on the 200-1,000 hectares group. However, this is overstated if irrigated producers had incomes above the income earners. Figure 11 shows the distributional

In conclusion, the positive benefits of the technology to consumers, with the lowest income households receiving relatively. The foregone income to producers appears to be small upland producers. Even if the average annual crop as benefits to upland producers, the small upland producers are severely affected.

7.4 Foreign trade, technological change and

It has been demonstrated that the net benefits of the technology by Colombian consumers, with a disparate share among consumers.



net benefits to consumers by level of income.

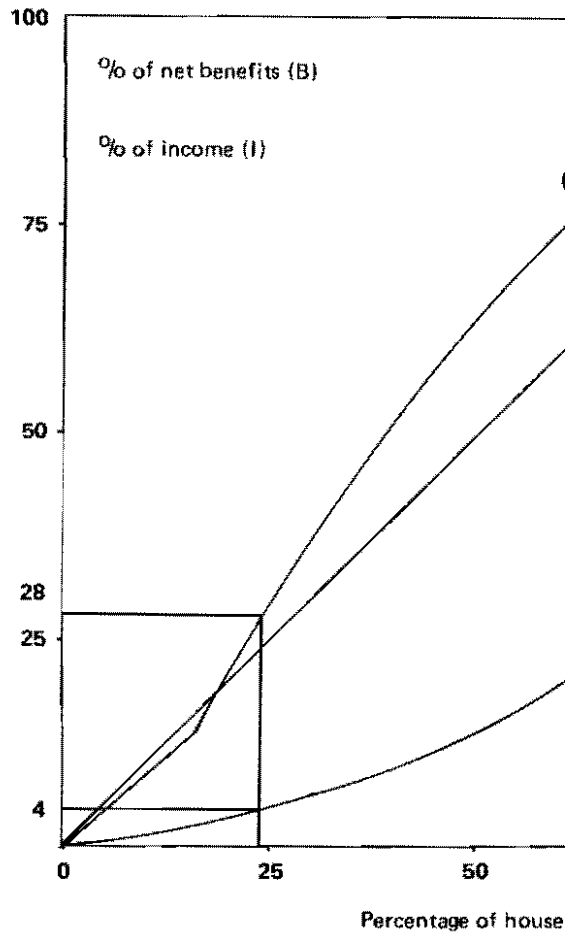
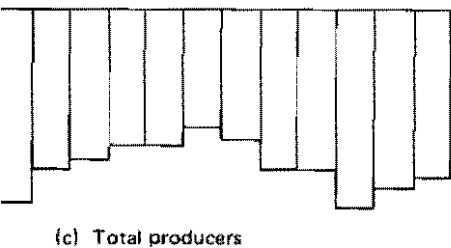
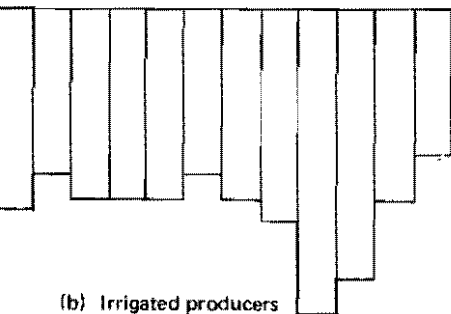
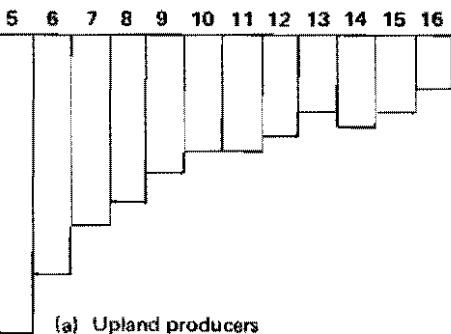


Figure 10. Distribution of income and net consumer

The net income of rice producers would have been HYV's. It is of interest to inquire why this pattern of income distribution in favor of low-income consumers was the result of a deliberate policy to use agricultural research and a large set of economic policies in operation at that time connected to rice production and consumption? The purpose of this study is in the hope of shedding some light on these questions, which are of importance to those concerned with the planning

* This result assumes that no imports would have occurred at the prices that would have prevailed in the absence of HYV's.



Age net losses to producers by level of income.

and international agricultural research programs, while for establishing research priorities.¹

The basic premise adopted here is that the distribution of technology in Colombia was principally a result of the policy at the national level, not directly related to the rice sector. It is that Colombia's industrial protection policy, through the promotion of manufactured goods, has a three-pronged bias against agriculture, including, of course, the rice-production sector. In the first place, the prices of manufactured inputs used by agriculture are raised. Second, the prices of manufactured goods are augmented by the tariff barriers, and the incentives for resources to flow into the industrial sector. Their availability to agriculture is reduced, or alternatively, their prices are inflated, making the agricultural sector less competitive. Finally, and most importantly, in this context, the price of foreign exchange could be maintained at a level implying that agricultural exports are less attractive. This policy has been widely noted. Little et al. (1970, pp. 10-11) state that "the policy of manufacturing produces a bias against agriculture, which is not available for agricultural investment, as well as reduced incentives to produce and sell, especially as far as exports are concerned. . . . This bias has been excessive; that in several of the countries³ the effect has been damaging, and that agricultural exports earned less than they should have done in most countries."

It is believed that the Colombian case conforms to the pattern of a country in which virtually no rice was exported⁴ during the period of industrialization (1968-1974) which accompanied the introduction of modern technology. This lack of exports was due to the relatively unattractive price of rice to potential rice exporters, as a result of the industrial protection policy. It can be noted that for an eight-month period ending May 1974, there was a temporary ban on rice exports; this could be interpreted as a deliberate policy.⁵

The set of general economic policies (including tariff and exchange rate, and the price of foreign exchange), together with the particular

¹ Ardila and Valderrama (1975) report that the equitable selection criteria were employed within ICA for selecting projects. Lopes Neto (1975) has also reported "in the definition of priorities and resource allocation for

² For a model relating the level of industrial protection to the level of agricultural protection, see Scobie and Johnson (1974).

³ Their study includes three Latin American countries: Brazil, Colombia, and Venezuela.

⁴ Some of the production in 1974 was carried over as stockpiles from 1973, and some recommence exporting rice.

⁵ At the same time it should be noted that prior to 1974, there was a 45-55 percent tariff against imported rice for consumption, indicating a policy that was consumer-orientated and a producer-orientated rice policy that was interventionist (Lourquin, 1967).

are a product of continually evolving economic and
often opposed, reflecting the interests of different
typically concerned with presenting cases for
noting exports. On the other hand, manufacturing
and overvalued exchange rates, which have the
cheap domestic food supplies (especially in the
change in agriculture), hence lowering the price of
ing the price of labor to the manufacturing sec-
) notes, rapid urbanization (together with growth
social sectors) has increased the political weight of
rural interests. So that while FEDEARROZ has
s of rice growers since its inception (Lourquin,
y won concessions favoring rice producers, its
y national economic strategies promoted by an
rial class whose political power base lies less and
, 1967). The net result of these forces has been
varieties were captured by consumers, as a result of
consistent with, and complementary to, protection

price of foreign exchange, the expanded production
domestic market. As Harberger (1970, pp. 1007-
ere, of course, is that each new restriction on
change rate relative to the internal price level, thus
ing the export trade." With a moderately inelastic
prices fell, resulting in the capture of the net

comparative advantage that Colombia would have
favorable exchange rate policy, Table 48 was
foreign exchange which reflects the real value of
Colombia has been somewhat arbitrarily taken as 50
age rates prevailing between 1968 and 1974. This
d on very sketchy information. Dudley and Sandi-
40 percent for the period 1963 to 1971*; they
e period 1950-1970, which proposed shadow rates
iminal buying rate for dollars. The average tariff pro-
1975 was 31 percent (Departamento de Planeación
rally believed to have been substantially reduced

Table 48 is that at a more attractive exchange rate,
compete favorably in external markets with other

ilar value of the level of effective protection given to
ason to assume that effective protection rate measures
er (1972), p.125.

Table 48. Competitive position of Colombia as a rice exporter (1958-1974).

Year	Price in Colombia ¹ (f.o.b.) (1)	Shadow exchange rate ² (2)	Price in Colombia (f.o.b.) (3)	Export price of competitors ³ (f.o.b.) (4)	Competitive margin of Colombia ⁴ (5)	Milled rice exports from Colombia (6)
	(\$Col)	(\$Col/\$US)	(\$US)	(\$US)	(%)	('000 m.t)
1968	3,440	25.43	135	138	+ 2	0
1969	3,153	26.90	117	123	+ 5	24
1970	3,146	28.76	109	94	- 16	5
1971	3,320	31.50	105	107	+ 2	0

ever, starting in 1975, the domestic price of rice has
porting attractive, and it is probable that Colombia
ce exporter. This will mean that future benefits of
tured by producers and foreign consumers, rather
as has been the case.

8. AN ANALYSIS OF THE MARKETING OF RICE IN COLOMBIA

8.1 Implications of marketing margins

The role and efficiency of the marketing sector is a subject that has been raised in the context of developing economies. Frequently, the sector has been denounced either as speculators or performing no real economic function. Government agricultural marketing policies are then aimed at supposedly avoiding speculation and lowering the price of rice. The following analysis is aimed at examining changes in the marketing structure in Colombia and asking to what extent such changes could be the result of normal competitive economic forces, rather than the result of government intervention, in the marketing structure in the marketing sector, which may be the result of government intervention.

