# INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR **IIASA** APPLIED SYSTEMS ANALYSIS

#### SYMPOSIUM PROCEEDINGS

# MULTILEVEL COMPUTER MODEL OF WORLD DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

FXTRACT
from the
PROCEEDINGS OF THE SYMPOSIUM
HELD AT IIASA, LAXENBURG
April 29 — May 3, 1974

M. MESAROVIC & E. PESTEL, EDITORS

**VOLUME III** 

SCHLOSS LAXENBURG A-2361 AUSTRIA

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SPECIFICATION OF SUBMODELS AND LINKAGES



#### III.1. CONSTRUCTION OF POPULATION SUBMODELS

K.H. Oehmen, W. Paul

### Report on the Population Model

# by K.H. Oehmen and W. Paul

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#### 1. The Basic Model

Within the framework of the M-P regionalized world model one of the most important submodels is the population model which serves two main purposes:

- (1) To study the population growth in the ten regions under certain population policies and as influenced by the other submodels (e.g. the food model) with which the population model interacts.
- (2) To investigate the influence of population development on important issues embodied in the other submodels (e.g. economic, ecological, food, energy, etc.)

In our model the population development is determined as follows: Based on the input represented by the population number living at the middle of year t and by the age-specific probabilities to bear a child (fertility) or, respectively, to die (mortality) within the coming twelve months, the output i.e. the population alive at the middle of year t+1 is calculated. While the output serves to influence other submodels, fertility and mortality depend on population policies and the output of other submodels.

Our calculations are carried out separately for each of the ten regions of the M-P world model, each based on its own complete set of initial and other relevant data (Fig. 1). Accordingly, the degree of detail embodied in the model is limited by the requirement that the needed coefficients and parameters must be available in numerical form for all regions. The software is such that arbitrary aggregations of

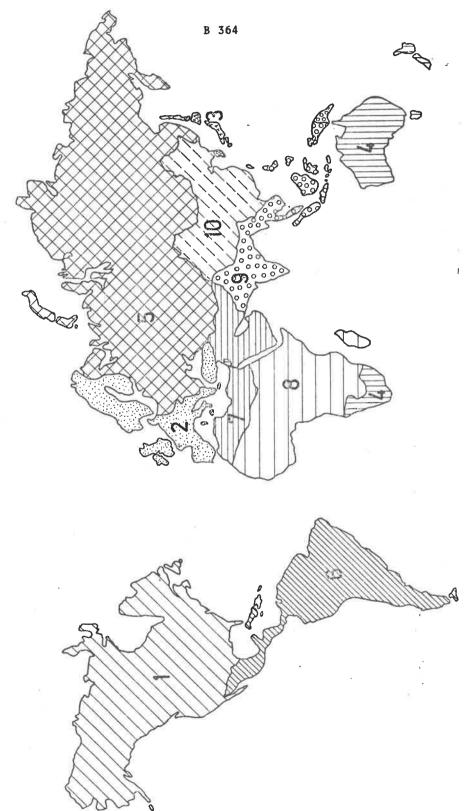


Fig. 1: The 10 Regions of the M-P World Model

different regions are possible, e.g. aggregating the ten regions into two macro-regions N (North) and S (South).

In order to give as true a picture of the dynamic nature of population growth as possible, we divided the total population into eighty-six age-groups such that we employ in each such group an age-specific fertility and mortality.

Our two independent variables are the time t and the age a. For both variables we use one year as the time-increment in our stepwise calculations. The time t runs from 1950 to the year 2100, the age a from 1 to 86, a = 86 meaning older than 85. The dependent variable is the population number P (a,t) =  $P_a^t$ , which denotes the number of people alive at the middle of year t (7/1/t) who were born between July 1 of the year t-a and June 30 of the year t-a+1. In the age-group  $P_{86}^t$  we find all living people that were born before July 1 of the year t-85. In our computer program the numbers  $P_a^t$  (a = 1, 2, ..., 86) are stored as a vector AP (L); L = 1, 2, ..., 86; they are calculated anew for every year.

Further important quantities are:

 $T_a^{\mbox{t}}$  — Number of people who died between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1, as subset contained in  $P_a^{\mbox{t}}$ 

 $<sup>\</sup>text{B}_{a}^{t}$  — Number of people who gave birth to children between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1, as subset contained in  $\text{P}_{a}^{t}$ 

 ${\rm I}_a^t$  — Difference between immigrants and emigrants in the time-interval between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1, as subset contained in  ${\rm P}_a^t$ 

 $Pop^{t}$ — Total number of people alive on 7/1/t

Babt Babies born between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1

Tot $^{t}$ — People who died between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1

 $\operatorname{Imi}^{\mathsf{t}}$  — Difference between Immigrants and Emigrants between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1

The demographic quantity known as "crude birth rate" is defined by the relationship

$$cbr^{t} = Bab^{t-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot Pop^{t}$$
 (1.1)

i.e. as the number of babies in year t referred to the total population alive at the middle of this year. The other important demographic term known as "crude death rate" is defined in analogous manner:

$$cdr^{t} = Tot^{t - \frac{1}{2}} \cdot Pop^{t}$$
 (1.2)

i.e. as the number of people who died in the year t referred to the total population alive at the middle of this year. Both quantities are to a great extent available in the literature [1,2] for the time-span between 1950 and 1970, and hence they serve here as basic values for the calculation of fertility and mortality. With the aid of equations (1.1) and (1.2) we define the following average values:

$$Bab^{t} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ Bab^{t-\frac{1}{2}} + Bab^{t+\frac{1}{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ cbr^{t} \cdot Pop^{t} + cbr^{t+1} \cdot Pop^{t+1} \right]$$
 (1.3)

$$Tot^{t} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ Tot^{t - \frac{1}{2}} + Tot^{t + \frac{1}{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ cdt^{t} \cdot Pop^{t} + cdt^{t+1} \cdot Pop^{t+1} \right]$$
 (1.4)

Now in order to obtain through our computations variable agestructures we have to introduce age-specific probabilities, namely fertility and mortality.

The fertility f (a,t) =  $f_a^t$  defines the probability that a person will produce a child between July 1 of year t and July 1 of year t+1 in an age between  $(a-\frac{1}{2})$  and  $(a+\frac{1}{2})$ . Accordingly we calculate  $f_a^t$  from given data, by dividing the number of babies born between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1, whose mothers belonged at the time of giving birth to the age-group between  $(a-\frac{1}{2})$  and  $(a+\frac{1}{2})$ , by the average total number of people of that same age-group alive in the same time-interval.

The mortality m  $(a, t) = m_a^t$  is defined in analogous manner. Accordingly  $m_a^t$  is computed by dividing the number of people, who died in the time interval between 7/1/t and 7/1/t+1 in an age between  $(a-\frac{1}{2})$  and  $(a+\frac{1}{2})$  by the average total number of people belonging to the same age-group alive in the same time-interval.

In order to facilitate our computational work we split  $f_a^t$  and  $m_a^t$  each into two factors as follows:

$$f_a^t = cf^t \cdot af_a^t$$

and 
$$m_a^t = cm^t \cdot am_a^t$$

The introduction of the time-dependent factors cf and cm has certain advantages from a programming point of view since it facilitates the computational work for certain strategies. Otherwise it is without importance. The age-specific probabilities  $af_a^t \quad \text{and} \quad am_a^t \quad \text{are normalized in such way that for each the sum over a from 1 to 86 yields one. }$ 

The calculations proceed in the following manner. Starting with the given initial vector  $P_a^t$ ;  $a=1,\,2,\,\ldots$ , 86 the quantities  $P_{a+1}^{t+1}$ ;  $a=1,\,2,\,\ldots$ , 85 and  $P_1^{t+1}$  are calculated. Naturally, for each year t the two probability-vectors  $f_a^t$  and  $m_a^t$  must be known, either indirectly from data (1950 - 1970), or as prescribed by certain population strategies, and/or due to feedbacks from other submodels. Strictly speaking, the quantities  $B_a^t$  and  $T_a^t$  are calculated from the following expressions:

$$B_{a}^{t} = f_{a}^{t} \cdot P_{a + \frac{1}{2}}^{t + \frac{1}{2}}$$
 (1.5)

$$T_{\alpha}^{t} = m_{\alpha}^{t} \cdot P_{\alpha + \frac{1}{2}}^{t + \frac{1}{2}}$$
 (1.6)

Here,  $P_{a+1/2}^{t+1/2}$  could be found as the arithmetic mean of  $P_a^t$  and  $P_{a+1}^{t+1}$ ; but this would lead to clumsy implicit equations for  $cf^t$  and  $cm^t$  which are needed for the time-span between 1950 and 1970. We employed therefore the following simplified expressions:

$$B_{\alpha}^{t} = cf^{t} \cdot \alpha f_{\alpha}^{t} \cdot P_{\alpha}^{t}$$
; {  $\alpha = 1, 2, ..., 86$  }

$$Bab^{t} = \sum_{\alpha=2}^{86} B_{\alpha}^{t}$$
 (1.8)

and

$$T_a^t = cm^t \cdot am_a^t \cdot P_a^t$$
,  $\{a = 1, 2, ..., 86\}$  (1.9)

$$T_0^t = cm^t \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}^t \cdot (\frac{1}{2} \cdot Bab^t)$$
 (1.10)

$$Tot^{t} = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{86} T_{\alpha}^{t} \tag{1.11}$$

These simplified expressions do not introduce any errors into the aggregated quantities  $\mathsf{Bab}^t$  and  $\mathsf{Tot}^t$ , since  $\mathsf{cf}^t$  and  $\mathsf{cm}^t$  cancel out the error incurred by substituting  $\mathsf{P}^t_a$  for  $\mathsf{P}^{t+1/2}_{a+1/2}$ . On the other hand, the probabilities  $\mathsf{am}^t_a$  and  $\mathsf{af}^t_a$  are only slightly affected, i.e. by less than 1/2 %, since  $\mathsf{P}^t_a$  is only slightly larger than  $\mathsf{P}^{t+1/2}_{a+1/2}$ , on the average by  $\frac{1}{2}\,\mathsf{cdr}^t$ . Only  $\mathsf{P}^{t+1/2}_{1/2}$ , must be calculated separately, since  $\mathsf{P}^t_o$  is zero and  $\mathsf{P}^{t+1}$  comprises all babies who are on July 1 of the year t+1 less than one year old. Hence we substitute for  $\mathsf{P}^{t+1/2}_{1/2}$  as an approximation  $\frac{1}{2}\cdot\mathsf{Bab}^t$ .

In this manner we obtain simple relationships for  $B_a^t$  and  $T_a^t$  where the errors influence only the accuracy of the probability distributions, however to a far less degree than is involved by the uncertainty of our data base.

Before we turn to our calculation proper, a few remarks dealing with the regional population in- and out-flow. The difference  $\operatorname{Imi}^t$  between immigrants and emigrants must also be distributed onto the various age-groups. Since the quotient  $\operatorname{Imi}^t$  /  $\operatorname{Pop}^t$  is for all regions less than 1 %, and since our data base is very weak in this respect, we use the following distribution:

$$I_a^t = \text{Imi}^t / 50; \ a = 2, 3, ..., 51$$
 (1.12)  
 $I_a^t = 0$  ;  $a = 1, 52, ...$ 

This agrees sufficiently well with the UN-data, as far as they are available. These data show that immigrants are rarely older than 50 years and that the age-distribution is rather linear (DY 70).

Besides, from 1970 on, each region is treated as a closed region with  ${\rm Imi}^{t}$  = 0 (t>1970); only until 1970 immigrants and emigrants are taken into account in order to be able to use all available data on  ${\rm Pop}^{t}$ ,  ${\rm cbr}^{t}$  and  ${\rm cdr}^{t}$ , while avoiding redundancy.

This means that between 1950 and 1970 the quantity  $\operatorname{Imi}^t$  is predetermined by  $\operatorname{Pop}^t$ ,  $\operatorname{cbr}^t$ ,  $\operatorname{cdr}^t$  and  $\operatorname{Pop}^{t+1}$ .

In the developed countries with reliable data the thus obtained values  $\mathrm{Imi}^t$  nearly coincide with the difference between immigrants and emigrants. In the developing countries, however,  $\mathrm{Imi}^t$  serves chiefly to absorb the inaccuracies in the data for cbr and cdr. Hence, we define  $\mathrm{Imi}^t$  as follows:

$$Imi^{t} = Pop^{t+1} - Pop^{t} - Bab^{t} + Tot^{t}$$
;  $t < 1970$ 

$$Imi^{t} = 0; t > 1970$$

Returning now to the calculation of the age-group populations, we have the following set of equations:

$$p_1^{t+1} = Bab^t - T_o^t$$
 (1.14)

$$P_{a+1}^{t+1} = P_a^t - T_a^t + I_a^t; a = 1, 2, ..., 84$$
 (1.15)

$$P_{86}^{t+1} = P_{85}^{t} = T_{85}^{t} + P_{86}^{t} = T_{86}^{t}$$
 (1.16)

$$Pop^{t+1} = \sum_{a=1}^{86} P_a^{t+1}$$
 (1.17)

The equations (1.7) - (1.17) represent our basic population model and allow the calculation of  $P_a^{t+1}$  (a = 1, 2, ..., 86) for given  $P_a^t$ ,  $af_a^t$ ,  $am_a^t$ ,  $cf^t$  and  $cm^t$ .