In Chapter 7, the distribution of benefits to producers and consumers was analyzed. However, there is an additional link in the production and distribution chain not addressed to this point. The production and distribution chain includes transport, storage, insurance, milling, packaging, wholesaling, and retailing. We refer to the totality of these operations as belonging to the marketing sector. The marketing sector can be regarded as simply another production stage in the production of the product, **milled rice**, in the hands of the eventual consumer. The following section constructs a model to analyze the producer returns at different stages of the marketing sequence.^{***} Because of insufficient data on the returns at each stage and over time, we will restrict the following analysis to the analysis of the farm-to-retail marketing margin. We are concerned

*The authors are indebted to Bruce L. Gardner of the Production and Marketing Advisors, Washington, D.C., for his guidance and insights in this area.

**Indicative of the "anti-intermediary" sentiment is the fact that the marketing of rice cannot use warehouse receipts as collateral for bank loans.

***As suggested by Carlson (1969, p. 161) and attempted by

roduction of the new varieties. Specifically, we are
benefits of the new farm technology have been cap-
rather than being passed on to the final consumers of

expressed in 1964 pesos) for rice at three levels of
in Table 14. A summary (Table 49) shows that in
the spread has been constant for twenty-five years,
it fall in the absolute price levels at all points in the

ns why one might have expected the real costs of the

total rice crop is now produced nearer the main con-
presumably lowering the total transport costs (see

duced the per unit costs of transport.

in the milling process may have lowered unit costs
drying to machine drying with a consequent reduc-
quin, 1967, p. 259).

e in the proportion of the total crop coming from
quality due to breakages in the grain (Table 10), the
e may have been expected to rise. But if on balance
re expected to fall, then their apparent failure to
ections in the marketing sector.

rice milling

retail marketing margin remained constant, it did
of the introduction of new varieties and the asso-
This rise is especially marked when the margin is
farm price (Table 50), increasing from a record low
rd high in 1973 of 218 percent.

a 50 show the annual changes in the farm-to-retail
average of these changes. The moving average was
annual changes, in an attempt to reveal any under-
ented in Figure 12, where a striking cyclical pattern

milling sector is proposed as a possible explanation of
At the troughs of the cycle, installed milling capa-

Table 49. Real rice prices* and marketing margins for selected periods: Colombia (1950-1974).

Average de	Real Price			Marketing Margins			Retail farm prices (P_r/P_f)
	Farm (P_f)	Whole – sale	Retail (P_r)	Farm to whole – sale	Wholesale to retail	Farm to retail	
∞ 1950-52	1,258	2,888	3,266	1,630	378	2,008	2.60
1957-59	1,394	2,901	3,432	1,507	531	2,038	2.46
1965-67	1,506	3,006	3,550	1,500	462	2,052	2.36

ts in margins being driven up as production increases
to incentives to invest in expanded milling, storage and
because of some overcapacity, results in a lowering
hypothesis, the rising trend in the farm-to-retail margin
more than a cyclical upswing in the margins, which
er a 22-year period.

data on installed capacity in the milling sector are
investment cycle hypothesis. However, the observa-
with the explanation proposed for the cyclical

capacity was reported to be double the production of
ion existed among millers to obtain paddy rice
(1967, p. 34). Data for the years 1964 and 1967 in-
rise between those two years, as the cyclical model
(1967, p. 257 and FEDEARROZ, unpublished data).
that in 1968 the state of Valle had 15 rice
percent of capacity, although this is partly a local-
ining rice production in the region.

er proposed to explain the pattern of changes in
ds in part on the argument that the milling sector
d capacity, approximately every 5 to 6 years. One
investment would be if the investment had to be
is is rejected, however, as rice milling is not subject
in 1964 there were 340 rice mills in the country
3 in 1967 (FEDEARROZ, unpublished data).
s that there is no learning process on the part of the
their ability to predict the demand for their services
ing in view of the fact that the larger millers them-
d also obtain paddy rice by contracts with independ-
should result in a more predictable throughput of
the explanation of the cycle, it does strongly suggest
varieties was not necessarily accompanied by an
g structure, capturing abnormal profits.

dicted change in the farm-to-retail

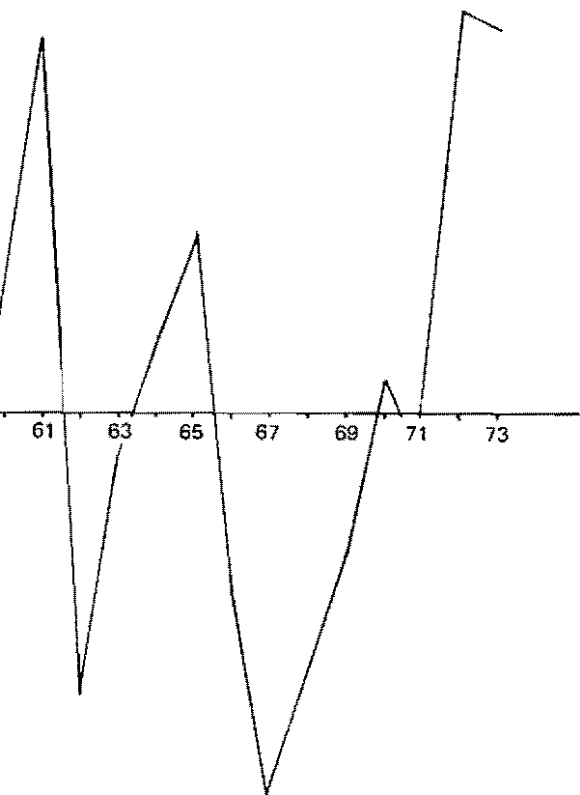
the question: by how much could the farm-to-retail
change due to the introduction of the HYV's and
of paddy rice?

an analytical framework which allows this question

cites evidence of similar price competition among Louisiana
(8) note the existence of excess rice milling capacity in the
Brazil.

Table 50. Marketing margins for Colombian rice (1950-1974).

Year	Farm to wholesale		Wholesale to retail		Farm to retail		Annual change in farm-to- retail margin	Three-year moving av of the annual changes in farm-to- retail margin
	Absolute*	Relative**	Absolute relative		Absolute relative			
	(\$)	(%)	(\$)	(%)	(\$)	(%)		
1950	2,159	179	151	4	2,310	191	-	-
1951	1,497	103	363	12	1,860	128	-450	-
1952	1,235	111	619	26	1,854	167	-6	54
1953	2,142	182	329	10	2,471	210	617	2
1954	1,519	120	346	12	1,865	147	-606	-1
1955	1,224	105	627	25	1,851	144	-14	-247
1956	1,443	116	339	13	1,728	143	-123	165
1957	1,863	139	496	16	2,359	176	631	69
1958	1,431	97	627	22	2,058	140	-301	-11
1959	1,225	89	471	18	1,696	123	-362	-54
1960	1,784	119	414	13	2,198	147	502	47
1961	1,423	96	775	27	2,198	148	0	151
1962	1,207	88	943	37	2,150	157	-48	-139
1963	1,395	113	386	15	1,781	147	-369	-22



of the annual changes in the farm-to-retail marketing (1973).

to be addressed. When there is a technical improvement in function, both the farm price and the retail price can be affected (see Table 49). But for the marketing sector to produce more polished rice will require more of the other inputs: milling machinery, storage and transport services, packing. Increased demand for these inputs will raise their prices if supply are not infinite. This will raise the cost of nonfarm sector relative to the price of paddy rice, hence increase the farm price (as shown in the last column of Table 4

Let the marketing sector's production function be:

$$MR = f(PR, O)$$

i.e., the sector produces (and distributes) milled rice (MR) from paddy rice purchased from growers (PR) and other materials (O).

The demand by final consumers of milled rice is a function of P_r and other factors (population, income, etc.), N , which can be written as:

$$MR = D(P_r, N)$$

To these equations are added the supply and demand curves for inputs PR and O. The milling sector is assumed to demand quantities of PR and O, so that in both cases the value marginal product can be equated to its price:

$$P_O = P_r \cdot f_O$$

$$P_r = P_f \cdot f_{MR}$$

where the physical marginal products are represented by the partial derivatives of (8.1) with respect to O and MR, respectively. The price of paddy rice and other inputs to the milling industry are given by:

$$P_r = F(PR, W)$$

$$P_O = G(P_O, T)$$

where W and T are shifters of the respective supply curves. The relationship of interest is the elasticity (E_W) of the retail price of milled rice to a supply curve shifter (W) of paddy rice; i.e.,

$$E_W = \frac{\% \Delta (P_r / P_f)}{\% \Delta W}$$

Based on the competitive model outlined above, we can derive the expression for this elasticity, which is given by

$$\sigma) + \epsilon_{PR} \epsilon_0 + \sigma (S_{PR} \epsilon_{PR} + S_0 \epsilon_0) \quad (8.8)$$

of the marketing inputs; viz., paddy rice (PR)

or milled rice

paddy rice and other inputs; e.g., $S_{PR} = (PR) \cdot P_f / - S_{PR}$

tribution of paddy rice for other marketing inputs
milled rice

with respect to W ; this is set equal to 1 so that E_W
of (P_r/P_f) with respect to a change in W , sufficient
paddy rice by 1 percent.