Set of basic equations:

$$B_{\alpha}^{t} = \operatorname{cf}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{af}_{\alpha}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{P}_{\alpha}^{t} \qquad (1.7)$$

$$Bab^{t} = \sum_{\alpha=2}^{86} B_{\alpha}^{t} \qquad (1.8)$$

$$T_{o}^{t} = \operatorname{cm}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{am}_{\frac{1}{2}}^{t} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \operatorname{Bab}^{t} \right] \qquad (1.10)$$

$$T_{\alpha}^{t} = \operatorname{cm}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{am}_{\alpha}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{P}_{\alpha,i}^{t} = \operatorname{a=1,...,86} \qquad (1.9)$$

$$Tot^{t} = \sum_{n=0}^{86} T_{\alpha}^{t} \qquad (1.11)$$

$$lmi^{t} = Pop^{t-1} - Pop^{t} - Bab^{t} + Tot^{t}$$
 till 1970  
= 0 since 1970

$$I_{\alpha}^{t} = \frac{1}{50} \cdot \text{Imi}^{t}_{j} \quad \alpha = 2,...,51$$
  
= 0  $j \quad \alpha = 1,52,...,86$  (1.12)

$$P_1^{t+1} = Bab^t - T_o^t = Bab^t \cdot \left[1 - \frac{1}{2}cm^t \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}^t\right]$$
 (1.14)

$$P_{a \neq 1}^{t+1} = P_a^t - T_a^t + I_a^t = P_a^t \cdot \left[ 1 - cm^t \cdot am_a^t \right] + I_a^t$$
 (1.15)

$$P_{86}^{t+1} = P_{85}^{t} \cdot \left[ 1 - cm^{t} \cdot am_{85}^{t} \right] + P_{86}^{t} \left[ 1 - cm^{t} \cdot am_{86}^{t} \right]$$
 (1.16)

$$Pop^{t+1} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{86} P_{\alpha}^{t+1}$$
 (1.17)

Supplementary equations till 1970:

$$Bab^{t} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ cbr^{t} \cdot Pop^{t} + cbr^{t+1} \cdot Pop^{t+1} \right]$$
 (1.3)

$$Tot^{t} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[ cdr^{t} \cdot Pop^{t} + cdr^{t+1} \cdot Pop^{t+1} \right]$$
 (1.4)

#### 2. Data base of the demographic model

Fig. 1 shows the 10 regions for which we have plotted the midyear population (Figs. 2 - 11). The data used were taken from the United Nations' Demographic Yearbooks which have been published annually since 1949. In these yearbooks available relevant data on population development are given nation-by-nation. In most cases the data come from national government sources. Not always are they very reliable, but they constitute practically the only data source available.

The demographic model uses the following time series and age distributions:

- (i) UN midyear population estimates from 1950 to 1970.
- (ii) Crude birth rates from 1950 to 1970.
- (iii) Death rates from 1950 to 1970.
- (iv) Population age distribution in 1950 or in the earliest available year.
- (v) Birth distribution over mother age in 1970 or in the latest available year.
- (vi) Death distribution over age in 1970 or in the latest available year.
- (vii) Population age distribution in the years used in (v)
   and (vi).

The immigration rates were not available in sufficient detail and were treated in the model as the difference between total population as

known and total population computed from (i) to (vii). Comparison with the immigration data of the developed nations, which are relatively precise and complete, shows that the computed immigration rates fit the data rather well. This is a first indication of the quality of the model but also of the lack of precision of population data from some nations.

In the following we review the data used for the demographic model. They are discussed with respect to their origin and reliability, then aggregated data are represented graphically, the mode of data preparation is described, the various data are listed, and finally missing data are discussed. Although almost all data are derived from UN Demographic Yearbooks, comparison with other data sources is made wherever possible.

# 2.1 Estimates of midyear population from 1950 to 1970

- (1) Origin: UN Demographic Yearbook 1970, Table 4. This table is the only complete table available. It includes all nations with more than 10.000 population. The data are given in millions of inhabitants.
- (2) Reliability: Data are either the results of official population census, UN estimates, or-in the absence of such sources the unrevised estimates of national governments. Although the table is complete in the sense that all nations are represented, the share of data labeled inconsistant by the UN is particularly large for the less developed countries. Nevertheless, this table seems to yield the most reliable of all data used for our model.

(3) Mode of data preparation: The annual data of the individual nations are summed within regions. From the midyear values the crude growth rate cgr is computed according to the UN definition

$$cgr(t) = \frac{P(t) - P(t-1)}{P(t-1)}$$

The simple program given in the listing 1 is self-explanatory (UH 252 calls the plot subroutine).

(4) Graphic representation and discussion: The development of midyear population and crude growth rate from 1950 to 1970 is shown in Figs. 2 to 11. A steady growth of total population can be observed in all 10 regions. However, the growth rates vary considerable. In the developed countries the present growth rates are about 1 % or slightly higher. Only Region 4 has values of more than 2 % and thus approaches those of the developing countries. Region 6 has the highest growth rates - above 3 % -, while Region 10 has the lowest growth rates of the developing regions, namely slightly less than 2 %.

Also of interest are the strong fluctuations of individual growth rates. Most likely they are attributable to data error. The true scale of natural fluctuation can only be inferred from Regions 1 through 5. The conspicuously smooth growth rate curve of Region 10 is due to the fact that China has used pure extrapolation for determining her population. It would help to get actual data for this region. Finally, Region 1 through 5 seem to show a certain effect caused by the "pill".

The actual population statistics reveal that more than 50 % of mankind live in Regions 9 and 10. This can also be seen from Fig. 12, in which the populations of the individual regions are summed, starting from Region 1. In the so-called developed countries we have less than 1/3 of the world population. The actual population explosion takes place in Regions 6 through 10. Note that a growth rate of 3 % leads to a doubling time of only 23 years:

$$T = \frac{\ln 2}{cgr} = \frac{0.693}{cgr} = 23 \text{ years.}$$

- (5) Listing 1 of data and of program: The data listed are population by nation, classified by region. They run from 1950 to 1970.
  - (6) Missing data: All data are available for all years of interest.

#### 2.2 Crude birth and death rates

- (1) Origin of data: The data are taken from the UN Demographic Yearbooks 1966, Table 7 (cbr 1950 1966), DY 70, Tab 13 (cbr 1966 1970), DY 66, Tab 17 (cdr 1950 1966), and DY 70, Tab 17 (cdr 1966 1970). In addition, the data in 'World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1968' [2] have been used for fitting.
- (2) Reliability: For the developed regions the data are reliable and almost completely known. A large share of the data for the less developed regions are not available. Some important countries are missing altogether, for some only estimates exist which often are unreliable. For a few countries only the averages over several years are known.

- weighted by the percentage share of the respective country's population in its region and averaged. Of cbr only the time averages from 1950 1954 are known; these averages were used for the separate years 1950, 1951, 1952, and 1953. For 1970 the value of 1969 was used. All values of cdr are known from 1951 to 1971. For 1950 the value of 1951 was used. Together with the determination of the values of cbr and cdr we have computed the "degree of data availability" for each region, defined as the sum of all populations for which cbr and cdr are known in a certain year, divided by the total regional population. This "degree of data availability" yields a characteristic measure for the data scarcity of the various regions. It does not, however, distinguish between the different degrees of reliability.
- (4) Graphic representation and discussion: The time series for crude birth rates and crude death rates are shown in Figs. 13 to 32. In the following we will discuss them region by region:

  Region 1: Constant low death rate and falling birth rate. The degree of data availability (d.d.a.) is practically 100 % (with the exception of 1966, where Canada's cdr is unknown. The characteristic effect of the "pill" can be observed in the birth rate curve.

Region 2: Constant low death rate and a slightly falling birth rate. The d.d.a. is very high. Missing data are mostly Turkish.

Region 3: Fairly constant low death rate and a slightly decreased birth rate. D.d.a. = 100 %. The slight fluctuations in the death rate are probably attributable to shifts in the age pyramid.

Region 4: Here the death rate is similar to those of the other developed regions, but the birth rate is the highest of Regions 1 through 5. "Pill pressure" does not seem to exist. Perhaps the high birth rate is a result of a particular "pioneer" mentality and of the immigration policy of these countries.

Region 5: Constant low death rate and suddenly dropping birth rate ("pill" effect).

Region 6: Relatively low death rate (for a developing region), but a very high birth rate. In this region we find the highest net growth rate. For Brazil, a country of decisive importance in this region, only scanty data exist.

Region 7: A relatively high death rate is coupled with a very high birth rate. D.d.a is sufficient except for 1969 and 1970 cbr. For these values the decline is not real but rather the result of missing data in most countries of the region. The few nonrepresentative numbers deceptively suggest a lower birth rate.

Region 8: Very low d.d.a. This region has the highest death rate of all and a very high birth rate. Again, the suggested decline in cbr and cdr toward 1970 is the result of missing or nonrepresentative data. Interesting to note, the birth and death rates are always high with high d.d.a., so that the true rates of this region probably are closer to the upper envelope of the peaks than to an average.

Region 9: A relatively high but definitely declining death rate is apposed by a constant high birth rate. This means that the population growth in this region is accelerating! Here also one must assume that

the higher rates are the more reliable ones, because they correspond to high d.d.a. Again, part of the birth rate decline toward 1970 is attributable to nonrepresentative data and low d.d.a.

Region 10: Except for the period from 1951 to 1957 practically nothing is known about this region. Least is known about China, the largest country in Region 10.

- (5) Data and program listing 2: For each nation the 1969 population in millions of people, the crude death rates from 1951 to 1971 and the crude birth rates are listed. The first value for cbr stands for the 1950 to 1954 average, then the values of 1954 through 1969 follow.
- (6) Missing data: The data for developed countries are practically complete, whereas in the developing regions some decisive countries are missing (e.g., Brazil in Region 6; Libya, Marocco, and Saudi Arabia in Region 7; most Black African countries; Indonesia, India, and Pakistan in Region 9; and China in Region 10). More reliable data for these population-exploding nations would contribute significantly to any estimation of demographic development.

#### 2.3 Initial age distribution

- (1) Origin: Age distributions in 1950 or for the earliest available year are contained completely in DY 1970, Table 6. The population numbers are aggregated into 5-year age groups.
- (2) Reliability: According to the UN the reliability of these data is rather high, because estimates have been hardly used. But for many developing countries the distributions are not known.

- (3) Mode of preparation: First the age groups of the individual nations were added for each region. Then the percentage shares in the total population with known age distribution were computed for each age group. In those cases where only aggregates of two or three five-year age groups were available, the split into the five-year age groups was fitted to the rest of the age profile. For the dynamic model a split into one year groups is done by subroutine 'Spline' (2.5).
- (4) Graphic representation and discussion: The initial age distributions by percentage share are shown in Figs. 33 to 42. The distributions in Regions 1, 2, 4, and 5 are relatively flat and mostly show a pronounced "World War II dent". Region 3's distribution is already heavily shifted toward younger age groups. This is evidence of previously rapid population growth. In Regions 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 the shift to younger generations due to rapid growth is even more pronounced A "WW II dent" cannot be seen. The small dent for Region 8 more likely results from insufficient data.
- (5) Data and program listing 3: The age distributions are listed by thousands of people in the following way: Total number of babies less than 1 year old, 1 to 5 years, 5 to 10 years, 10 to 15 years, up to 80 to 85 years in 5-years groups, and finally all people older than 85.
- (6) Missing data: It holds also for these data that they are almost complete for Regions 1 through 5. Compared with other tables, they are also rather complete for Regions 6 through 9, if one disregards the fact that the 1950 values are mostly unavailable. But this is without significance for the developing countries without a 'WW II dent'. For China we have no age distribution, but most likely the values for North Corea and Mongolia

are representative for this region, as can be inferred from a comparison with other developing regions.

#### 2.4 Age - specific fertility and mortality

- (1) Origin: The data for birth by age of mother are taken from the UN Demographic Yearbooks 66 (Table 8), 69 (15), 70 (14); the data for death by age from DY 66 (Table 19), 70 (18); and the age distribution from DY 70 (6). The data are composed of the number of deaths per five-year age group, of the number of births per five-year age group for mothers, and of the age distribution in the same year. The number of deaths of both sexes were added and not listed separately thereafter.
- (2) Reliability: Especially in the less developed countries often only aggregates of several five-year age groups are available. In such cases splitting can create errors. For Region 10 again the data situation is the worst: the values we took are from Hong Kong, which does not belong to the region and is not necessarily representative for it.
- (3) Mode of preparation: Relative age distributions of births and deaths were used for computation. The deaths of each group were related to total number of deaths. In order to become more independent of random fluctuations in the age pyramid, relative age-specific fertility and mortality were introduced:

$$am_a = \frac{T_a}{Tot} / \frac{P_a}{Pop}$$

$$af_a = \frac{B_a}{Bab} / \frac{P_a}{Pop}$$

The data births, deaths, and age distribution—are from the same year whenever possible. However, for developing countries simultaneous data are not always available. But this source of error is very slight, because in these regions the age pyramid has been very stable in the past.

(4) Graphic representation and discussion: The results are shown in Figs. 43 to 52. In Regions 1 through 5 the distributions of death by age are rather similar: a slightly increased baby mortality is followed by a very low mortality of young individuals. First mortality increases only very slowly with increasing age, then more rapidly, almost according to an exponential function. Contrary to this pattern, the baby mortality is markedly higher in developing countries, and also their higher mortality in the young age groups has a significant influence on the growth dynamics of their populations. Because of this the age pyramid does not expand "upward" so strongly as in the developed regions: if someone reaches the age of 60, say, in India, he belongs to the "toughones" whose life expectancy is higher than for someone of equal age in a developed country. Occasional dents at high ages (viz. Regions 7 and 9) are most likely due to data errors.

The birth distributions cover the age range of 10 to 50 years. The maximum invariably lies between 20 and 30 years. Of interest is the relatively high fertility of older women in the developing countries. This perhaps is the only characteristic difference between developing and developed regions. We find this fact worth mentioning insofar as one can conclude from it that not the early onset of childbearing but rather

the late and gradual birthrate decrease with age accounts for the high birth rates of the developing regions.

- (5) Data and program listing 4: In the data list one finds births (4 rows), deaths (7 rows), and age distribution (7 rows) by five-year age groups. Births and deaths are given in actual numbers, while age distribution is given in thousands of people. Births include: total, 10 15, 15 20, 20 25, ..., 45 50, 50 + , and unknown births. Deaths and age distribution include:total, 0 1, 1 5, 5 -10, ..., 80 85, 85 + , and unknowns.
- (6) Missing data: Again the developed regions are relatively complete. Here only the distribution of deaths is missing for the USSR. Brazil is missing in Region 6, which is fairly complete otherwise. In Region 7 only Jordania is available, and also Region 8 is underrepresented with only 3 countries of 48. Fortunately, the data for such decisive countries of Region 9 as India, Pakistan are known. Here Indonesia is missing. But in Region 10 the birth and death distributions are lacking for all countries. Again it remains an open question as to how representative Hong Kong is for this last region.

# 2.5 Generating one-year age-groups from five-year age-groups

For the construction of the basic model it is necessary to have the initial distribution of all people living in 1950 as well as the fertility- and mortality pattern in one-year age-groups. Unfortunately, in the demographic yearbooks these data which are needed for all 10 regions are available only in five-year age-groups, except for the first year group. For the generation of the 86 one-year age-groups of our basic model from the given five-year age-group data we developed a special subroutine "Spline".

Our input-vector consists of 19 components: First the age-group 0 to 1 year, next the age-group from 1 to 5 year thereafter 16 five-year age-groups from 5 to 10, 10 to 15, ..., 80 - 85 years, and finally the age-group comprising all ages above 85 years. Two additional input-parameters are the boundary values  $\mathbf{n}_1$  and  $\mathbf{n}_2$  defining the range within which the interpolation is to be made in one-year intervals. However, in order to be able to interpolate, we must first have the points through which the interpolating curve is to pass. In order to find these points we form the age-integral for the input-vector, thereby obtaining 20 fixed points which permit an easy interpolation. Numerical differentiation of this interpolated integral curve then yields the desired age-distribution. The procedure may be demonstrated by means of an example concerning the initial age distribution. The 19 input values are denoted by G (n);  $\mathbf{n} = 1, 2, \ldots, 19$ . Y (n) and X (n) denote the ordinates and abscissae, respectively, of the abovementioned 20 points of the integral curve.

Then we have

$$X(0) = 0$$
,  $X(1) = 1$ ,  $X(2) = 5$ ,  $X(3) = 10$ ,...,  $X(19) = 90$ , and  $Y(0) = 0$ ,  $Y(1) = G(1)$ ,  $Y(2) = G(1) + G(2)$ , in general  $Y(n) = Y(n-1) + G(n)$  (2.1)

Y(X) then gives the number of people living between the age of zero and X.

By means of the spline-interpolation [4] we now calculate for the 20 points, as given above, the y-values for the abscissae  $x = 2, 3, 4, \ldots, 84$ . The spline-functions f(x) are cubic polynomials whose coefficients are determined for each interval i of the 19 age-intervals. The spline function f(x) is to have the following properties:

(1) 
$$f(x) = P_i(x)$$
 for  $X(i) \le x \le X(i+1)$ ;  $i=0,1,2,...,18$   
where  
 $P_i(x) = Y(i) + b \cdot [x - X(i)] + c \cdot [x - X(i)]^2 + d \cdot [x - X(i)]^3$  (2.2)

(2) 
$$P_{i}(X(i)) = P_{i-1}(X(i)) = Y(i)$$
  
(3)  $P_{i}(X(i)) = P_{i-1}(X(i))$   
(4)  $P_{i}(X(i)) = P_{i-1}(X(i))$   

$$X(19)$$
  
(5)  $\int_{X(0)} [f^{*}(x)]^{2} dx \stackrel{1}{=} Min.$ 

Hence, the spline function f(x) possesses in the whole range  $0 \le x \le 90$  continuity with continuous first and second derivatives and minimized total curvature.

After the values y (a) (a = 1, 2, ..., 85) have been found in this way, the desired age-structure is obtained as follows:

The values y (a) and y (a-1) indicate how many people are alive between the age of zero and a, and zero and a-1, respectively.

Therefore the difference g (a) = y (a) - y (a-1) gives the number of people between the age of a and a-1 years; i.e. in the age-group a.

Summarizing we have the following procedure:

The values g (a) are then normalized such that

$$\sum_{a=1}^{86} g(a) = 1$$

This subroutine can be applied to obtain the year-by-year agedistributions for all living people, the deaths and the birth giving mothers,

In the representation of the probability distributions we have to note, that here the values G (n) represent the abscissae of the step-like "curves" and not the respective areas under these "curves". Therefore, all G-values have first to be multiplied by the length of the corresponding age-interval in order to obtain the area. With this change also the fertility- and mortality patterns can be produced by means of the subroutine "spline".

Because of the steep slope of the integral curve in the cases of fertility and of the distribution of the birth giving mothers a transformation becomes necessary such that finally y(x) is not approximated by means of  $f(x) = P_i(x)$ , but rather using the relationship

f (x) = 
$$\frac{y(x) - 1/2 \cdot y(a = 90)}{y(a = 90) \cdot (1 + \varepsilon)}$$
 = tanh (P<sub>i</sub>(x))

(2.5)

In this way it is possible to interpolate function y(x), which indeed resembles a displaced tanh-function, without overshooting, thereby avoiding the danger of obtaining impossible negative fertilities. The quantity  $\mathbf{E}$  is introduced for the purpose that f(x) for x < 10 and x > 60 does not go towards infinity. Since

Eq. (2.5) is also used for the re-transformation in order to arrive finally at the distributions g (a), the actual value chosen for  $\epsilon$  , which lies in the neighborhood of 0.01 , is practically without importance.

For the developed as well as for two developing regions we find in the Figs. 53 - 64 representations of both input and output of the subroutine "spline" as applied to the initial age-structure, the fertility- and mortality patterns. The input- and output-curves should enclose for each of the given age-intervals between X = 0, 1, 5, 10, 15, ..., 85 exactly equal areas. The results of further applications to the age-specific fertility and mortality for all 10 regions are depicted in Figs. 65 - 84. The initial age-distributions in 1950 are included in the Figs. 112 - 151.

We could have found even smoother curves by means of a refined "spline"-technique [3]; However, we did not deem this necessary for our purposes.

Listings of this subroutine and of the two routines "Aged" and "Frame" for the generation of the diagrams for the age-structure and for the computer runs of the population development are enclosed in Listing 5.

Finally, it should be pointed out that the mortality distributions (s. Figs. 75 - 84) after having been multiplied by the time-dependent factor cm<sup>t</sup>yield the probability for the death of a person between the

ages of a and a-1 within the coming year. However, the people in the group  $P_a^t$ , when dying in the coming year have then on the average ages between (a-1/2) and (a+1/2) years. Hence, in order to obtain the mortalities as used in Eqs. (1.9) - (1.17), the arithmetic mean of two adjacent values g (a) is formed as follows:

$$am_a = 1/2$$
 [  $g(a) + g(a+1)$  ];  $a = 1, 2, ..., 85$  (2.6)

and 
$$am_{1/2} = g(1)$$
  $am_{86} = g(86)$  (2.7)

where g (a) is the output yielded by the subroutine "spline". The fertility is treated in analogous manner.

#### 3. Population Policies

While our calculations for the time-span between 1950 and 1970 are constrained by the given data, we can from then on apply various alternative strategies in order to achieve certain broad demographic goals, e.g. population equilibrium. Besides, not only different population policies will affect fertility differently, but also feedbacks from other submodels will influence both fertility and mortality. It may be expected, for example, that in certain developing regions mortality will be greatly increased by food shortages, unless extremely urgent and drastic measures are taken there to halt the rapid population growth.

# 3.1 Population Development between 1950 and 1970

For each of our 10 regions we use as initial values the 86 numbers  $p_a^{1950}$  (a = 1, 2, ..., 86) which by means of the subroutine "SPLINE" (s. ch. 2.5) have been calculated from the age-structure of 1950 as given in five-year-groups and from the total 1950 population  $Pop_a^{1950}$ . Further data are  $Pop_a^{t}$  (t = 1951, 1952, ..., 1970) and the corresponding time-series for the crude birth rate  $cbr_a^{t}$  and the crude death rate  $cdr_a^{t}$ . From Figs. 13 - 32, where these parameters are depicted together with their "availibility degree" as a measure of the quality of these data, we can see that the latter drops partly under 10 % as far as  $cbr_a^{t}$  and  $cdr_a^{t}$  are concerned. In these extreme cases, which occur mainly in the regions 8, 9 and 10, we do not employ our calculated

values (s. Figs. 27 - 32), but, instead, the values estimated by the United Nations [1, 2].

The age-specific probabilities  $af_a^t$  and  $am_a^t$ , to give birth and, respectively, to die in the year t, are also calculated by means of the subroutine "SPLINE" from the most recent - assembled in five-year-groups - annual data on the age-distribution on live births, deaths, and of population. The probabilities  $af_a^t$  and  $am_a^t$  are then employed as constants  $af_a$  and  $am_a^t$  during the whole time-span between 1950 and 1970, first because of data-shortage, and secondly for the reason that the assumption may justifiably be made that these probability-distributions will vary only slightly during the 20 years under consideration. The reader is reminded that both  $af_a$  and  $am_a$  have been normalized such that  $af_a = 1$  and  $af_a = 1$  (see Figs. 65 - 84).

Since we did not have any reliable age-distributions of deaths and of live populations for our region 10 (China), we employed for this region the mortality-distribution  $a_a$  of region 9 (South and South-East-Asia); however, the time-varying magnitude  $c_a^t$  of the mortality is calculated from the given time-varying  $c_a^t$  and  $c_a^t$  of region 10.

In view of the circumstance that in the regions 8 - 10 great uncertainties prevail concerning the five-year-groups for fertility and mortality, the corresponding probability-distributions were smoothed to such extent that mortality increases monotonously from the age of 20 on, and that

the fertility distribution possesses only one maximum. The latter conditions, however, could not always be satisfied as far as regions 8 - 10 are concerned, when the regional fertility and mortality distributions were calculated from those of the individual nations involved (compare Figs. 43 - 52 and Figs. 65 - 84).

The time-varying magnitude-factors  $cf^{t}$  and  $cm^{t}$  (t = 1950, 1951, ..., 1970) were obtained with the aid of Eqs. (1.3), (1.4), and (1.7) - (1.11): From Eqs. (1.3) and (1.4) follow  $Bab^{t}$  and  $Tot^{t}$ ; then from Eqs. (1.7) and (1.8):

$$cf^t = Bab^t / \sum_{a=2}^{86} af_a \cdot P_a^t$$

and from Eqs. (1.9) - (1.11):

$$cm^t = Tot^t / \left( \frac{1}{2} am_1 \cdot Bab^t + \sum_{a=1}^{86} am_a \cdot P_a^t \right)$$

In a closed regional population system (i.e. without immigrants and emigrants) the problem of calculating  $Pop^{t+1}$  from given values  $Pop^t$ ,  $cbr^t$ , and  $cdr^t$  (t = 1950, 1951, ..., 1970) would be redundant. In an open regional population system, on the contrary, these data yield by means of Eqs. (1.12) and (1.13) the values for  $Imi^t$  and  $I_a^t$ , i.e. the numerical difference of immigrants and emigrants and/or, respectively,

a measure for the inaccuracy of the given data. In any case  $\text{Imi}^t \neq 0$  as well as  $\text{I}_a^t \neq 0$  cannot be interpreted as an indication for faults in the population model structure.

From Eqs. (1.14) - (1.17) we obtain finally the values  $P_a^{t+1}$  (a = 1, 2, ..., 86) and  $Pop^{t+1}$  for the following year, with  $Pop^{t+1}$  coinciding with the given value from our data-base. This reveals that we do not carry out our calculations for the time-span between 1950 and 1970 in order to calculate  $Pop^{1970}$ , but rather in order to study the dynamic behavior of the age-structures, to observe what degree of reliability we may attribute to all relevant data, and to calculate the age-distribution  $P_a^{1970}$  for those regions where these are not available.

A listing of the program with all subroutines and the result from 1950 till 1970 is enclosed in listings 5 and 6. In the print-outs we find the year t, total population Pop<sup>t</sup>, fertility factor cf<sup>t</sup>, crude birth rate cbr, mortality factor cm<sup>t</sup> and crude death rate cdr.

In the second line the actual population Pop<sup>t</sup> and the calculated difference of immigrants and emigrants are stated in millions.

It was re-assuring to find that with the values as used by us for  $Pop^{t}$ ,  $cbr^{t}$ , and  $cdr^{t}$ , the calculated values for immigrants and emigrants remained under 1 % for all regions.

# 3.2 Standard Computer Runs (Constant fertility and mortality)

In our standard computer runs we keep from 1970 the fertility cf and mortality cm constant, i.e.  $cf^t = cf^{1970}$  and  $cm^t = cm^{1970}$  for t>1970. The age-specific probability distributions  $af_a^t$  and  $am_a^t$  stay constant as well, using the same constant distributions as in the time-interval between 1950 and 1970. From 1970 on, immigrants and emigrants are no longer considered.

In Figs. 85 - 94 a number of standard runs are depicted which are based on different values for cf  $^{1970}$  and cm  $^{1970}$ , which were obtained by averaging certain values cf  $^{t}$  and cm  $^{t}$  (t = 1960, ..., 1969) which were computed as described in Sc. 3.1. These averages were computed over the years t = 1970 - t<sub>1</sub> (t<sub>1</sub> = 1, 2, ..., t<sub>M</sub>), using for t<sub>M</sub> the values 1, 3, 5, and 10, respectively. We note from Figs. 85 - 94 for the highly industrialized regions a clear trend towards smaller growth rates as t<sub>M</sub> diminish, whereas for the developing regions in Africa and Asia the curves are very close to each other for t<sub>M</sub> = 1, 3, and 5; the simple reason for this lies in the fact that here estimated average values had to be used for cbr and cdr in the years between 1965 and 1970 (cf. Chapter 1 and Figs. 13 - 32).

From our diagrams (Fig. 95 - 107) it is immediately obvious that in the developing regions we have for constant fertility and mortality practically pure exponential population growth, while in the developed regions North America, Western Europe, Japan and Eastern Europe incl.

the Soviet Union we have great deviations from exponential growth curves. For the first two of these regions we note considerable fluctuations in the growth rate, while the populations in the two latter regions despite constant fertility and mortality soon after the turn of the century stay constant and diminish, respectively, although both have about 1970 a growth rate of approximately 1 %. This effect is due to the dynamic nature of the age-structure.