(8.8) would be inappropriate as it was derived
or milled rice. This assumption is patently violated
extending over an eleven-year period. Ideally, one
, in which shifts in the demand for milled rice are
ated (and analytically simpler) approach is adopted
milled rice can be expected to reduce the market-
supply of paddy rice would tend to widen the

margin with respect to a shift in the demand curve
/:

$$(8.9)$$

and for milled rice with respect to N , and D is the

ange between 1965-1967 and 1972-1974. The ver-
calculated by evaluating the 1972-1974 total supply
for 1965-1967 (see Figure 13). The percentage
s $[100(66-1506)]/1506 = -95.6$ percent.

umption that the elasticity of supply of paddy rice is less
inputs to the marketing sector (Gardner, 1975, p. 406).

ge of equation (5.13) evaluated for each year from 1972

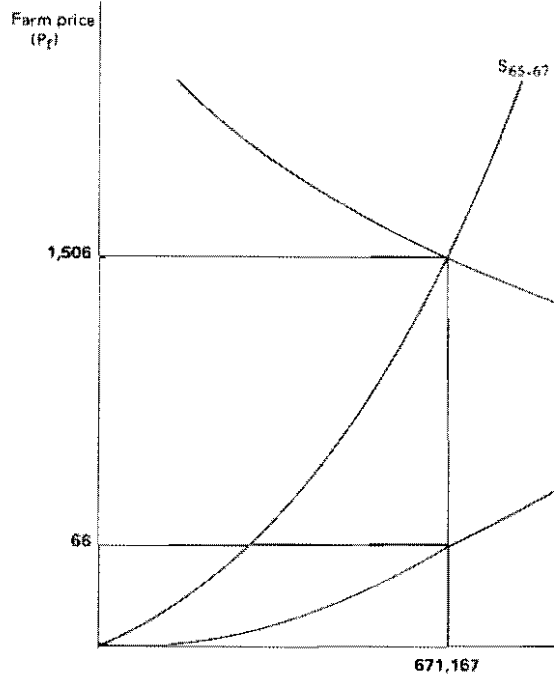


Figure 13. Vertical shift in the supply curve of paddy rice.

To estimate the horizontal shift in the demand curve was evaluated at the average retail price in 1972-1979. The percentage change in N evaluated as $[100(1,263 - 1,263) / 1,263]$ percent.

The following values of the parameters were used:

$$\eta = -0.449$$

$$\eta_N, \epsilon_W = 1$$

$$\epsilon_{PR} = 0.235$$

$$\epsilon_0 = 0.4$$

To estimate the value share of paddy rice (S_{PR})

$$S_{PR} = \frac{P_f}{P_r} \cdot \frac{PR}{MR}$$

The assumed milling ratio gives:

$$1 \text{ ton (PR)} = 0.65 \text{ tons (MR)}$$

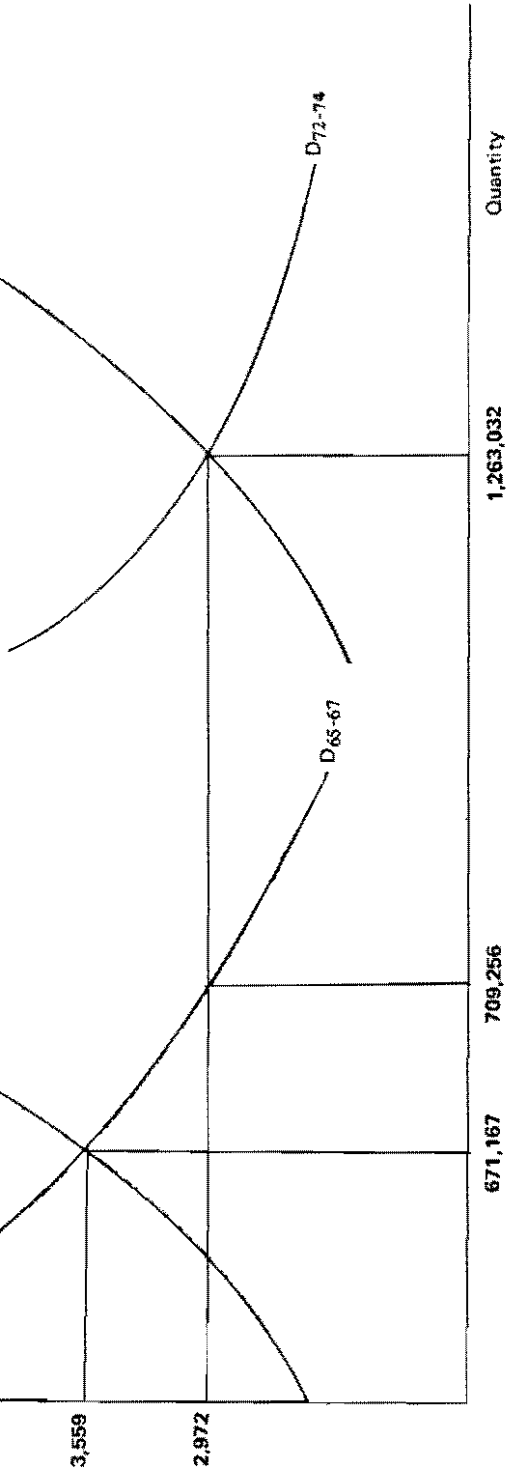


Figure 14. Horizontal shift in the demand curve for rice.

or
$$\frac{PR}{MR} = 0.65$$

The average ratio of (P_f/P_r) for the two periods is 1.96, this results in a value for S_{PR} of 0.24 from (8.10).

It is likely that the substitution possibilities between the production of milled rice are limited, implying that S_{PR} is low. Timmer (1975, p. 406) suggests a method whereby an appropriate

$$\sigma \approx \frac{\% \Delta S_{PR}}{\% \Delta (P_r/P_f)} + 1$$

Using equations (8.10) and (8.11) and superscripts 1967 and 1972-1974, respectively,

$$\sigma \approx \frac{[0.65 (P_f/P_r)^1 - 0.65 (P_f/P_r)^0] / 0.65 (P_f/P_r)^0}{[(P_r/P_f)^1 - (P_r/P_f)^0] / (P_r/P_f)^0}$$

This estimate of σ agrees with the intuitive reasoning that σ would be low. Using these values, E_W and E_N were respectively,

$$\% \Delta (P_r/P_f) |_{dN=0} = E_W (\% \Delta W) = (-0.4) (96.3)$$

and

$$\% \Delta (P_r/P_f) |_{dW=0} = E_N (\% \Delta N) = (-0.33) (78.2)$$

giving a total "net" effect of (38-26) or 12 percent; had behaved in accord with the competitive pricing conditions and had been fully adjusted to the change in the marketing margin, it would have expected a 12 percent increase in the marketing margin rose from 2.36 to 2.95 (see Table 40), or by 25 percent. This suggests in conclusion that this result, rather than merely reflecting the normal competitive marketing sector, merely reflects the changes outlined above. The normal cyclical pattern of rises and falls were occurring. The marketing margin widened somewhat in the competitive forces following the rapid increase in paddy prices, the observed rise being due to the cyclical investment

8.5 Formation of rice prices

In an attempt to partially explain the formation of rice prices in Bogotá, a model presented by Timmer (1974) was built on the following identity:

$$(8.16)$$

of rice, respectively

marketing charges, if $\alpha = 1$, then there are no pro-

charges

to equation (8.16), the model can be fitted using significantly greater than zero, then there is evidence, the costs of marketing are independent of the per of α/c is much less than an expected milling ratio of proportional charges; i.e., costs varying with

estimated:

$$(8.17)$$

= 25.

theses. The estimate of A is significantly greater than zero, the farm price coefficient is 0.69, close to an expected value of 0.5, indicating that the costs of marketing are independent of the per of proportional charges. Hence we conclude that the costs of marketing are independent of the per of proportional charges, confirmed by the constant term. An additional run of equation (8.17) gave a coefficient of 0.25, reflecting the proportion of the crop coming from the marketing sector. This result provides support to the hypothesis that there were no abnormalities associated with the introduction of HYV's. In contrast, the rather widely held contention that an independent marketing sector exercised its market power to capture the benefits of the introduction of new rice varieties.

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY

The principal highlights of this report are:

1. Since 1950 rice production in Latin America has increased at an average rate of 3.6 percent, compared with 2.8 percent for the world.
2. Latin America produced 3.6 percent of world output in 1974. Colombia and Venezuela are the major producers, representing 56 and 23 percent, respectively, of Latin American production in 1974.
3. Until the mid-sixties, yields were constant, but rose to 1.5 percent of the increase in production between 1950 and 1974.
4. Only the Caribbean is a net importing region with a deficit for half the region's total.
5. In 1970 over 75 percent of Latin American exports were to Europe and Africa. Future expansion in exports will likely depend on the development of new markets in Asia and Africa.
6. In 1974 at least 800,000 hectares (or 12 percent of total area) were planted with dwarf varieties.
7. In 1974 Latin American output was 14.5 percent of world output. In the absence of HYV's; excluding Brazil, Latin American output would have been 10.5 percent. In 1972-1973 Asian production was estimated to have increased 1.5 percent to the presence of HYV's.
8. In Colombia the introduction of new varieties of rice is the result of an expanded program of rice research in ICA and the collaboration of CIAT.

rapid and widespread; they now occupy virtually

risen from 1.8 tons/ha in 1965 to 4.4 tons/ha in

ers federation (FEDEARROZ) has undoubtedly
in output.

irrigated culture gave a comparative advantage to
g upland production. In 1966 upland production
n output; in 1975 it was 9 percent.

) as a result of the expanded output. In the period
price was \$1,437 per ton. In 1970-1974 it was
percent. The costs of production per ton fell by
period.

e to other major foodstuffs; in 1965 1 kg of beans
y 1974, it purchased 3.47 kg of rice.

s concentrated in large irrigated holdings. In 1970
0 percent of the national output came from irrigat-

Colombian diet; in 1972 it was the most important
ent) and the second most important source of pro-

e of HYV's was a highly efficient use of public and
rogram was estimated to have generated an inter-
ent.

rice production between 1964 and 1974 was esti-

r than they would have been in the absence of
nsumers were the beneficiaries of the research
d relatively, the greatest net benefits went to the
ifty percent of Colombian households received
ut captured 62 percent of the net benefits from

e received higher prices and had higher incomes in
ties. Small upland producers were the most severe-
they are a minor group (about 6,000 in 1970).

the marketing sector captured abnormal profits
V's.

22. The net benefits were highly skewed toward the producers because most all the additional output was sold on the world market.
23. Protection given to the manufacturing sector has helped to maintain an overvalued exchange rate which has distorted export prices.
24. The domestic price has now fallen to the point where it is no longer profitable to produce.
25. If Colombia becomes a consistent rice exporter, the net benefits from new rice technology will accrue to the producers rather than to Colombian consumers, as has been the case in the past.

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Belize	1	3	3.0	0	1	- 1
Costa Rica	34	53	1.5	0	2	- 2
El Salvador	11	22	2.0	0	0	0
Guatemala	8	8	1.0	0	1	- 1
Honduras	11	17	1.5	0	0	0
Nicaragua	16	23	1.4	2	0	2
Panama	67	85	1.2	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	149	211	1.4	2	4	- 2
Argentina	47	141	3.0	0	0	0
Bolivia	16	18	1.1	0	8	- 8
Brazil	1,967	3,182	1.6	95	0	95
Chile	23	40	1.7	12	0	12
Colombia	133	291	2.1	0	1	- 1
Ecuador	52	113	2.1	62	0	62
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	46	112	2.4	30	0	30
Paraguay	12	19	1.5	0	0	0
Peru	51	207	4.0	0	26	- 26
Surinam	18	50	2.7	4	0	4
Uruguay	12	37	3.0	11	0	11
Venezuela	36	39	1.0	0	28	- 28
SOUTH AMERICA	2,413	4,249	1.7	214	64	150
LATIN AMERICA	2,819	4,865	1.7	244	415	- 171

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1951).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	104	177	1.7	1	0	1
Cuba	74	116	1.5	0	291	291
Other Caribbean	88	123	1.3	0	62	-62
CARIBBEAN	162	239	1.4	0	353	-353
Belize	0	1		0	1	-1
Costa Rica	28	36	1.3	0	0	0
El Salvador	15	31	2.0	0	2	-2
Guatemala	9	11	1.2	0	1	-1
Honduras	11	18	1.6	0	0	0
Nicaragua	19	26	1.3	8	0	8
Panama	66	86	1.3	0	4	-4
CENTRAL AMERICA	148	211	1.4	8	8	0
Argentina	56	174	3.1	0	0	0
Bolivia	18	18	1.1	0	9	-9
Brazil	1 072	2 021	1.5	165	0	165

Costa Rica	29	41	1.4	0	0	0
El Salvador	16	27	1.6	0	0	0
Guatemala	8	10	1.2	0	0	0
Honduras	10	17	1.7	0	0	0
Nicaragua	24	31	1.2	5	0	5
Panama	67	92	1.3	0	3	- 3
CENTRAL AMERICA	155	219	1.4	5	4	1
Argentina	61	194	3.1	2	0	2
Bolivia	15	24	1.6	0	0	0
Brazil	2,072	3,072	1.4	172	0	172
Chile	32	93	2.9	0	4	- 4
Colombia	150	320	2.1	8	0	8
Ecuador	85	126	1.4	57	0	57
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	62	194	3.1	28	0	28
Paraguay	7	16	2.2	0	0	0
Peru	66	277	4.1	0	15	- 15
Surinam	20	54	2.7	9	0	9
Uruguay	15	53	3.5	13	0	13
Venezuela	40	49	1.2	0	3	- 3
SOUTH AMERICA	2,625	4,472	1.7	289	23	266
LATIN AMERICA	3,019	5,138	1.7	296	298	- 2

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1953).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	94	151	1.6	0	0	0
Cuba	85	180	2.1	0	255	-255
Other Caribbean	93	133	1.4	2	66	-64
CARIBBEAN	178	313	1.7	2	321	-319
Belize	1	1	1.0	0	1	-1
Costa Rica	37	48	1.2	0	0	0
El Salvador	14	23	1.6	0	0	0
Guatemala	10	11	1.1	0	0	0
Honduras	11	18	1.6	1	0	1
Nicaragua	34	50	1.4	18	0	18
Panama	79	111	1.4	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	186	262	1.4	19	1	18
Argentina	73	212	2.9	14	0	14

Costa Rica	34	38	1.1	0	0	0
El Salvador	12	24	2.0	2	7	- 5
Guatemala	8	10	1.2	0	1	- 1
Honduras	10	17	1.7	0	2	- 2
Nicaragua	18	25	1.3	10	0	10
Panama	83	99	1.1	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	166	214	1.2	12	12	0
Argentina	55	172	3.1	36	0	36
Bolivia	18	29	1.6	0	0	0
Brazil	2,512	3,737	1.4	0	0	0
Chile	30	93	3.1	1	0	1
Colombia	175	294	1.6	0	31	- 31
Ecuador	63	154	2.4	20	0	- 20
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	59	147	2.4	37	0	37
Paraguay	10	18	1.8	0	-	0
Peru	62	249	4.0	21	0	21
Surinam	22	77	3.5	6	0	6
Uruguay	20	68	3.4	28	0	28
Venezuela	62	102	1.6	0	2	- 2
SOUTH AMERICA	3,088	5,140	1.6	148	34	114
LATIN AMERICA	3,564	5,919	1.6	160	290	-130

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1955),

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	96	210	2.1	0	0	0
Cuba	134	318	2.3	0	108	-108
Other Caribbean	128	150	1.1	0	65	-65
CARIBE	262	468	1.7	0	173	-173
Belize	1	1	1.0	0	1	-1
Costa Rica	36	34	0.9	0	6	-6
El Salvador	10	20	2.0	1	6	-5
Guatemala	8	9	1.1	0	2	-2
Honduras	11	18	1.6	0	2	-2
Nicaragua	19	22	1.1	0	1	-1
Panama	87	98	1.1	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	172	202	1.1	1	18	-17
Argentina	54	164	3.0	32	0	32

Belize	1	1	1.0	0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	53	58	1.0	0	0	0
El Salvador	11	19	1.7	1	4	- 3
Guatemala	10	14	1.4	0	0	0
Honduras	4	7	1.7	1	2	- 1
Nicaragua	21	34	1.6	1	0	1
Panama	89	97	1.0		1	- 1
CENTRAL AMERICA	189	228	1.2	3	9	- 8
Argentina	46	149	3.2	5	1	4
Bolivia	28	59	2.1	0	2	- 2
Brazil	2,966	4,795	1.6	0	0	0
Chile	40	109	2.7	0	16	- 16
Colombia	227	450	1.9	0	0	0
Ecuador	76	175	2.3	27	0	27
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	0	0
Guyana	89	197	2.2	65	0	65
Paraguay	15	32	2.1	0	0	0
Peru	87	358	4.1	0	26	- 26
Surinam	30	81	2.7	23	0	23
Uruguay	14	53	3.7	6	0	6
Venezuela	42	72	1.7	0	27	- 27
SOUTH AMERICA	3,660	6,530	1.7	126	72	54
LATIN AMERICA	4,289	7,581	1.7	131	347	- 216

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1961).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	146	333	2.2	3	0	3
Cuba	150	213	1.4	0	185	-185
Other Caribbean	132	173	1.3	9	80	-71
CARIBBEAN	282	386	1.3	9	266	-256
Belize	1	1	1.0	0	1	-1
Costa Rica	54	61	1.1	0	0	0
El Salvador	9	17	1.8	2	2	0
Guatemala	9	13	1.4	0	0	0
Honduras	4	7	1.7	0	2	-2
Nicaragua	24	39	1.6	0	6	-6
Panama	100	110	1.1	0	1	-1
CENTRAL AMERICA	201	248	1.2	2	12	-10
Argentina	53	182	3.4	10	0	9
Bolivia	30	60	2.0	0	4	-4
Brazil	3 174	5 513	1.7	153	0	151

	1	1	1.0	0	0	0
Costa Rica	50	62	1.2	0	0	0
El Salvador	11	24	2.1	1	4	- 3
Guatemala	10	16	1.6	0	0	0
Honduras	5	7	1.4	1	1	0
Nicaragua	23	37	1.6	4	3	1
Panama	100	111	1.1	0	4	4
CENTRAL AMERICA	200	258	1.2	5	12	- 7
Argentina	52	178	3.4	38	0	38
Bolivia	30	62	2.0	0	8	- 8
Brazil	3,350	5,443	1.6	44	0	44
Chile	33	84	2.5	25	6	19
Colombia	280	585	2.0	4	3	1
Ecuador	110	209	1.9	5	0	5
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	100	203	2.0	80	0	80
Paraguay	16	37	2.3	0	1	- 1
Peru	87	374	4.2	0	1	- 1
Surinam	27	79	2.9	21	0	21
Uruguay	18	61	3.3	25	0	25
Venezuela	69	103	1.4	0	4	- 4
SOUTH AMERICA	4,172	7,418	1.7	242	24	218
LATIN AMERICA	4,802	8,366	1.7	310	283	27

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1963).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	135	296	2.1	0	2	- 2
Cuba	85	140	1.6	0	104	-104
Other Caribbean	50	118	1.9	0	83	- 83
CARIBE	145	258	1.7	0	4	-187
Belize	0	0	0	0	4	- 4
Costa Rica	54	64	1.1	0	0	0
El Salvador	9	20	2.2	2	2	0
Guatemala	11	18	1.6	0	0	0
Honduras	4	6	1.5	0	0	0
Nicaragua	21	29	1.3	1	10	- 9
Panama	103	111	1.0	0	4	- 4
CENTRAL AMERICA	202	248	1.2	3	20	-17
Argentina	54	190	3.5	14	0	14
Bofivia	32	65	2.0	0	0	0