In Figs. 112 - 151 we have depicted the age-structures for all regions in 1950, 1975, 2000 and 2025 for the standard run, i.e. using  $cf^t = cf^{1969}$  and  $cm^t = cm^{1969}$  for  $t \ge 1970$ . Comparing these age-structures with those of the equilibrium state (Figs. 152 - 161), one notes that e.g. in Region 5 (Eastern Europe incl. Soviet Union) the standard run yields for the year 2000 more people in the reproductive age groups (about 20 - 40 yrs) than in age-groups between 0 and 20 years. Therefore, the number of births must consequently decrease when the fertility stays constant. This trend would then be reinforced for each following generation.

Furthermore, one can calculate in advance what fertility value cf<sup>e</sup> would be required in order to arrive at some later date at a constant population when the mortality is kept constant (s. Sec. 3.3). For Japan and Eastern Europe cf<sup>e</sup> is larger than cf<sup>1970</sup> although in the equilibrium state the crude birth rate is smaller than cbr<sup>1970</sup>.

Listing 6 registers the time-change of crude birth rate and crude death rate while fertility and mortality remain unchanged. In these tables we find cbr<sup>t+1/2</sup> in the column Bab/Pop and cdr<sup>t+1/2</sup> in the column Tot/Pop.Input data Pop<sup>t</sup> are stated in Millions. In the last two columns one finds the accumulated number of babies and deaths, respectively from 1970 an. Although not very important in the present context, they should be noted in comparison with the computational results in Sec. 3.5.

The program listings correspond exactly to the calculation for the generation of Figs. 258 - 270 which depict the results for the equilibrium runs, type 2.3 (s next section). Always the fourth pass of the loop DO 300 ... 300 CONTINUE yields the standard run for the region under consideration.

It would lead too far to discuss the standard runs for each region with reference to population development and changing age-structures as shown in the diagrams and tables. They are to a great extent self-explanatory.

Interesting are also Fig. 108 - 111, representing the percentage share in the total population for all 10 regions - Fig. 108 for normal run and in comparison Fig. 109 - 111 for equilibrium runs, type 1.2 (see Sec. 3.3).

In conclusion it is printed out, that also for the standard runs the life expectancies at birth have been calculated for each region from 1970 on, using Eq. (3.5) from Sec. 3.3. Although Eq. (3.5) has been

derived for the equilibrium state  $[\ 3\ ]$ , the life expectancy depends only on the age-specific mortality cm  $\cdot$  am $_a$  which remains from 1970 on the same in the standard runs as well as in the equilibrium runs discussed in the next section. In the print-outs the life expectancy at birth is denoted by LEB. Our values agree well with the ones computed and estimated by the United Nations  $[\ DY\ 71;2\ ]$ .

#### 3.3. Equilibrium Runs via Fertility Change

In the following runs fertility is gradually reduced to a value for which the population will eventually attain equilibrium. Mortality is kept at the level of 1970.

The first problem consists in finding the fertility factor  $cf^e$  that leads to population equilibrium. For this purpose we determine as a first step the quasi stationary population limit which in reality is reached asymptotically only after a very long time. This limit is determined by the mortality factor  $cm^{1970}$  and the age-specific mortality  $am^{1970}_a$  which are taken from sections 3.1 and 3.2 for the case  $t_M = 1$ . In order to have a stationary population, the condition  $Bab^t = Tot^t$  has to be satisfied. From this follows, because both the age-specific fertility (not yet known) and the age-specific mortality (given) are time constants, that for all times (see also [3])

$$P_a^t = P_a$$
 (a = 1, 2, ..., 86)

Inserting these conditions in the basic eqs. (1.7 - 1.17) the following relationships are obtained,

$$P_1 = Bab \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot cm \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}})$$
 (3.1)

$$P_{\alpha+1} = P_{\alpha} \cdot (1 - cm \cdot am_{\alpha})_{1} \quad \alpha = 1, ..., 84$$
 (3.2)

$$P_{86} = P_{85}(1 - cm \cdot am_{85}) / (cm \cdot am_{86})$$
 (3.3)

Equations (3.2) are applied recursively, until all age-groups  ${\bf P}_a$  are expressed through Bab, cm, and am $_a$ . Hence we obtain finally

$$P_{a} = Bab \cdot Prod(a); a = 1, 2, ..., 85$$
with  $Prod(1) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot cm \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}$ 
and  $Prod(a) = Prod(a - 1) \cdot [1 - cm \cdot am_{a-1}]$ 

$$= (1 - \frac{1}{2} cm \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}) \cdot [\prod_{n=1}^{a-1} (1 - cm \cdot am_{n})]$$
for  $a = 2, 3, ..., 85$ 

For  $P_{86}$  Eq. (3.5) is valid unchanged. With the abbreviation Prod (a) which depends only on the mortality factor cm and the age-specific mortality distribution am  $_a$  we can formulate the following three interesting sums:

1. Bab = 
$$\sum_{a=2}^{86} cf^e \cdot af_a \cdot P_a$$

Since we can safely assume that  $af_a = 0$  for a < 10 and a > 60 years, the sum has to be extended only from a=10 to a=60. Division by Bab then leads to

$$1 = cf^{e} \cdot \sum_{a=10}^{60} af_{a} \cdot Prod (a)$$

or

$$1/cf^{e} = (1 - \frac{1}{2}cm \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}) \cdot \sum_{\alpha=10}^{60} [\alpha f_{\alpha} \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{\alpha-1} (1 - cm \cdot am_{n})]$$
 (3.4)

Thus we have found the desired equilibrium fertility factor  $cf^e$  for given values of cm,  $am_a$  and  $af_a$ .

2. LEB = 
$$\frac{\text{Pop}}{\text{Bab}}$$
 =  $\frac{1}{\text{cbr}}$ e =  $\frac{1}{\text{cdr}}$ e =  $\frac{\text{Pop}}{\text{Tot}}$   
and Pop =  $\sum_{a=1}^{86}$  P<sub>a</sub>

This sum yields the mean life expectancy at birth LEB as well as the crude birth rate and crude death rate for the case of population equilibrium [3].

Inserting Eqs. (3.2) and (3.3) into the above relationships, we find

Pop = Bab 
$$\cdot \left[ \left( \sum_{n=1}^{85} \text{Prod}(a) \right) + \text{Prod}(85) \cdot \left( \frac{1}{12} \text{cm} - am_{85} \right) / am_{86} \right]$$

and after division by Bab:

LEB = 
$$\frac{1}{cbr^{e}} = \frac{1}{cdr^{e}} = (1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot cm \cdot am_{\frac{1}{2}}) \cdot (3.5)$$
  
 $\cdot \left[1 + \left\{\sum_{\alpha=2}^{85} \prod_{n=1}^{\alpha-1} (1 - cm \cdot am_{n})\right\} + \frac{1/cm - am_{85}}{am_{86}} \cdot \prod_{n=1}^{84} (1 - cm \cdot am_{n})\right]$ 

It is noteworthy that this value for the mean life expectancy at birth for constant mortality holds also for the standard runs, not just for the equilibrium case.

3. The third summation serves only as computational check.

Bab = Tot

Bab = 
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 cm·am<sub>1</sub>· Bab + Bab ·  $\sum_{\alpha=1}^{85}$  cm·am<sub>a</sub>· Prod (a) + Bab · Prod (85) · [1-cm·am<sub>85</sub>] or

$$1 = \frac{1}{2}$$
 cm·am<sub>1</sub> +  $\sum_{\alpha=1}^{84}$  cm·am<sub>a</sub>· Prod (a) + Prod (85) (3.6)

This equation is identically satisfied for all 10 regions. The agestructure in the equilibrium state is depicted in Figs. 152 - 161. and it is solely determined by the age-specific mortality (s. Eqs. 3.1 to 3.3). The higher the development of a region, the smaller is its mortality and also the crude birth rate, and the more resembles the calculated age-structure a rectangle.

For the case of population equilibrium we have so far determined the age-structure and the magnitude of the fertility  $cf^e$ . Now, what is the final size of the equilibrium-population  $Pop^e$ ?

The final population  $\operatorname{Pop}^e$  is only defined when its initial value and age-structure is known at the time of the transition from  $\operatorname{cf}^{1970}$  to  $\operatorname{cf}^e$ , and, of course, when also the nature and the beginning of this transition period is given.

According to UN-recommendations [2] we use for the transition a polygon consisting of three straight lines (s. Fig. 192).

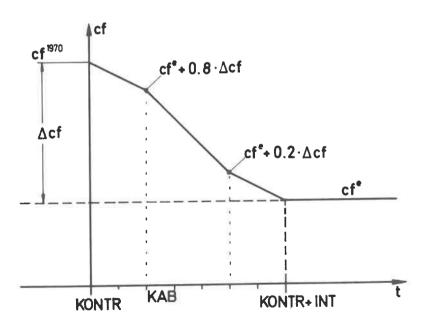


Fig. 192: Scheme for fertility transition period

Since  $cf^{1970}$  and  $cf^e$  are known, only two free parameters remain, KONTR and INT (s. Fig. 192). For the beginning of the equilibrium policy KONTR we used the years 1975, 1985 and 1995; for the length of the transition interval INT = 7 · KAB the spans of 0, 14, and 35 years. The calculations show that the shape of the transition curve (S-curve, or straight-line polygon) is hardly of any importance. Important is only the length of the transition-interval, and that the area below the transition-polygon amounts to about  $1/2 \cdot (cf^{1970} + cf^e) \cdot INT$ .

In Figs. 162 - 191 are depicted the age-structures in the case of equilibrium policy for the years 2000, 2025, and 2100. Here we employed 1975 for the parameter KONTR and 14 years for the parameter INT. The age-structures for the year 2100 are hardly different from ideal equilibrium states (Figs. 152 - 161). For the same parameters we have then provided numerical print-outs, employing 5-year steps. These tables contain the year t, the population Pop, the fertility factor cf, the crude birth rate cbr, the mortality factor cm, the crude death rate cdr as well as the accumulative sum of all babies and all deaths from 1970 on. Following the row for 1970, in addition, a few data for the equilibrium state are also reported: first the life expectancy at birth LEB, the fertility factor cf leading to equilibrium, the crude birth rate cbr for equilibrium, the ratio of babies to deaths, and finally the ratio  $\mathrm{P}_{86}$  /  $\mathrm{P}_{85}$ .

The graphical results of equilibrium runs are represented in Figs. 193 - 270. Each figure contains four curves, one of them always depicting the standard run for the sake of comparison. The three remaining curves show for runs of type 1 the differences due to the variation of the parameter KONTR, and for runs of type 2 the differences due to the variation of the parameter INT.

Below, the various types of runs are listed in systematic manner:

```
Type 1.1: INT = 0 ;
1.2: INT = 14 ;
1.3: INT = 35 ;

KONTR = 1975/1985/1995/2200.

Type 2.1: KONTR = 1975 ;
2.2: KONTR = 1985 ;
2.3: KONTR = 1995 ;
```

The graphical representations of these runs are ordered accordingly; they include also aggregations of the regions 1 - 5, 6 - 10, and 1 - 10. The standard-run curve is always the one with maximum slope from 2050 on. The curves for INT = 0 and KONTR = 1975, respectively, are furthest apart from the standard run, and, conversely, those for KONTR = 1995 and INT = 35, respectively, are, as could be expected, nearest to the standard run.

In the numerical tables of listing 8 all equilibrium-type runs and the standard run are listed for all regions as well as for the whole world.

Listing 7 shows the influence of equilibrium policy, started in 1975 with INT = 14, especially on cbr, cdr, and on the summation of all births and deaths since 1970.

### 3.4 Runs with Mortality Changes due to Lack of Protein

The following computations were made for Region 9 (South East Asia). Analysis of possible future protein yield has shown that from 1970 until 2000 the protein output can probably be increased annually by an average of 1/2 % of the 1970 amount. After that a further increase is hardly possible. But in 1970 the per-capita consumption of protein was only 44 grams per day. With these two numbers one can calculate the amount of protein which Region 9 might produce.

Since population grows much faster than the protein yield, the average daily per-capita consumption must steadily decrease. But this decreases the resistance to disease, which in turn increases the probability of dying, particularly after a famine. Since famines result from fluctuations in a marginal food situation, they will strike with increasing frequency and intensity, affecting children worse than adults. Unfortunately nothing quantitative is known about the affect of protein deficiency on mortality rates by age group. Also, the distribution of protein consumption in the population is not known, e.g., what percentage of the total population gets 5 % more than average and how many get 5 % less than average. As long as lack of protein affects mortality nonlinearly, its distribution must be taken into account.

Because of the lack of knowledge we have on this problem, and because the effects on death rate are much more complex than described above, the following computations can only be useful as guidelines and might help in the search for more reliable indicators for nutrition effects

on health. We have kept fertility unchanged, i.e., we have used the distributions from the standard runs, but two new functions of age have been introduced:

The function E(a) indicates the age-specific sensitivity to protein deficiency and is defined by

$$E(a) = (E_o - E_u) \cdot \exp(-\frac{a}{E_a}) + E_u$$
 (3.7)

Here  $\rm E_{o}$  is the sensitivity of babies and  $\rm E_{u}$  the sensitivity of older people.  $\rm E_{a}$  is a time constant, indicating the number of years that pass until E(a) - E<sub>u</sub> drops to 37 % of E<sub>o</sub> - E<sub>u</sub>. As examples we have used E<sub>a</sub> = 5, 10, and 20. E<sub>o</sub> was taken to be 1, 1.5, and 2, while E<sub>u</sub> took the values 0.5 and 0.25.