Belize				0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	55	70	1.2	0	0	0
El Salvador	15	31	2.0	2	1	1
Guatemala	11	20	1.8	1	-	1
Honduras	6	8	1.3	0	2	- 2
Nicaragua	23	43	1.8	1	9	- 8
Panama	121	128	1.0	0	5	- 5
CENTRAL AMERICA	231	300	1.2	4	19	-15
Argentina	68	268	3.9	6	0	6
Bolivia	28	63	2.2	0	0	0
Brazil	4,182	6,114	1.4	12	0	12
Chile	31	92	2.9	0	13	-13
Colombia	302	600	1.9	0	0	0
Ecuador	110	164	1.4	11	0	11
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	126	244	1.9	79	0	79
Paraguay	16	37	2.3	0	0	0
Peru	82	351	4.2	0	49	- 49
Surinam	30	88	2.9	14	0	14
Uruguay	21	47	2.2	26	0	26
Venezuela	91	166	1.8	0	2	- 2
SOUTH AMERICA	5,087	8,234	1.6	148	65	83
LATIN AMERICA	5,600	9,073	1.6	152	352	-200

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1965).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)			
MEXICO	153	287	1.8	0	24	- 24
Cuba	38	55	1.4	0	258	-258
Other Caribbean	72	167	2.3	0	85	- 85
CARIBBEAN	110	222	2.0	0	343	-343
Belize	-	-	-	0	1	- 1
Costa Rica	56	74	1.3	0	5	- 5
El Salvador	13	32	2.4	5	3	2
Guatemala	10	17	1.7	3	0	3
Honduras	8	9	1.1	2	2	0
Nicaragua	25	48	1.9	2	9	- 7
Panamá	133	152	1.1	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	245	332	1.3	12	20	- 8
Argentina	47	165	3.5	35	0	35
Bolivia	27	42	1.5	0	0	0

Costa Rica	37	50	1.3	0	6	- 6
El Salvador	16	27	1.6	0	4	- 4
Guatemala	8	10	1.2	0	6	- 6
Honduras	12	20	1.6	0	0	0
Nicaragua	25	30	1.2	0	5	- 5
Panama	85	96	1.1	0	1	- 1
CENTRAL AMERICA	184	235	1.2	0	23	- 23
Argentina	57	193	3.3	37	0	37
Bolivia	17	27	1.5	0	6	- 6
Brazil	2,526	4,072	1.6	103	0	103
Chile	24	64	2.6	0	0	0
Colombia	190	342	1.8	0	0	0
Ecuador	50	126	2.5	12	0	12
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	54	134	2.4	42	0	42
Paraguay	10	23	2.3	0	0	0
Peru	60	246	4.1	0	0	0
Surinam	25	71	2.8	15	1	14
Uruguay	9	57	6.3	35	0	35
Venezuela	40	47	1.1	0	0	0
SOUTH AMERICA	3,061	5,402	1.7	244	8	236
LATIN AMERICA	3,651	6,399	1.7	245	228	17

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1957).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	117	240	2.0	6	0	6
Cuba	109	261	2.3	0	191	-191
Other Caribbean	129	75	0.5	0	78	-178
CARIBBEAN	238	336	1.4	0	269	-269
Belize	1	2	2.0	0	1	- 1
Costa Rica	37	34	0.9	0	4	- 4
El Salvador	16	27	1.6	1	1	0
Guatemala	9	11	1.2	0	4	- 4
Honduras	13	21	1.6	0	1	- 1
Nicaragua	24	33	1.3	2	1	1
Panama	89	86	0.9	0	2	- 2
CENTRAL AMERICA	189	214	1.1	3	14	- 11
Argentina	60	217	3.6	24	0	24

El Salvador	13	20	1.5	1	1	0
Guatemala	10	12	1.2	0	3	- 3
Honduras	11	18	1.6	0	3	- 3
Nicaragua	23	33	1.4	1	3	- 2
Panama	95	114	1.2	0	1	- 1
CENTRAL AMERICA	198	256	1.2	2	17	- 15
Argentina	52	162	3.1	37	0	37
Bolivia	13	21	1.6	0	11	- 11
Brazil	2,683	4,101	1.5	52	0	52
Chile	41	83	2.0	0	4	- 4
Colombia	196	380	1.9	0	0	0
Ecuador	84	155	1.8	28	0	28
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	74	152	2.0	18	0	18
Paraguay	7	16	2.2	0	0	0
Peru	70	249	3.5	0	45	- 45
Surinam	31	85	2.7	15	2	13
Uruguay	18	49	2.7	9	0	9
Venezuela	12	19	1.5	0	40	- 40
SOUTH AMERICA	3,281	5,472	1.6	159	103	56
LATIN AMERICA	3,841	6,412	1.6	168	397	-229

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1959).

Country	Area (⁰ 00 ha)	Prod. (⁰ 00 m.t.)	Yield (tons/ha)	Exports	Imports (⁰ 00 m.t.)	Net exports
MEXICO	127	261	2.0	10	0	10
Cuba	168	326	1.9	0	203	- 203
Other Caribbean	127	176	1.3	0	77	- 77
CARIBBEAN	295	502	1.7	0	280	- 280
Belize	1	1	1.0	0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	58	55	0.9	0	8	- 8
El Salvador	9	19	2.1	1	4	- 3
Guatemala	11	15	1.3	0	1	- 1
Honduras	13	21	1.6	0	1	- 1
Nicaragua	21	32	1.5	2	1	1
Panama	97	119	1.2	0	1	- 1
CENTRAL AMERICA	210	262	1.2	3	18	- 15
Argentina	56	190	3.3	9	3	6

Belize	2	1	0,5	0	1	- 1
Costa Rica	56	82	1,4	0	6	- 6
El Salvador	20	47	2,3	7	6	1
Guatemala	12	18	1,5	0	4	- 4
Honduras	5	5	1,0	0	7	- 7
Nicaragua	24	56	2,3	2	13	11
Panama	131	140	1,0	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	250	349	1,3	9	37	- 28
Argentina	62	217	3,5	46	0	46
Bolivia	28	47	1,6	0	2	- 2
Brazil	4,291	5,050	1,1	278	0	278
Chile	29	89	3,0	0	32	- 32
Colombia	350	680	1,9	0	0	0
Ecuador	100	204	2,0	23	0	23
Fr. Gulana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	125	249	1,9	109	0	109
Paraguay	17	38	2,2	0	0	0
Peru	96	374	3,8	0	58	- 58
Surinam	29	98	3,3	20	0	20
Uruguay	32	107	3,3	45	0	45
Venezuela	104	210	2,0	50	4	46
SOUTH AMERICA	5,263	7,363	1,3	571	97	474
LATIN AMERICA	5,826	8,403	1,4	580	369	211

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1967).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)		('000 m.t.)	
MEXICO	167	430	2.5	0	0	0
Cuba	44	94	2.1	0	31	- 31
Other Caribbean	130	195	1.5	0	101	-101
CARIBBEAN	174	289	1.6	0	132	-132
Belize	2	3	1.5	0	1	- 1
Costa Rica	60	86	1.4	1	6	- 5
El Salvador	28	72	2.5	14	1	13
Guatemala	13	20	1.5	0	2	- 2
Honduras	7	8	1.1	0	7	- 7
Nicaragua	26	64	2.4	0	10	-10
Panama	129	151	1.1	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	265	404	1.5	15	27	-12
Argentina	71	283	3.9	34	0	34
Bolivia	38	66	1.7	0	0	0
Brazil	4 558	5 600	1.2	23	0	23

El Salvador	27	74	2.7	23	20	3
Guatemala	14	24	1.7	2	3	1
Honduras	6	7	1.1	2	7	5
Nicaragua	32	67	2.0	2	12	14
Panama	129	157	1.2	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	245	387	1.5	30	47	- 17
Argentina	88	345	3.9	41	0	41
Bolivia	35	68	1.9	0	0	0
Brazil	4,553	5,300	1.1	143	0	143
Chile	16	37	2.3	0	14	- 14
Colombia	277	786	2.8	0	0	0
Ecuador	60	127	2.1	0	4	- 4
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	0	0
Guyana	127	214	1.6	96	0	96
Paraguay	16	47	2.9	0	0	0
Peru	76	286	3.7	0	29	- 29
Surinam	35	116	3.3	30	0	30
Uruguay	31	104	3.3	19	0	19
Venezuela	115	245	2.1	33	5	28
SOUTH AMERICA	5,429	7,675	1.4	362	52	310
LATIN AMERICA	6,049	8,750	1.4	438	366	72

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1969).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)			
MEXICO	167	351	2.1	0	5	- 5
Cuba	146	205	1.4	0	155	-155
Other Caribbean	145	244	1.6	0	105	-105
CARIBBEAN	291	449	1.5	0	260	-260
Belize	2	2	1.0	0	0	0
Costa Rica	35	62	1.7	5	0	5
El Salvador	22	33	1.5	12	6	14
Guatemala	14	25	1.7	1	3	2
Honduras	5	6	1.2	0	1	- 1
Nicaragua	39	67	1.7	6	0	6
Panama	126	164	1.3	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	243	359	1.4	24	10	14
Argentina	102	407	3.9	74	0	74

Costa Rica	36	66	1.8	0	0	0
El Salvador	27	41	1.5	3	0	3
Guatemala	14	26	1.8	2	2	0
Honduras	5	6	1.2	0	0	0
Nicaragua	43	68	1.5	20	0	20
Panama	122	155	1.2	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	249	365	1.4	25	4	21
Argentina	77	288	3.7	91	0	91
Bolivia	37	62	1.8	0	0	0
Brazil	4,125	6,315	1.5	95	0	95
Chile	26	73	2.8	0	17	- 17
Colombia	233	752	3.2	5	0	5
Ecuador	85	184	2.1	0	1	1
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	119	222	1.8	67	0	67
Paraguay	20	58	2.9	0	0	0
Peru	133	601	4.5	0	6	- 6
Surinam	36	120	3.3	20	0	20
Uruguay	37	140	3.7	42	0	42
Venezuela	110	244	2.2	60	5	55
SOUTH AMERICA	5,038	9,059	1.7	380	30	350
LATIN AMERICA	5,766	10,347	1.7	405	296	-109

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1971).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)			
MEXICO	169	338	2.0	0	1	- 1
Cuba	130	330	2.5	0	284	-284
Other Caribbean	183	312	1.7	0	114	-114
CARIBBEAN	313	642	2.0	0	398	- 398
Belize	2	3	1.5	0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	40	74	1.8	0	16	- 16
El Salvador	28	43	1.5	3	4	- 1
Guatemala	14	26	1.8	0	2	- 2
Honduras	7	6	0	0	3	- 3
Nicaragua	46	72	1.6	8	0	8
Panama	125	165	1.3	0	23	- 23
CENTRAL AMERICA	261	389	1.4	11	50	- 39
Argentina	93	315	3.3	82	0	82
Bolivia	38	77	2.0	0	0	0

Belize	2	4	2.0	0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	32	89	2.7	0	2	- 2
El Salvador	11	36	3.2	0	1	- 1
Guatemala	16	38	2.3	0	2	- 2
Honduras	15	16	1.0	0	5	- 5
Nicaragua	26	74	2.8	5	0	5
Panama	105	125	1.1	0	6	- 6
CENTRAL AMERICA	207	382	1.8	5	18	-13
Argentina	83	294	3.5	8	0	8
Bolivia	46	76	1.6	1	0	1
Brazil	4,821	7,100	1.4	1	9	- 8
Chile	26	86	3.3	0	55	-55
Colombia	273	1,043	3.8	3	0	3
Ecuador	61	171	2.8	0	0	0
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	33	1	32
Guyana	80	147	1.8	71	0	71
Paraguay	22	39	1.7	0	0	0
Peru	131	552	4.2	0	0	0
Surinam	40	130	3.2	33	0	33
Uruguay	31	128	4.1	45	0	45
Venezuela	65	185	2.5	0	2	- 2
SOUTH AMERICA	5,679	9,931	1.7	195	67	128
LATIN AMERICA	6,368	11,377	1.7	216	480	-264

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD AND TRADE IN LATIN AMERICA (1973).

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield	Exports	Imports	Net exports
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)			
MEXICO	170	408	2.4	12	38	-26
Cuba	150	375	2.5	0	220	-220
Other Caribbean	146	271	1.8	0	140	-140
CARIBBEAN	296	646	2.1	0	360	-360
Belize	2	4	2.0	0	2	-2
Costa Rica	32	90	2.8	0	1	-1
El Salvador	7	26	3.7	0	1	-1
Guatemala	19	36	2.0	0	2	-2
Honduras	16	17	1.0	0	5	-5
Nicaragua	28	81	3.0	0	0	0
Panama	105	162	1.5	0	1	-1
CENTRAL AMERICA	208	418	2.0	0	12	-12

Belize	2	4	2.0	0	2	- 2
Costa Rica	55	143	2.6	0	0	0
El Salvador	10	34	3.4	0	0	0
Guatemala	21	67	3.1	0	0	0
Honduras	12	23	1.9	0	4	- 4
Nicaragua	27	73	2.7	27	0	27
Panama	115	159	1.3	0	0	0
CENTRAL AMERICA	242	503	2.1	27	6	21
Argentina	94	363	3.8	48	0	48
Bolivia	42	66	1.5	0	0	0
Brazil	5,075	6,510	1.2	20	0	20
Chile	28	62	2.2	0	22	- 22
Colombia	368	1,569	4.2	1	0	1
Ecuador	94	259	2.7	0	10	- 10
Fr. Guiana	0	0	0	0	1	- 1
Guyana	122	226	1.8	71	0	71
Paraguay	20	40	2.0	0	0	0
Peru	115	456	3.9	0	104	- 104
Surinam	40	130	3.2	35	0	35
Uruguay	44	175	3.9	73	0	73
Venezuela	120	300	2.5	30	0	30
SOUTH AMERICA	6,112	10,156	1.6	278	137	141
LATIN AMERICA	6,806	11,681	1.7	305	623	- 318

APPENDIX TABLE 1 (Cont.) RICE AREA, PRODUCTION, YIELD

Country	Area	Prod.	Yield
	('000 ha)	('000 m.t.)	(tons/ha)
MEXICO	175	435	2.5
Cuba	150	375	2.5
Other Caribbean**	147	323	2.2
CARIBBEAN	297	698	2.4
Belize*			
Costa Rica	55	143	2.6
El Salvador	12	33	2.8
Guatemala	22	64	2.9
Honduras	12	26	2.2
Nicaragua	29	89	3.1
Panama	115	175	1.5
CENTRAL AMERICA	245	530	2.2
Argentina	103	403	3.9
Bolivia	45	75	1.7
Brazil	5,200	6,500	1.3
Chile	24	77	3.2
Colombia	387	1,632	4.2
Ecuador	128	307	2.4
Fr. Guiana			
Guyana	122	305	2.5
Paraguay	20	40	2.0
Peru	117	456	3.9
Surinam	40	130	3.3
Uruguay	45	175	3.9
Venezuela	106	400	3.8
SOUTH AMERICA	6,337	10,500	1.7
LATIN AMERICA	7,054	12,163	1.7

* Not available

** Includes only Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica and Dependence

NOTE: Production is in '000 m.t. paddy; the trade data are in '000 m.t. Zero indicates no values recorded or less than 1,000 m.t.

- Sources: 1. USDA: World agricultural situation, WAS, 7, ERS, Jun.
2. USDA: The agricultural situation, WAS, 7, of the West
3. USDA: Review of world rice markets and major suppliers
4. FAO: Production Yearbooks.
5. FAO: Trade Yearbooks.
6. FAO: World rice economy in figures: 1909-1963 Report
7. All data for 1975 from USDA, Rice Marketing News Vol.

State	% of Prod.	State	% of Prod.	State	% of Prod.	State	% of Prod.
Antioquia	88	Atlántico	56	Antioquia	98	Atlántico	100
Bolívar	94	Caldas	61	Bolívar	80	Caldas	92
Boyacá	85	Cauca	75	Boyacá	68	Cauca	98
Córdoba	91	Cundinamarca	86	Córdoba	91	Cesar	98
Meta	79	Huila	100	Nariño	100	Cundinamarca	97
Nariño	100	Magdalena	91	Santander	63	Huila	100
Santander	77	N. de Santander	80	Sucre	93	La Guajira	95
		Tolima	99			Magdalena	95
		Valle	100			Meta	57
						N. de Santander	74
						Tolima	100
						Valle	100

Appendix Table 3. Distribution of farms and rice area where rice is the principal crop: upland sector* of Colombia, by farm size (1959).

Farm size (ha)	No. of farms	Area of rice (ha)	Area/farm (ha)	Percentage of				Cumulative percentage of			
				Upland total area (%)	Total area (%)	Upland farms (%)	Total farms (%)	Upland area (%)	Total area (%)	Upland farms (%)	Total farms (%)
0 -- 0.5	300	145	0.48	**	**	1	**	—	—	—	—
0.5 -- 1	1,331	691	0.52	1	**	3	2	1	—	3	2
1 -- 2	3,887	2,888	0.74	2	1	9	7	3	1	12	9
2 -- 3	3,553	3,811	1.07	3	2	8	7	6	3	20	16
3 -- 4	2,782	3,710	1.33	3	2	6	5	9	5	26	21
4 -- 5	2,211	3,515	1.59	2	2	5	4	11	7	31	25
5 -- 10	6,238	11,410	1.83	8	5	14	12	19	12	45	37
10 -- 20	6,227	14,340	2.30	10	6	14	12	29	18	59	49
20 -- 30	3,265	8,545	2.62	6	4	7	6	35	22	66	54
30 -- 40	2,369	6,803	2.84	5	3	5	5	40	25	71	59
40 -- 50	1,876	6,117	3.26	4	3	4	4	44	28	75	63
50 -- 100	5,223	21,543	4.12	15	10	11	10	59	38	87	73

0.5	1	152	49	0.32	**	**	2	**	—	—	—	2	—
1	2	490	355	0.72	**	**	6	1	—	—	—	8	1
2	3	428	402	0.94	**	**	5	1	—	—	—	13	2
3	4	256	245	0.96	**	**	3	1	—	—	—	16	3
4	5	168	284	1.69	**	**	2	1	2	1	1	18	4
5	10	757	1,443	1.91	2	1	10	1	4	2	2	28	5
10	20	942	3,009	3.19	3	1	12	2	7	3	40	7	7
20	30	694	2,714	3.91	3	1	9	1	10	4	49	6	8
30	40	589	2,820	4.79	3	1	7	1	13	5	56	0	9
40	50	401	2,223	5.54	3	1	5	1	16	6	61	10	10
50	100	1,282	9,570	7.46	11	4	17	2	27	10	78	12	12
100	200	899	13,761	15.31	16	6	11	2	43	16	89	14	14
200	500	549	21,639	39.42	25	10	7	1	68	26	96	15	15
500	1,000	184	13,950	85.06	16	6	2	**	84	32	98	15	15
1,000	2,500	67	7,562	112.87	9	3	1	**	93	35	99	15	15
2,500	+	26	6,039	232.27	7	3	**	**	100	38	100	15	15
Totals		7,884	86,078	10.92	100	38	100	15	—	—	—	—	—

* States of Atlántico, Caldas, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Huila, Magdalena, Norte de Santander, Tolima and Valle.