The second function indicates by what amount the mortality of an age group  $P_a^t$  is increased with given sensitivity E(a) and with a daily per-capita protein consumption X. We have defined this mortality multiplier MM [X, E(a)] in the following way:

MM 
$$(x,E) = \left[ \frac{44 - x_0}{x(t-t_0) - x_0} - 1 \right] \cdot E + 1 \quad (3.8)$$

Accordingly, the mortalities are now given by

$$am_a^t = am_a^{1970} \cdot MM(X, E(a))$$
and  $cm^t = cm^{1970}$  (3.9)

Equation (3.8) is a hyperbola which has a vertical asymptote at  $X_{0}$ . In the following Figs. we have used  $X_{0}$  = 0, 5, and 10. In Figs. 271 and 272 MM (X, E) is graphed as a function of X, with  $X_{0}$  at 0 and 10. For E the values 0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 were used.  $t_{0}$  stands for a time delay in the effect of protein deficiency. Usually  $t_{0}$  is set equal to zero; only in Figs. 278 - 280  $t_{0}$  takes the values 0, 5, and 10 years. One can clearly observe an overshooting oscillation of population followed by a damping toward an equilibrium. The effect increases with increasing time delay. In the Figs. following Fig. 273 we have also included the daily per-capita protein values in grams; the lowest values belong to the highest populations and vice versa. Finally, some printouts are shown in listing 9 which have the same output format as the equilibrium runs. The used parameters EO, EU, EA, XO and  $T_{0}$  = Time Lag are shown in the titles of the number columns in five-year-steps.

From both graphs and lists one can see that these calculations due to lack of protein will also lead to equilibrium, but by a much more cruel way as indicated by comparison of number of deaths since 1970.

# 3.5 Change of Mortality due to Lack of Protein and Fertility Change for Population Equilibrium

In this last group of computer runs we combine the change in agespecific mortality due to lack of protein as in Sec. 3.4 with the change in the fertility-factor  $\operatorname{cf}^t$  as in Sec. 3.3 such that this assumes the value cf<sup>e</sup> which would eventually lead to population equilibrium for constant mortality  ${\rm cm}^{1970}$ . In Fig. 281 - 287 we have plotted the standard run with  $cf^{t} = cf^{1970} = cf^{1969}$ ,  $cm^{t} = cm^{1970} = cm^{1969}$ ;  $af_{a}^{t} = af_{a}^{1950}$ , and  $am_a^t = am_a^{1950}$ , in addition to three other curves. Curve (1) represents the equilibrium run already known from Sec.3.3 with KONTR = 1975, 1985 and 1995 respectively, and INT = 14, while curve (2) depicts the run in which the lack of protein is considered with  $x_0 = t_0 = 0$ . Curve (3) represents the new results where fertility as well as mortality are varied. It is not surprising that curve (3) is below the three other curves. However, it is noteworthy that while for different sensitivities to lack of protein considerable differences in population growth can be observed (s. curves (2) in Figs. 281 - 283), these differences become rather small under the impact of an deliberate equilibrium policy (s. curves (3) in Figs. 281 - 283). Figures 281 - 287 furthermore reveal the necessity to start with the equilibrium policy as early as possible, for then the combination of mortality change due to lack of protein and of equilibrium fertility leads to a population curve (3) which is only slightly below the equilibrium curve (1) (s. Figs. 284 -285). This demonstrates that then we shall have only a very slight increase in mortality due to lack of protein. However, when the equilibrium policy is initiated only in 1995, a great gap develops between curves (1) and (3) as shown in Figs. 286 - 287. These figures give a vivid impression how despite a - though belated - equilibrium policy the number of deaths from hunger and increased subceptibility to sickness due to lack of food and protein rises enormously compared with an equilibrium policy that is initiated 20 years earlier in 1975.

In order to facilitate an overall view of the results and their interpretation, numerical print-outs in five-year steps for all these runs are given in listing 10 in the same order as the corresponding figures. We used the same format as in Secs. 3.3 and 3.4. The last two columns give the accumulated sums of all babies and deaths since 1970. In the fourth and sixth column crude birth rate and crude death rate, respectively, are listed.

A comparison of the four types of computer runs beginning with the standard run and ending with the combined run for equilibrium fertility and mortality-change due to lack of protein, particularly with respect to the four columns mentioned above, demonstrates convincingly the urgency of drastic population policy measures in order not to let nature take its cruel course.

### List of computer print-outs

- Listing 1: UN Estimates of midyear population 1950 1970, programm and data by country.
- Listing 2: Crude birth rate and crude death rate 1950 1970, program and data by country.
- Listing 3: Initial age distribution in 1950 or earliest available year, program and data by country.
- Listing 4: Age distributions for mothers at birth, deaths and people alive, program and data by country for latest available year.
- Listing 5: Program of population model (here for equil. type 2.3).
- Listing 6: Normal runs 1950 2030, one-year steps for 10 Regions.
- Listing 7: Equilibrium run 1950 2100, five-year steps for 10 Regions.

  KONTR = 1975; INT = 14.
- Listing 8: Population growth for all 10 Regions with summation five-year steps 1950 2100.

  Normal run and all equilibrium runs.
- Listing 9: Lack-of-protein: print-outs in five-year steps 1950 2100 for parameters used in Fig. 273 280.
- Listing 10: Different strategies: print-outs in five-year steps 1950 2100 for parameters used in Fig. 281 287.

### Listing of Figures:

Fig.	1	:			The 10 Regions of the M-P World Model
Fig.	2	-	12	:	Midyear Populations and crude gross rates till 1970 (data)
Fig.	13	-	32	:	Crude birth and death rates and degree of knowledge (data)
Fig.	33	-	42	:	Initial age distributions (five-year age groups) (data)
Fig.	43	-	52	:	Fertility and mortality pattern (five-year age groups) (data)
Fig.	53	-	64	:	Comparison between five-year and one-year age groups for
					initial age distribution, fertility and mortality pattern
Fig.	65	-	74	:	Fertility pattern (one-year groups)
Fig.	75	-	84	:	Mortality pattern (one-year age groups)
Fig.	85	-	94	:	Normal runs (pop. over time)
Fig.	95	-	107	:	Normal runs with cgr
Fig.	108	-	111	:	Percentage share of total population for all regions in
					normal run and three equilibrium runs (type 1.2)
Fig.	112	-	151	:	Age distribution for normal runs in the years 1950,
					1975, 2000 and 2025
Fig.	152	-	161	:	Age distribution for equilibrium state
Fig.	162	-	191	:	Age distribution for equilibrium runs in the years 2000,
					2025 and 2100
Fig.	192	:			Scheme for fertility transition period
Fig.	193	-	231	:	Equilibrium runs, Type 1
Fig.	232	-	270	:	Equilibrium runs, Type 2
Fig.	271	-	272	:	Mortality multiplier due to lack of protein
Fig.	273	-	280	:	Different runs due to lack of protein

Fig. 281 - 287 : Combinations of lack of protein and equilibrium policies

### Literature

- [1] Demographic Yearbooks 1966 ~ 1971.
   Statistical Office of the United Nations,
   Department of Economic and Social Affairs
   New York (abbr: DY 66 71).
- [2] World Population Prospects as Assessed in 1968.
  United Nations, Department of Economic and Social
  Affairs, New York, 1973.
- [3] N. Keyfitz: Introduction to the mathematics of population. Reading, Mass., 1968.
- [4] R. Sauer and I. Szabő: Mathematische Hilfsmittel des Ingenieurs, Teil III. Berlin-Heidelberg-New York, 1968.