** Less Than 0.5%

Appendix Table 5. Distribution of farms and rice area where rice is the principal crop: Colombia, by farm size (1959).

Farm size (ha)	No. of farms	Area of rice (ha)	Area farm (ha)	Percentage of		Cumulative percentage of		Percentage of farms with irrigation (%)
				Total area (%)	Total no. of farms (%)	Total area (%)	Total no. of farms (%)	
0 - 0.5	320	158	0.49	*	1	—	1	6
0.5 - 1	1,483	740	0.50	*	3	—	4	10
1 - 2	4,377	3,243	0.74	1	8	1	12	11
2 - 3	3,981	4,312	1.06	2	7	3	19	11
3 - 4	3,048	3,955	1.30	2	6	5	25	8
4 - 5	2,379	3,799	1.60	2	4	7	29	7
5 - 10	6,995	12,853	1.84	6	13	13	42	11
10 - 20	7,169	17,349	2.42	8	14	21	56	13
20 - 30	3,959	11,259	2.84	5	7	26	63	18
30 - 40	2,988	9,623	3.22	4	6	30	69	20
40 - 50	2,277	8,340	3.68	4	4	34	73	18

	(ha)	(no.)	(ha)	farm (ha)	(kg/ ha)	(m.t.)	Farm (0/o)	Area (0/o)	Prod. (0/o)	Farms (0/o)	Prod. (0/o)	
0	—	2	4,920	3,410	0.69	1,635	5,575	8	1	1	8	1
2	—	5	11,585	13,331	1.15	1,767	23,556	17	6	5	25	6
5	—	10	7,500	12,135	1.62	1,517	18,409	12	5	4	37	10
10	—	20	7,920	14,371	1.81	1,693	24,330	12	6	5	49	15
20	—	60	12,643	34,706	2.74	1,595	55,366	19	14	13	68	28
50	—	200	14,622	75,639	5.17	1,781	134,713	23	31	30	91	58
200	—	500	3,819	41,455	10.85	1,899	78,723	6	17	17	97	75
500	—	2,500	1,926	48,239	25.05	2,367	114,182	3	20	25	100	100
Totals			64,935	243,286	3.75	1,870	454,844	100	100	100	—	—

Source: Adapted from Atkinson (1970,p.25)

Appendix Table 7. Distribution of farms where rice is the principal crop: upland and irrigated regions of Colombia, by farm size (1970).

Farm size (ha)	No. of farms			°/o of farms with irrigation (°/o)	°/o of total farms (°/o)	Cumulative °/o of total farms (°/o)
	Upland sector*	Irrigated sector**	Total no.			
0 -- 1	1,199	89	1,288	7	5	5
1 -- 2	1,872	274	2,146	13	8	13
2 -- 3	1,489	235	1,724	14	6	19
3 -- 4	1,004	146	1,150	13	4	23
4 -- 5	802	161	963	17	4	27
5 -- 10	2,341	487	2,828	17	11	38
10 -- 20	2,406	749	3,155	24	12	50
20 -- 30	1,410	506	1,916	26	7	57
30 -- 40	1,054	449	1,503	30	6	63
40 -- 50	909	397	1,306	30	5	68
50 -- 100	2,609	1,133	3,742	30	14	82
100 -- 200	1,367	1,408	2,775	51	11	93

0 - 2	6,180	4,920	3,434	12	8	13
2 - 5	9,180	4,920	3,424	12	17	14
5 - 10	6,995	7,500	2,828	13	12	11
10 - 20	7,169	7,920	3,155	13	12	12
20 - 50	9,224	12,643	4,725	17	19	18
50 - 200	10,639	14,622	6,517	20	23	24
200 - 500	2,464	3,819	1,706	5	6	6
500 - 2,500	1,010	1,926	626	2	3	2
2,500 +	194	—	113	**	—	**

Totals	53,283	64,935	26,941	100	100	100
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* For 1959 and 1970, the data relate to farms where rice is the principal crop; for 1966 to all farms producing rice.

** Less than 0.5%.

Appendix Table 9. Distribution of Colombian rice farms and area (1966) and estimated values for 1970.

Farm size (ha)	No. of farms		Area of rice (ha)		Percentage of			
	1966	1970	1966	1970	Farms (%)		Area (%)	
					1966	1970	1966	1970
0 - 2	4,920	6,242	3,410	3,401	8	13	1	2
2 - 5	11,585	6,975	13,331	10,048	17	14	6	4
5 - 10	7,500	5,140	12,135	10,729	12	11	5	5
10 - 20	7,920	5,736	14,371	14,678	12	12	6	6
20 - 50	12,643	8,588	34,706	24,656	19	18	14	11
50 - 200	14,622	11,848	75,639	64,214	23	24	31	27

5 - 10	6,238	2,341	14	12	757	487	10	7
10 - 20	6,227	2,406	14	12	942	749	12	11
20 - 30	3,265	1,410	7	7	594	506	9	7
30 - 40	2,399	1,054	5	6	589	449	7	7
40 - 50	1,876	909	4	5	401	397	5	6
50 - 100	5,223	2,609	11	13	1,282	1,133	17	16
100 - 200	3,236	1,367	7	7	899	1,408	11	20
200 - 500	1,915	1,120	4	6	549	566	7	8
500 - 1,000	528	209	1	1	164	193	2	3
1,000 - 2,500	251	72	1	*	67	152	1	2
2,500 +	168	37	*	*	26	76	*	1
Totals	45,399	19,900	100	100	7,884	7,041	100	100

* Less than 0.5%

Appendix Table 11. Yields of rice in irrigation districts of INCORA* by variety (1970-1974).

Variety	1970**	1971	1972	1973	1974	Annual av
	(m.t./ha)					
Starbonnet	—	5.9	5.4	—	—	5.7
Bluebonnet-50	4.6	3.5	5.0	—	—	4.4
Bluebelle	5.0	4.8	—	—	—	4.9
Group av	4.8	4.8	5.2	—	—	5.0
Surinam	6.2	—	—	—	—	6.2
Tapuripa	7.0	6.5	5.4	—	—	6.3
Monteria	—	5.7	6.2	—	—	6.0
Tencali	5.2	—	—	—	—	5.2

1968	196,977	1,668	328,558	696,732	368,174	4,221	87,224	126,925	39,701
1969	201,656	1,637	330,111	742,968	412,857	4,092	100,894	115,890	14,996
1970	206,037	1,637	337,282	792,272	454,990	4,945	92,010	112,100	20,090
1971	209,822	1,590	333,617	844,847	511,230	5,061	101,014	144,380	43,366
1972	213,905	1,555	332,622	900,911	568,289	5,174	109,836	170,620	60,784
1973	217,392	1,556	338,262	960,695	622,433	5,318	117,043	192,020	74,977
1974	220,581	1,570	346,312	1,024,447	678,134	5,200	130,410	272,950	142,540

* From Figure 7

** From Table 11

Appendix Table 13. Estimates of the additional irrigated area sown due to the presence of HYV's: Colombia (1968-1974); assumption (B).

Year	Upland sector				Irrigated sector				
	Area in absence of HYV's (B) (ha)	Yield* (kg/ha)	Prod. (m.t.)	National demand (m.t.)	Prod. needed (m.t.)	Yield* (kg/ha)	Area (ha)		
							Required (A _{N,t})	Actual (A _{1,t})	Additional (A _{A,t})
1968	130,925	1,668	218,383	696,732	478,349	4,221	113,326	126,925	13,599
1969	130,925	1,637	214,324	742,968	528,644	4,092	129,190	115,890	0
1970	130,925	1,637	214,324	792,272	577,948	4,945	116,875	112,100	0
1971	130,925	1,590	208,171	844,847	626,676	5,051	125,200	114,000	11,200

Algeria			0.4	FAO (1971)
Angola			1.0	FAO (1971)
Argentina	0.4	-0.3		USDA (1971)
Argentina			0.1	FAO (1971)
Argentina		-0.435	0.536	de Janvry et al. (1972)
Asia and Far East			0.3	FAO (1971)
Australia			0.0	FAO (1971)
Australia and New Zealand	0.3	-0.3		USDA (1971)
Austria			0.3	FAO (1971)
Bangladesh	0.13 (SR) ¹ 0.19 (LR) ²	-0.1805		Cummings (1974)
Belgium				
Luxemburg			0.2	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity		Source
	Supply	Demand			
Bolivia			0.5		FAO (1971)
Brazil			0.2		FAO (1971)
Brazil			<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>	
Northeast			0.53	0.53	Getulio Vargas
East			0.30	0.19	Foundation (1968)
South			<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.14</u>	
Total			0.33	0.21	
Brazil	0.31 (SR)				Pastore (1971a)
	1.17 (LR)				
Brazil	0.31 (SR)	-0.10			Pariago (1969)

Burundi			0.8	FAO (1971)
Cameroon			1.2	FAO (1971)
Canada		-0.3		USDA (1971)
Canada			0.2	FAO (1971)
Caribbean			0.29	FAO (1971)
Central Africa			0.75	FAO (1971)
Central Africa Rep.			1.3	FAO (1971)
Central America			0.27	FAO (1971)
Central America and Mexico	0.4	-0.5		USDA (1971)
Ceylon			0.4	FAO (1971)
Chad			1.1	FAO (1971)
Chile			0.4 (H)	Universidad Católica (1969)
China (P.R.)			0.4	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Colombia			0.5	FAO (1971)
Colombia		-0.754	0.982	Cruz de Schlesinger and Ruiz (1967)
Colombia	0.235	-1.372		Gutiérrez and Hertford (1974)
Colombia			0.6	ECLA (1969)
Colombia (Cali)			0.48 (L) ³	Motta (1969)
			0.27 (M) ⁴	
			0.04 (H) ⁵	
Colombia (Cali)		-0.426 (VI) ⁶	0.41 (VI)	P. Pinstrup-Andersen