## Listing 5

Program of population model (here for equil. type 2.3).

```
4126 SEHMEN, POPULATION
4J83 5,15
              MA
ASSIGN S DETY, BI DETY, BO DETY, SI CR, LO LP, X1 DETY.
AFTN SI, BUILD .
                DIMENSION G50(21), GP(21), GF(21), GM(21), POP(21), G(21)
                DIMENSION XX (151) YY (151)
                DIMENSION WELT [151,4] . GR(31,4,11)
      3
                DIMENSION WEL151,47
                DIMENSION NAME (10) MODE (10)
      5
                DIMENSION AM(0/86)
                DIMENSION FERT (21] , AMORT [21] , CF [20] , CM [20]
                                                   A41 [86] / AF [86] / AF1 [86]
                DIMENSION AP[86], AP1[86],
      8
                DIMENSION KOVE41 KAVE41
      4
                 DIMENSION XP(151)
     10
                COMMON KAB, KONTR, NAME, MODE
     11
                COMMON YY
     12
                EQUIVALENCE (AF(1), AF1(1))
     13
                 EQUIVALENCE [WE [1] . WELT [1]]
          Х
     14
                 CALL PLUTTFAC (5./6.)
     15
                 CALL XYBVZR [0.65,1.5]
      16
                  KTOT . O
     17
          Х
                 E8 # 0+0
          Х
      18
                 EU # 0+0
      19
                 De 666 I=1:151
      20
                 D8 666 J#1#4
      21
                 WEI1111 8 0.0
          666
      55
                 DB 671 141,31
      13
                 DB 671 J#1,4
      24
                 D8 671 N#1:11
      25
                 GR[[, J.N] * 0.0
      26
          671
                 READ 104, MODE
      27
                 D8 400 IREG#1,6,5
      28
                 IEND . IREG+4
      29
                 De 670 I+1,151
      30
                 DB 670 J#1#4
      31
                 WELTCIAJ) # 0.0
          970
      12
                 DE 200 KREG#IREG, IEND
      33
                  READ 120, E8, EU, EA, XO
      44
                 READ 107, LY, LZ
      35
                 YC # LY#1.E6
      36
                 READ 104 NAME
      47
                 READ 109, POP
      38
                 PRINT 110, NAME, MADE
      19
                 FORMAT [8F14.3/8F14.3/5F14.3,3[8]
      4 O
          101
                 FORMAT [8F10+5]
           102
      41
                 FORMAT [F10.5]
      42
           103
                 FORMAT (10A4)
      43
           104
                 FORMAT [21F]
           105
      44
                 FORMAT [20F]
      45
           104
                 FORMAT [418]
                                                                                  MORTAL
           107
      46
                                                                    BAB / PBP
                                      TOTAL POP.
                                                      FERTILITY
                 FORMATIS YEAR
TY TOT / POP
       47
           108
                                                            SUM TAT 70$/]
                                         SUM BAB 70
                 ITY
       48
                 FBRMAT [19X,6F10.5]
           109
       49
                 FORMAT [1H1,20A4/]
                 FORMAT [1x,F11:2,5 = ACTUAL POPS,F11:2,5 = CALCULATED IMMIGRANTS
       bc
           110
                 FORMAT LAFERTILITY, MORTALITY, CB, CBR, CD, CDR, $, 4F12, 5]
       51
           112
                 FORMAT [41X,19HSTART OF CONTROL = ,14,5X,20HTRANSITION PERIOD # ,
       52
           113
       53
           114
                 17/1
                  FURMAT [41X,5HE9 = ,F5.2,5X,5HEJ = ,F5.2,5X,5HEA = ,F5.2,5X,5HX(
       54
       55
           X116
                 At ,F5.2,5X,11HTIME LAG * ,13/1
```

```
FORMAT [4F10+5]
     37
         120
              VILLATION ONA VILLITY AND ATALITY
     58
                K # 1950
     59
                READ 109,050
PRINT 101,050
     50
     61
                CALL SPLINE [G50, AP1, 1, 20]
     62
                De 140 Le2,20
     63
     54
         140
                SF(L) # 0.0
                REAU 109, P, [GF []] , [-5,13]
     65
                READ 109 GM
     56
.
                READ 109, [AMORT[]], I=2,21], P
     67
     55
                READ 109, [FERT[]]. [44,21]
                D8 141 Le1/3
     69
                FERTILI . FERTIAL
     10
         141
                AMBRICIJ . AMBRICZJ
     11
                DB 143 L#2,21
     12
     73
                IF [AMORT[L]] 146,146,147
     74
         146
                AMORTILI . AMORTIL-15
     75
         147
                CONTINUE
.
     16
                IF (FERT(L)) 143,142,143
                FERT (L) . FERT (L-1)
     17
         142
=
                CONTINUE
     18
         143
     13
                D5 145 L#1,21
                80
                FERTILI # FERTILI ** 001
     51
     82
         145
                CONTINUE
                34(S) * GW(S) * . S
     53
                GM[3] # GM[3] #+8
     84
                BM(20) * GM(20) *.2
     85
                CALL SPLINE [GM, AM1, 2, 20]
     86
     87
                N = 4
                N=N+1
     88
         152
                IF [GF[N]] 152,152,153
     89
     90
         153
                N1 = N=1
                N = 14
     91
                N=N=1
.
     75
         154
                IF [GF[N]] 154,154,155
     73
                N . SN
     74
         155
     75
                3F(1) # 0.1
                CALL SPLINE (GF, AF1, N1, N2)
     76
                PRINT 101, GM
     77
                PRINT 101, GF,N1,N2
     75
     99
                PRINT 102, FERT
                PRINT 102, AMBRT
    100
                DB 160 L#1/86
    101
                AP1(L) * AP1(L) *P8P(1) *1.E6
    102
         160
                DS 170
                         L#1,85
    103
                AF1(L) = [AF1(L)+AF1(L+1)]*+5
    104
         170
    105
                DB 300 LL#1#4
              INPUT PARAMETERS FOR 4 CURVES
    106
                38 T8 [181,182,183,184],LL
    107
    108
         181
                CONTINUE
                KBNTR # 1975
    109
                KAB # 0
    110
    111
                GB TB 185
                CONTINUE
         182
    112
                KAB # 2
    113
                LAUS # 3
    114
                KeNTR # 1985
8
    115
                38 TB 185
    116
```

```
CONTINUE
        183
   117
               LAUS . 5
   118
               KAB . 5
   119
               G8 T8 185
   120
               CONTINUE
   121
        184
               LAUB = 10
   122
               KBNTR # 2200
   123
               KAB . 999999
   124
               CONTINUE
   125
        185
                KENTR # 1995
   126
               LAUB # 1
   127
               KAVILLI & KAB+7
   128
                KOVILLI . KONTR
   129
                INT . THEAB
   130
               PRINT 110, NAME, MODE
PRINT 114, KONTR, INT
   131
   132
                 PRINT 116, EO, EU, EA, XO, KTOT
   133
                PRINT 108
   134
   145
                SBAB . Q.
                STOT . D.
   136
                AMEON # AMIE13
   157
                D8 191 La1,86
   148
                AM (L) . (AM1 (L) +AM1 (L+13) ++5
   139
                AFTLS # AFTTLJ
   140
                APILL + APILLE
   141
                CONTINUE
         191
   142
                AMEBSI # AMIESSI
   143
             MODEL DB 100 Ke1950,2100
   144
   145
                KK . K-1949
   146
   147
                GT . 0.
                TST . 0.
    148
                BAS . 0.
    149
                DB 5 L-1,86
    150
                TOT . TOT + APELS *AMELS
    151
                BAB . BAB+AP(L) -AF(L)
    192
                De 7 Le1,18
    153
                GELJ . O.
    154
                DB 8 L=1,86
    155
                L2 # [L+4]/5
    156
                GILES . GILES+APILS
    157
                DB 9 L81,18
    158
                GT . GT+G[L]
    109
         y
              MIGRATION
    160
                IF [K-1970] 90,90,97
    151
                AMIG . POP[KK]=100+-67+0.0001
    102
         90
                IF CAMIGI AMIG . AMIG-1.
    163
                AMIG # AMIG++5
    164
                MIG . AMIG
    105
    166
                De 95 L=2,51
                APILI - APILI+MIG+200+
         75
    107
                AMIG . MIG. O1
    105
                GT . GT . MIG-1.E4
    169
                CONTINUE
    1/0
                 IF (MODIK, 51) 151, 150, 151
    1/1
                PRINT 151, K, GT, CB, CBR, CD, CDR, SSAB, STOT
          150
    172
                FORMAT [2X, 14, 3X, F12.0, 4[3X, F10.7], 2[5X, F12.0]]
    17-3
          151
                 XPIKKI # 44.
          X
    1/4
                 IF [K-1970] 10,30,50
    175
.
              MORTALITY FERTILITY TILL 1969
    176
```

```
177
     10
            CONTINUE
            BB . [FERT [KK] *PBP [KK] *FERT [KK+1] *PBP [KK+1] * .5E6
178
1/9
                  [AMBRT[KK] +PBP[KK]+AMBRT[KK+1] +PBP[KK+1]] ++5E6
            IF CAMERTIKK+133 11,11,12
180
             TT . [POP[KK]-POP[KK+1]]+1+E6 + 88
181
     11
182
     12
            CONTINUE
            TOT . TOT+BB+ . 5+AM [0]
183
            CB . BB/BAB
184
165
            CD . TT/TST
            CFEKKJ # CB
186
187
            CHEKKI . CD
188
            08 BT 60
          CALCULATION OF EQUILIBRIUM STATE AND MORTALITY MULTIPLIER FOR WACK (
189
190
          PROTEIN.
191
     OE
            CONTINUE
192
            CB . 0.
193
            CD . 0.
            De 35 Lei, LAUS
194
195
            L1 * KK+L
C8 * C8+CF(L1)
196
            CD . CD+CMtL13
197
     35
            CB . CB/LAUS
198
            CD . CD/LAUS
199
            PG = [1./CD-AM[85]]/AM[86]
200
201
            P # 1: - +5+CD+AM[0]
            81 . P
SOE
            S2 # AM[1] #CD#P +1+ #P
203
405
            33 # O.
205
            DB 40 L+2,85
            P # P+(1,-AM(L-1)+CD)
206
207
            $1 . $1+P
208
            $3 * $3 + AF(L)+P
            SZ . SZ+AM[L]+CD+P
209
     40
            A85 . [1.-[1.-$2]/P]/CD
210
            P + P+[1.-AM[85]+CD]
211
            S1 * S1+P/AM(86)/CD
212
            52 . $2+P
213
214
            FY # 1 ./31
            FX • 1./S3
215
            PRINT 41,51,FX,FY,52,PG
216
            FORMAT [SLEB, CFSTAT, CBRSTAT; TOT/BAS, P86/P85
                                                                $25[3X2F12.7]]
217
     41
            F # CB
218
            FA . F.FX
219
            PR # 44++GT
550
155
            PRD # PR*0:005
222
            G8 87 80
          MURTALITY FERTILITY LATER THAN 1970
583
224
     90
            CONTINUE
225
            IF [K-2000] 230,229,235
            CONTINUE
226
     229
            PR . PR-PRD
227
     230
228
     235
            CONTINUE
             XPIKKI # PR/GT
229
230
                     L=1,85
             D# 240
             E * [E8=EU] *EXP[-L/EA] + EU
ZM * [[44.-X0]/[XP[KK-KT8T]=K0] =1.] * E * 1.
231
232
             AMELJ . CAMICUJAMICU+133+ZM++5
     X240
ELS
             ZM = [[44. *X0]/[XP[KK=KT8T] =X0] =1.] * E8* 1.
234
             AMEQJ # AM1 [1] #ZM
215
     Х
236
             ZM = [[44:=X0]/[XP[KK=KT0T]=X0] =1:] + EU+ 1:
```

```
AM [86] # AM1 [86] #ZM
237
            IF [K#KONTR] 320,307,307
248
            IF (KAB1 308,308,309
     307
239
            F # FX
     30E
240
            G8 T8 320
241
            CONTINUE
     #09
242
            FK # 0.1/KA8
243
            IF [K-KONTR-7+KAB] 310,320,320
244
            IF [K-KONTR-5-KAB] 311,318,318
     310
245
            IF [K=KONTR=2*KAB] 318,315,315
     311
246
            FK 4 FK+2.
247
      #15
            F & FWFA+FK
245
      $18
      120
            CONTINUE
249
            CB . F
250
            CONTINUE
      80
251
             IF [1.=CD+AM[86]] G0 T0 350
          CALCULATION OF POPULATION AT TET+1
252
253
             BAH . BAB+CB
254
             TOT . BAS. . 5 . AM [O] . CD
255
             DO 75 LT1,86
TOT # TOT + APELJ +AMELJ *CD
256
      75
257
             YY [KK] # GT/YC*18. * 9.
255
             IF CYY (KK1-9.1 82.82.81
 259
             YY [KK] # 9.
      81
 260
             XX [KK] # [KK+76]+9+/75+
      82
 261
             IF [M80[K,5]] 84,83,84
 202
             GR [KK/5+1, LL, KREG] . 0.000001*GT
      83
 263
             WELT (KKILL) . WELT (KKILL) +GT
             APE86] # APE85]+[1:=CD*AM[86]] + APE86]+[1:=CD*AM[86]]
      84
 264
 265
             D8 85 L+85,2,+1
 256
             L1 * L+1
 267
             AP(L) - AP(L1)+(1++CD+AM(L1))
      85
 268
             AP(1) * BAB*(1...5*CD*AM(0))
 269
             IF [K-1970] 87,86,86
 270
      86
             CONTINUE
 2/1
             SBAB . SBAB+BAB
 2/2
             STOT . STOT+TOT
 2/3
              CONTINUE
 2/4
              GT # GT++5+8A8++5+787
 2/5
              CBR . BAB/GT
 276
              COR . TOT/GT
 217
              CONTINUE
       100
 2/8
              CALL KURVE [151, XX, YY]
 219
              CONTINUE
       400
 280
              CALL FRAME CXX, YY, LY, LZJ
  281
              CONTINUE
       200
  285
               CALL EXIT
  253
              READ 107, LY, LZ
  284
              READ 104, NAME
  285
              YC . LY*1.E6
  286
              DB 660 J#1#4
  287
              DB 655 I #1,151
  288
              MECIAJI . MELTCIAJI . MECIAJI
  259
              YY (1) . WELT (1, J) /YC+18. . 9.
  240
              IF (YY(I) -9.) 655,655,652
  271
              YY[] . 9.
        652
  272
              CONTINUE
  293
       655
              CALL KURVE [151, XX, YY]
  274
              CONTINUE
  275
        660
              CALL FRAME [XX,YY,LY,LZ]
  276
```

```
237
                CONTINUE
         400
8
    276
                DB 680 Ne1#4
                D8 680 Is1,31
    277
                D8 680 Je1,10
    300
                GRELINALLY = GRELINALLY + GRELINALLY
    301
         680
                D8 685 LL=1,4
    302
    303
                PRINT 682,KEV[LL],KAV[LL]
                FORMAT (1H1, SPOPULATION OF ALL REGIONS FOR KONTR = $, 14,5 AND INT
    304
         682
               T . $,16//1X,4HYEAR,5X,4HN A ,6X,4HH EU,7X,3HJAP,4X,7HE EU,5U,5X,5H
    305
               HR DEV, 5X, 4HL A , 6X, 4HM AF, 6X, 4HM EA, 5X, 5HS E A, 5X, 5HCHINA, 5X, 54T61
    306
    307
               TAL:/1
                D8 685 101,31
    308
    309
                K * 5*I + 1945
                PRINT 683,K, [GR[],LL,J],Je1,11]
    310
                FORMAT [1X, 14, 11 [2X, F8 . 23]
    311
         683
    312
         985
                CONTINUE
                READ 1071LY1LZ
    313
                READ 104, NAME
    314
                YC . LY+1.E6
    315
                DB 700 J#1.4
    316
                D8 695 Isi,151
    317
                YY (I] # WE (I, J] /YC+18.-9.
    318
                IF LYY(1] -9.3 695,695,694
    319
    320
         694
                YY[1] * 9.
                CONTINUE
    321
         695
                CALL KURVE [151, XX, YY]
    322
                CONTINUE
    323
         /00
                CALL FRAME (XX, YY, LY, LZ)
    324
    325
                CALL EXIT
                TYPE 111, NAME, CD, AM (86)
    326
         350
                FORMAT [SUNREASONABLE RESULTS FOR $1004,5MCD : ,F8.3,3X,8HAM[86]
    327
         111
               A# #F8+31
    328
                38 TO 200
    329
    330
                END
COMMON ALLOCATION
```

77777 77274	-	77776	KONTR	77764	NAME	77752	MODE
RUGHAM	ALLOCATION	N					
00017 00417 00417 13945 14047 15183 15185 15141 15155 15174 15174 15204 15214	AMIG CDR 81	00017 001345 13653 141127 15126 15146 15156 15156 15176 15216	GM WELT FER V AP V I Z NKC GB BB S2	14373 15133 15137 15143 15147 15150 15170 15200 15220	POP GRORT AP1 NO I E LL2 TOR TOR TOR TS3	14647 15134 15140 15144 15150 15154 15162 15172 15202 15212 15222	J KREG LAUS MIG SDAB SDAB CD PG A85
15234	PH	15226 15236	FX PRD	15240	F F≺	15232	r n

SUBPREGRAMS REQUIRED

PUBTTFAU XYBVZR SPLINE MBD Exit KURVE FRAME

```
SUBROUTINE FRAME [ X, YY, LY, LZ]
                 DIMENSION X [151] . YY [151]
                 DIMENSION XX [5]
                 DIMENSION NAME [10] . MODE [10]
       5
                 COMMON KABAKONTRANAMEAMODE
       6
                 De 640 LL=1,151,50
                 K#LL+1949
                 XP05 . X[LL] =0.6
       8
      9
                 CALL XYBCD [XP08,-9.2,0.3,0.3,0.0)
      10
                 PUNCH 631 K
      11
          631
                 FORMAT [2X,1H\/I4]
      12
                 XXII) * XILLI
      13
                 * [2] XX
                         X [LL]
      14
                 YY[1] # +9.
      15
                 YY[2] . .9.
      16
                 CALL KURVE [2,XX,YY]
                 CONTINUE
      17
          540
      18
                 CALL XYBCD [6:0] +9:5,0:3,0:3,1,4HYEAR]
                 YA # 18+/LZ
      19
                 YB . .9.
      80
                 CALL XYBCD [=10.0, Y8.0.15, 0.3, 0.3, 1, 4H0
      21
      22
                 D8 650 L#1,LZ
      23
                 LL . LY/LZ+L
                 YB . YB+YA
      24
                 YY[1] * Y8
      25
                 YY [2] . YB
      26
      27
                 XX[1] = +9+
      28
                 XX[2] # 9.
     29
                 CALL KURVE [2,XX,YY]
      40
                 CALL XYBCD [=10.0, YB-0.15, 0.3, 0.3, 0.0]
      11
                 IF LLY - 9993 641,641,646
                 PUNCH 642.LL
      52
          641
      43
                EEIJ TAMRET
          642
     34
                 INT # 6
     35
                 39 TO 650
          546
                 YL # LL+0.001
     16
                 INT # 9
     37
                 IF 19999-LY3 GB T5 670
     38
     19
                PUNCH 647 YL
                FORMAT [F3+1]
     40
         647
     41
          650
                CONTINUE
     42
                CALL XYBCD [+10.0,7.7,0.3,0.3,1,4HP8P ]
                CALL XYBCD [=10.0,6.7,0.3,0.3,1,4410 ]
     43
     44
                CALL XYBCD (-9.35,6.85,.27,.27,0,0)
     45
                PUNCH 632, INT
                FORMAT [11]
     46
          632
     47
                INT # 7#KAB
     , 48
                CALL XYBCD [ =8.8,8.0, .27, .27, 0, 0]
     49
                PUNCH 633
     90
                PUNCH 634, NAME, MODE
     51
                IF [KAB-10] 610,620,620
                CONTINUE
     25
         610
                THI . SES HORUY
     53
     54
                85 61 6D
     55
         620
                CONTINUE
     36
                STRENGT 638, KONTR
     57
         625
                CONTINUE
                FORMAT ESPOPULATION GROWTH FORSI
         633
     55
.
                FBRMAT [10A4]
     77
         634
```

```
FORMAT [#INT # $, [2]
    636
60
             FORMAT IS KONTR 8 $/14]
01
     538
             XX[1] # =9+
92
             XX[2] # -9.
63
             XX[3] * 9.
XX[4] * 9.
64
65
             XX (5) . -9.
56
             YY [1] # 9.
67
             44(5) + 49.
65
             YY [3] 0 =9.
YY [4] 0 9.
59
70
             YY (5) # 9.
71
             CALL KURVE (5,XX,YY)
18
             PAUSE 2
73
             CALL PLOTTFAC(0.)
IF ISENSE SWITCH 33 CALL PLOTTFAC(5./6.)
74
/5
             RETURN
16
             PUNCH 671, YL
FORMAT [F3+0]
G0 T0 650
    670
77
18
     671
19
             END
80
```