Dahomey			1.2	FAO (1971)
Denmark			0.3	FAO (1971)
Dominican Republic			0.6	FAO (1971)
El Salvador			0.5	Battelle Mem. Inst. (1969)
El Salvador			0.6	FAO (1971)
Ecuador			0.5	FAO (1971)
Ethiopia			0.6	FAO (1971)
Eastern S. Am.	0.4	-0.3		USDA (1971)
East Africa	0.2	-0.3		USDA (1971)
East Africa			0.17	FAO (1971)
East Asia and Pacific	0.3	-0.3		USDA (1971)
Eastern Europe	0.3	-0.3		USDA (1971)
Eastern Europe			0.18	FAO (1971)
EEC	0.3	-0.3		USDA (1971)
EEC			0.11	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Finland			0.0	
France		-0.1		Centre de Recherches (1967)
France			0.2	FAO (1971)
Gabon			1.2	FAO (1971)
Gambia			0.2	FAO (1971)
Germany (D.R.)			0.1	FAO (1971)
Germany (West)			0.3	FAO (1971)
Ghana			0.8	FAO (1971)
Greece			0.3	FAO (1971)
Guatemala			0.6	FAO (1971)
Guinea			0.4	FAO (1971)

Israel			0.1	FAO (1971)
Italy		-0.2		FAO (1965)
Italy			0.0	FAO (1971)
Ivory Coast			0.5	FAO (1971)
Jamaica			0.4	FAO (1971)
Japan	0.4	-0.3		USDA (1971)
Japan	0.2	-0.2		Akino and Hayami (1975)
Japan			0.1	FAO (1971)
Japan	0.007 (SR)			Arromdee (1968)
	0.03 (LR)	-0.3	0.16	
Jordan			0.6	FAO (1971)
Kenya			0.7	FAO (1971)
Khmer Rep.			0.4	FAO (1971)
Korea (North)			0.4	FAO (1971)
Korea (Rep.)			0.3	FAO (1971)
Latin America			0.25	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Laos			0.4	FAO (1971)
Liberia			0.1	FAO (1971)
Libia			0.8	FAO (1971)
Lebanon			0.3	FAO (1971)
Madagascar			0.4	FAO (1971)
Malaysia			0.19	FAO (1971)
Malaysia	0.5	-0.3		Chew (1971)
Malawai			1.2	FAO (1971)
Mali			0.5	FAO (1971)
Malta			0.3	FAO (1971)

Nicaragua			0.4	FAO (1971)
Niger			1.0	FAO (1971)
Nigeria			0.9	FAO (1971)
North Africa	0.3	-0.5		USDA (1971)
Norway			0.4	FAO (1971)
Oceania			0.01	FAO (1971)
Other Western Europe	0.3	-0.3	0.24	USDA (1971) FAO (1971)
Pakistan		-0.529		Basit (1971)
Pakistan			0.3	FAO (1971)
Pakistan (Punjab)	0.31			Hussain (1964)
Panama			0.2	FAO (1971)
Paraguay			0.3	FAO (1971)
Peru	0.5	-0.1	1.40	Merrill (1967)
Peru			0.3	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Peru			0.3	Van de Wetering and Cureo (1966)
Peru			0.21 (U) 0.46 (R) 0.27 (AV)	Universidad Agraria (1969)
Philippines	0.09	-0.23		Barker (1966)
Philippines		-0.5	0.4	Mears and Barker (1966)
Philippines		-0.3		Nasol (1971)
Philippines	0.3 (SR)			Mangahas et al. (1966)
	0.5 (LR)		0.2	FAO (1971)
			0.2	FAO (1971)

South Africa	0.1	-0.3		USDA (1971)
South Africa			0.5	FAO (1971)
South America				
South Asia	0.3	-0.3		USDA (1971)
South Asia				
Southeast Asia	0.3	-0.1		USDA (1971)
Spain			0.1	FAO (1971)
Sudan			1.2	FAO (1971)
Surinam				
Sweden			0.0	FAO (1971)
Switzerland			0.1	FAO (1971)
Taiwan			0.3	FAO (1971)
Tanzania			0.5	FAO (1971)
Thailand	0.5	-0.65	0.2	Arromdee (1968)
Thailand	0.18 (SR)			Behrman (1968)
	0.31 (LR)			

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Thailand			0.2	FAO (1971)
Togo			0.8	FAO (1971)
Trinidad Tobago			0.1	FAO (1971)
Tunisia			0.4	FAO (1971)
Turkey			0.4	FAO (1971)
Uganda			1.0	FAO (1971)
Upper Volta			0.9	FAO (1971)
United Arab. Rep.			0.3	FAO (1971)
United Kingdom		-0.4		USDA (1971)
United Kingdom			0.0	FAO (1971)
USA	0.2	-0.2		USDA (1971)

		-0.21 (U-N)	0.11 (U-H)	
Vietnam (North)			0.3	FAO (1971)
			0.5	FAO (1971)
			0.5	FAO (1971)
Vietnam (Rep.)			0.4	FAO (1971)
West Africa	0.1	-0.4		USDA (1971)
West Africa			0.67	FAO (1971)
West Asia	0.25	-0.3		USDA (1971)
West Malaysia	0.23 (SR)	-0.35	0.4	Arromdee (1968)
	1.35 (LR)			
			0.2	FAO (1971)
Western Europe			0.16	FAO (1971)
World			0.23	FAO (1971)
Western Am.	0.3	-0.3		FAO (1971)
Yemen (P.D.R.)			0.7	FAO (1971)

Appendix Table 14 (cont.)

Country or region	Price elasticity		Income elasticity	Source
	Supply	Demand		
Yemen (Arab Rep.)			1.0	FAO (1971)
Yugoslavia			0.2	FAO (1971)
Zambia			1.0	FAO (1971)

1. Short run

1966	0.118	0.32	0.750	2.043
1967	0.118	0.32	0.750	2.043
1968	0.116	0.279	0.748	1.778
1969	0.116	0.279	0.748	1.778
1970	0.116	0.279	0.748	1.778
1971	0.116	0.279	0.748	1.779
1972	0.115	0.253	0.750	1.612
1973	0.115	0.253	0.750	1.612

* Each set of supply elasticities was run with three demand elasticities (-0.3, -0.449 and -0.754) to give six sets of results.

Appendix Table 16. **Gross benefits* to consumers and producers of new rice varieties in Colombia** ($\eta = -0.300$ and $\epsilon = 0.235$).

Year	Consumer gains	Foregone income to producers			Total gross benefits
		Upland	Irrigated	Total	
(\$m)					
1964	4.6	-1.6	-1.9	-3.5	1.1
1965	29.3	-12.0	-10.2	-22.2	7.1
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	95.9	-41.3	-32.9	-74.2	21.7
1968	1,450.9	-339.3	-534.6	-1,073.9	377.0
1969	847.5	-304.9	-323.4	-628.3	219.2

1965	29.2	-12.0	-13.3	-25.3	3.9
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	95.9	-41.3	-45.4	-86.7	9.2
1968	1,450.9	-539.3	-646.8	-1,186.1	264.8
1969	847.6	-304.9	-420.1	-725.0	122.6
1970	1,488.9	-479.0	-734.6	-1,213.6	275.3
1971	2,419.9	-605.7	-1,319.3	-1,925.0	494.9
1972	5,617.8	-1,376.2	-2,900.0	-4,276.2	1,341.6
1973	10,257.5	-2,410.4	-5,137.2	-7,547.6	2,709.9
1974	30,886.3	-6,531.8	-15,721.8	-22,253.6	8,632.7

Appendix Table 16 (Cont.). **Gross benefits to consumers and producers of new rice varieties in Colombia ($\eta = -0.449$ and $\epsilon_t = 1.500$).**

Year	Consumer gains	Foregone income to producers			Total gross benefits
		Upland	Irrigated	Total	
(\$m)					
1964	3.0	-1.1	-1.4	-2.5	0.5
1965	19.5	-8.0	-7.6	-15.6	3.9
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	63.0	-27.1	-27.1	-54.2	8.8
1968	823.6	-304.0	-320.1	-624.1	199.5
1969	495.0	-177.7	-227.1	-404.8	90.2

1965	11.6	-4.7	-0.1	-4.8	6.8
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	37.0	-15.9	-0.2	-16.1	20.9
1968	431.9	-158.6	-5.8	-164.4	267.5
1969	265.2	-94.6	-15.6	-110.2	155.0
1970	408.3	-128.8	-30.1	-158.9	249.4
1971	593.0	-143.9	-80.8	-224.7	368.3
1972	984.6	-223.4	-131.3	-354.7	629.9
1973	1,491.2	-315.1	-172.4	-487.3	1,003.7
1974	3,164.8	-567.4	-417.9	-985.3	2,179.5

Appendix Table 16 (Cont.). **Gross benefits to consumers and producers of new rice varieties in Colombia** ($\eta = -0.754$ and $\epsilon_t = 1.500$).

Year	Consumer gains	Foregone income to producers			Total gross benefits
		Upland	Irrigated	Total	
(\$m)					
1964	1.8	-0.7	-0.6	-1.3	0.5
1965	11.6	-4.8	-3.0	-7.8	3.8
1966	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1967	37.0	-15.9	-12.7	-28.6	8.4
1968	431.9	-158.6	-118.0	-276.6	155.3
1969	265.2	-94.6	-102.3	-196.9	68.3

GLOSSARY

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