### COMMON ALLOCATION

77777 KAB	77776 KONTR	77764 NAME	77752 MODE

### PROGRAM ALLOCATION

TAI #FOOD	DUMMY YY DUMMY LZ 00035 FRAME 00045 YL	00017 XX 00033 L 00037 XP6S	00031 LL DUMMY LY 00041 YA
-----------	---	-----------------------------------	----------------------------------

## SUBPROGRAMS REQUIRED

XYBCD KURVE PLOTTFAC

```
SUBROUTINE SPLINE [G,AG,N1,N2]
                DIMENSION GERTI AGEAS
                DIMENSION NAME [10] . MODE [10]
                DIMENSION B(501,C(501)D(501,XX(50), YY(50)
      5
                COMMON KAB, KONTR, NAME, MODE
      6
                COMMON B.C.D.XX,YY
                D8 10 L*3,20
      7
          10
                XX [L] # 5=L=10
      9
                XX[1] # 0.
     10
                ** [2] * 1.
                .Y1 # G[1]
     11
     12
                YY [1] . Y1
     13
                De 20 L=2,20
          20
                YYIL] # GILJ+YYIL-1]
     14
                01 * YY (20] - YY (1]
     15
                Y2 * .5+G1 + Y1
     16
     17
                3(21) . 3(1) . 31
                 IF [N1-2] 24,21,22
     15
     19
                YY (20] * YY (20] + 4 + + G (20)
         21
     20
                GB TB 24
     21
          22
                SNITHEL BO
                EAG # YY(L]/YZ=1.
YY(L] #=(EAG+1.) / (EAG+1.)
     22
     23
                YYTLI * ALOGTYYTLII
         23
     45
                CONTINUE
     25
          24
     26
                CALL SPLIKE (B,C,D,XX,YY,N1,N2)
                L2 . 2
     27
                L3 # 86
     85
                IF [N1-2] 30,30,25
     29
                L2 . N1+5 - 9
         25
     40
     11
         30
                IF [N2-20] 35,40,40
     12
          45
                L3 * N2*5 + 9
                DB 50 L*L3,86
.
     33
          40
     34
          50
                AG(L) # G1+Y1=G(20)
     15
                D8 55 L#1,L2
                AGILJ . YYIIJ
     16
         55
                De 70 L*L2,L3-1
     37
                L1 * L+9
     38
     19
                IF (L=5) 60,60,65
                L1 * L1+1
     40
         50
                [+L1/5
     41
          65
     42
                Q * L1=I+5
     43
                EAG + [[D[]]+Q+C[]]]+Q+B[]]] + DAG
                IF [N1-2] 70,70,66
     44
     45
         96
                EAG . EXPIEAGI
                EAG # [EAG-1.] / [EAG+1.]
     46
                EAG # [EAG+1.] #Y2
     47
          70
                ABILL . EAG
     48
     49
                D8 80 L=1,85
                ABILI # (ABIL+13-ABIL)3/61
     90
                IF [AG[L]] AG[L] = 0.0
     51
         80
                CONTINUE
     25
                AG[86] . G[20]/G1
8
     53
                RETURN
     54
.
     55
                END
```

B 422

77777	KAB	77776	KONTR	77764	NAME	77752	
77702	8	77632	C	77562	D	77512	XX
77442	YY						
PROGRAM	ALLECAT	ION					
DUMMY	G.	DUMMY	AG	00015	L	DUMMY	N1
DUMMY	NZ	00016	LS.	90017	L3	00020	L1
00021	I	22000	SPLINE	00024	Y1	00026	<b>G1</b>
00030	AR	00032	EAG	00034	9		

SUBPROGRAMS REQUIRED

ALUG SPLIKU EXP

```
SUBROUTINE SPLIKE [B,C,D,X,F,N1,N2]
       8
                 DIMENSION 8 (20), C(20), D(20), X (20), F (20)
.
       J
                 M1 * N1 + 1
                 M2 . N2 . 1
       5
                 SOO
       6
                 DB 10 1-N1,M2
       7
                 tilx . ti+il . xtll
                 R * (F(1+1)-F(1)) / D(1)
C(1) * R+S
       8
      9
     10
          10
                 S . R
     11
                 8 . 0
•
     12
                 R . O
     13
                 CENTY # 0
                 CENET . O
     14
.
¥
     15
                 20 1+M1.M2
                 C[[] = C[[] + R+C[[+1]
8[[] = [X[[-1]=X[[+1]] + 2+ - R*S
     16
W
     17
     18
                 S . D[1]
          80
                 R . S/8[1]
     19
                 D8 30 18M2,M1,-1
#
     40
     21
          40
                 ctil * totil+cti+11 = ctill / Btil
                 D8 40 I=N1,M2
     22
                 S . DIII
     23
                 R = C[I+1] = C[I]
D[I] = R/S
     24
     25
.
                 C(1) * C(1) * 3.
.
     26
                 B(1) * (F(1+1) *F(1)) / S = (C(1)+R) * S
     27
     28
          40
                 CONTINUE
     29
                 RETURN
     30
                 END
```

### PROGRAM ALLOCATION

DUMMY	병	DUMMY	C	DUMMY	D	DUMMY	×
DUMMY		00024		DUMMY 00027	N1 SFLIKE	00025	
000341			•	-			

```
SUBROUTINE AGED [AP,K,XMA]
                 DIMENSION XX(173) , YY (173) , AP (86) , NAME (10) , MODE (10)
                 COMMON KAB, KONTR, NAME, MODE
      3
.
                 GT . 0.
                 S2 . 0.
      5
                 DB 355 Le1/86
       6
                 IF (SZ-APILI) SZ-APILI
       7
                 GT . GT+AP[L]
          J55
       8
                 L2 = S2+100+/GT + 1=
      9
                 32 . L2
      10
                 PAUSE 1
      11
                 XX[1] * +9+
      12
æ
                 XX[2] # +9+
.
      13
                 YY[1] # +9+
      14
                 44 (51 + +8+
      15
.
                 CALL KURVE [2,XX,YY]
      16
                 XXIII * O.
      17
.
                 XX[S] . 0.
ų
      15
                 YY[1] * •9+
      19
                 YY [2] # +9+
      20
                 CALL KURYE (2,XX,YY)
CALL XYBCD [.2,8.5,0.3,0.3,1,4HAGE ]
.
      21
      22
                 CALL XYBCD [ +9.0,7.0,0.3,0.3,0,0]
      23
                 PUNCH 361 K
                 FORMAT (SAGE DISTRIBUTIONS/SIN PERCENT FORS/15)
      24
      25
          361
                  SUNCH 363, NAME, MODE
      26
                 FORMAT [5A4,20X,5A4]
      27
            363
                  L2 # 8:0/XMA
      28
                  De 365 L=-1,1,2
      29
                  De 365 Li . 1/L2
      30
                  X1 * XMA*L1*L*0+3
      31
                  CALL XYBCD [X1, 9.2,0,3,0,3,0,3,0,0]
      32
                  PUNCH 362, L1
      13
             ISTY HST TAMRET SAE
      34
                  CONTINUE
      J5
           365
                  XX (173) . 0.
      36
                  YY[1] * +9+
       37
                  D8 375 L+1,172
       38
                  L1 * (L+1)/2
       39
                  XX CLJ . AP(L1)/GT+100. *XMA
       40
                  YY[L+1] # L1+0+2+9+
       41
           J75
                  CALL KURVE [173,XX,YY]
       42
                  DS 385 L-1,173
       43
                  XX CL] # #XX CL]
CALL KURVE [173, XX, YY]
           385
       45
                  DB 370 LB20,172,20
       46
                   XXIII . XXILI
       47
                   CIJXX=# [SJXX
       48
                   YY [1] # YY [L]
       49
                   YY[2] # YY[1]
       50
                   CALL KURVE [2,XX,YY]
            370
       51
                   IF ISENSE SWITCH 21 381,384
       52
                   De 382 Le1,86
            481
       53
                   XXILI # APILI/GT+100.
            582
       54
                   PRINT 361,K
[88,1*1,[1],L*1,86]
       55
       36
                   FORMAT [11[8[3X,F8+5]/]]
       57
            183
                   CONTINUE
       55
            484
 .
                   De 388 L#10,86,10
       59
```

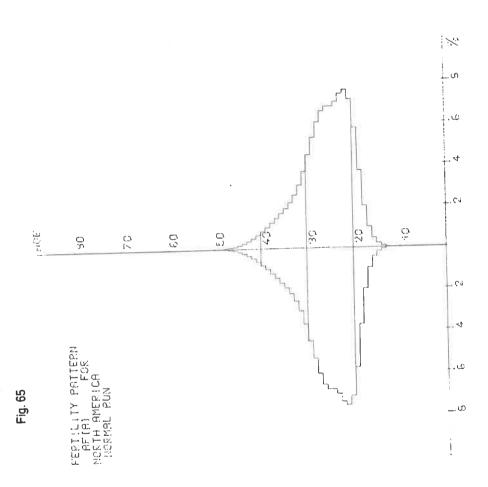
```
S2 * L*0,2=9.4
CALL XYBCD [=0.1,S2,0.3,0.3,0.0]
PUNCH 387,L
     50
     61
     58
     63
          387
                FORMAT LIH / 123
                 CONTINUE
     54
         異常に
     65
                 CALL XYBCD [8.5, +9.4, 0.2, 0.2, 0.0]
                 OEE HOUNG
     55
         330
     57
                 CALL XYBCD [8:03,+9:7,0:47:0:5;1;44 / ]
RETURN
     68
     69
9
     10
                 END
```

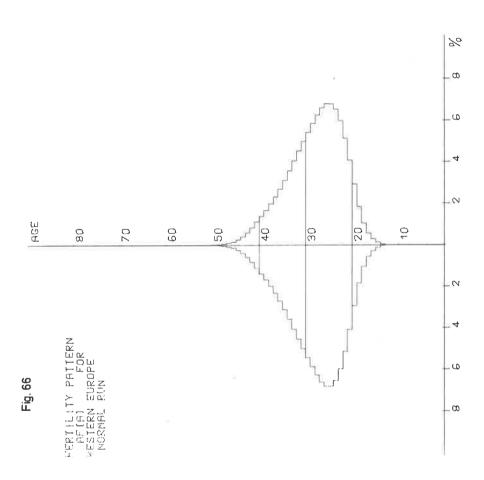
### CBMMON ALLOCATION

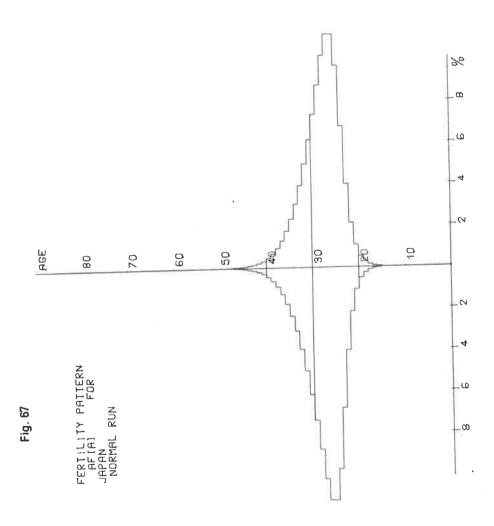
77777	KAB	77776	KONTR	77764	NAME	77752	MODE
PROGRAM	ALLOCATION	N					
00012	ХX	00544	YY	DUMMY	A P	01276	L
01277	FS	YMMUU	K	01300	L1	01301	AUED
01303	GT	01305	<b>S2</b>	DUMMY	X M A	01307	X1

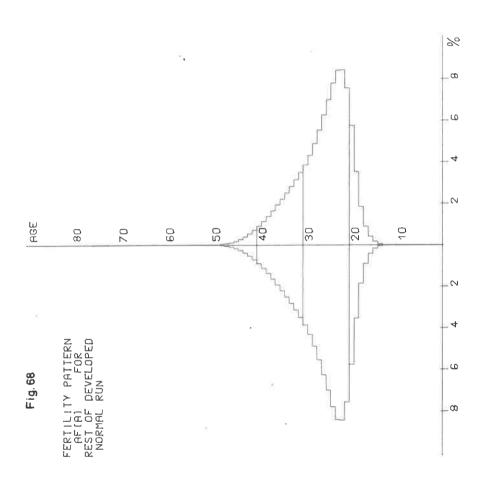
#### SUBPROGRAMS REQUIRED

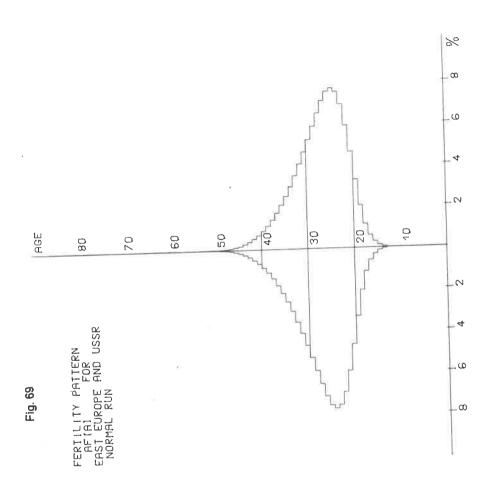
KURVE XYBOD

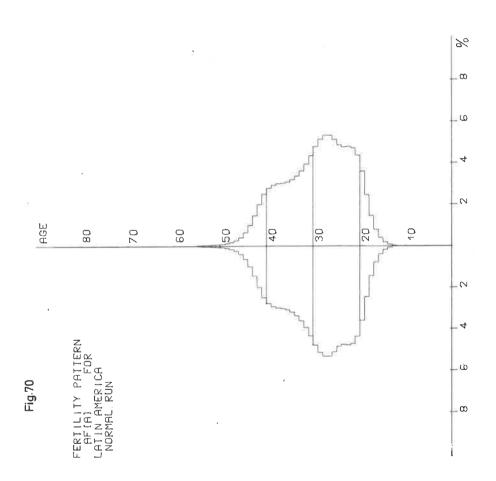


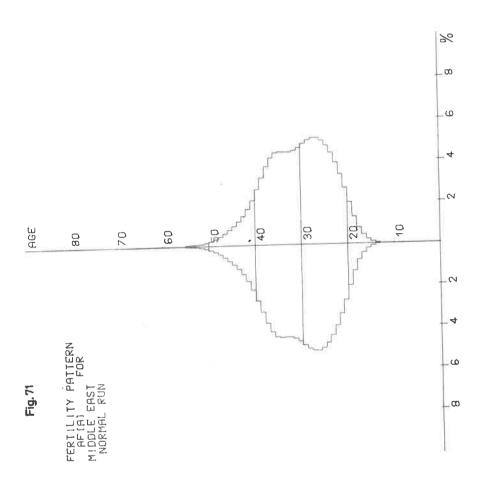


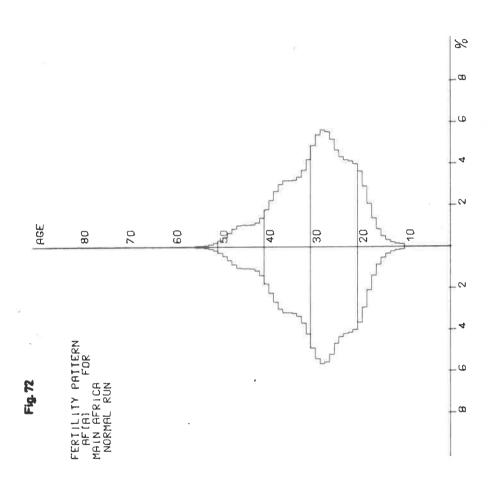


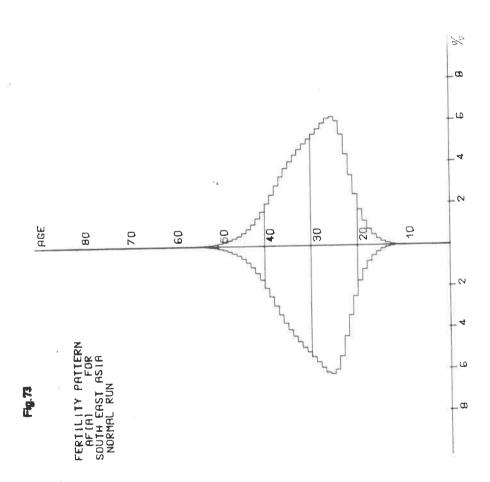


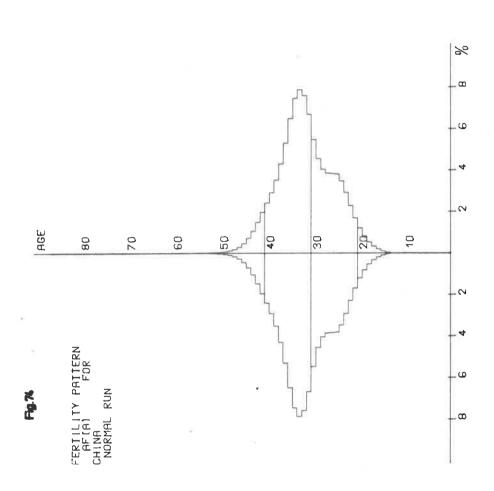


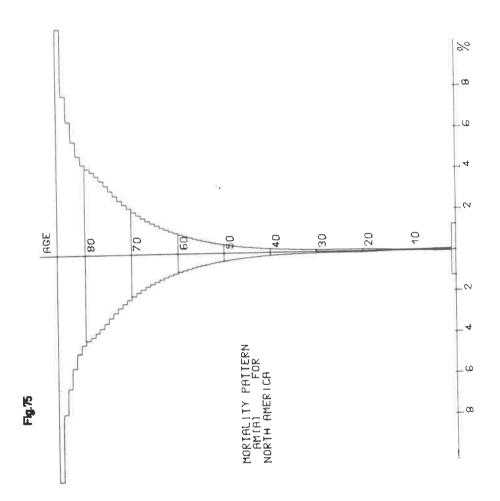


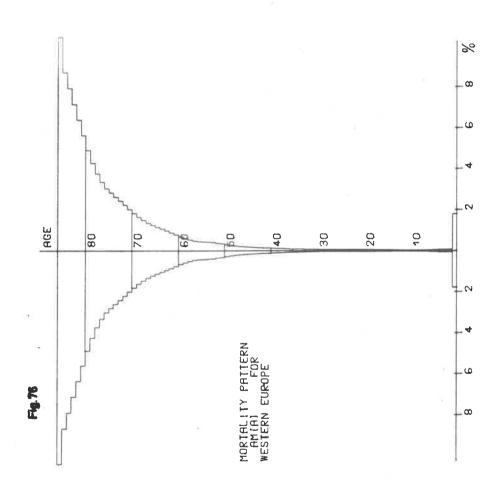


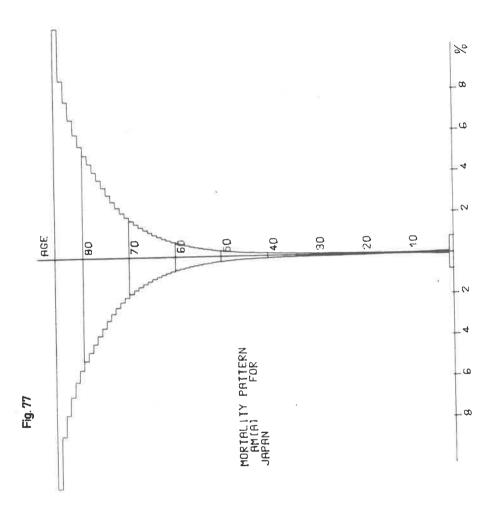


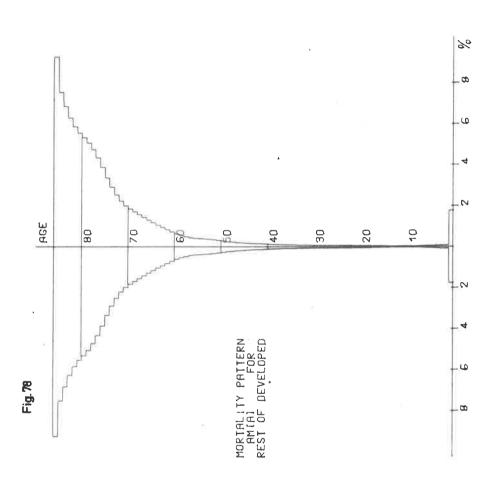


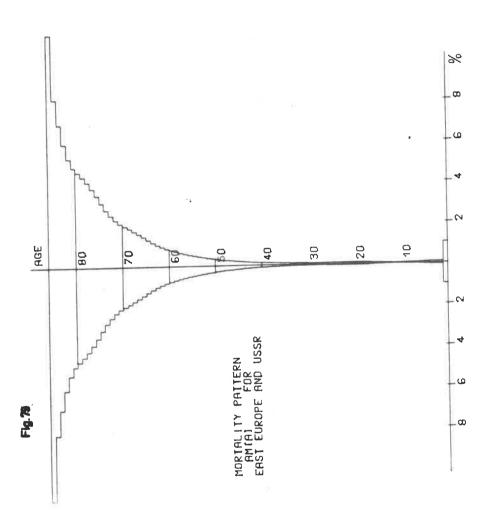


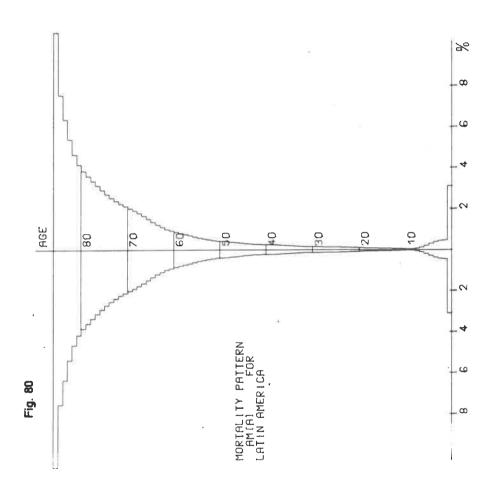


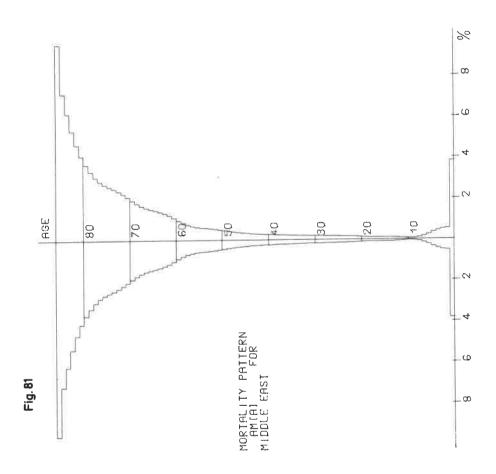


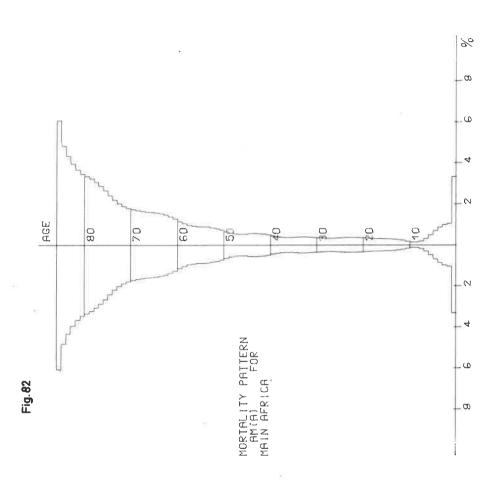


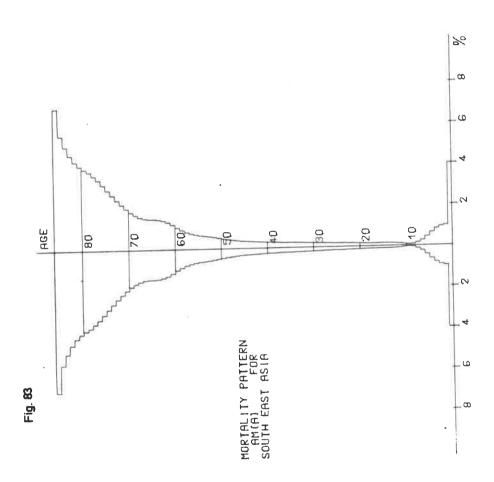


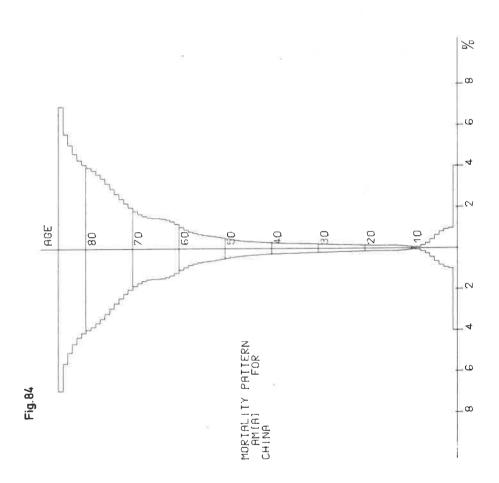












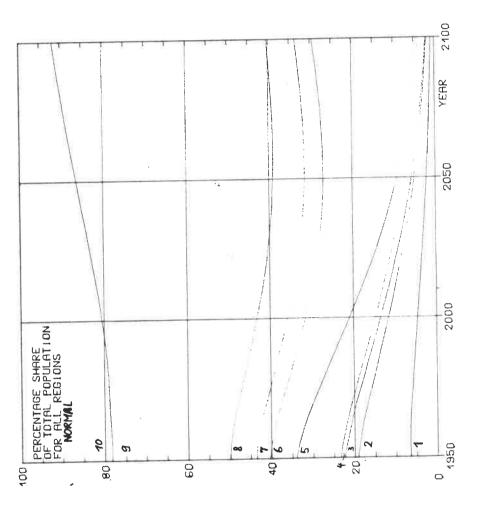
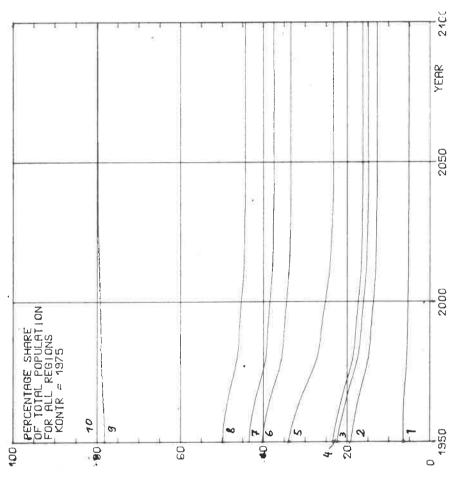


Fig. 108



ia. 109

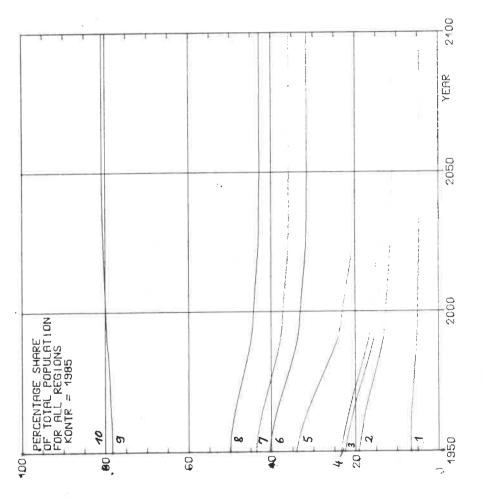
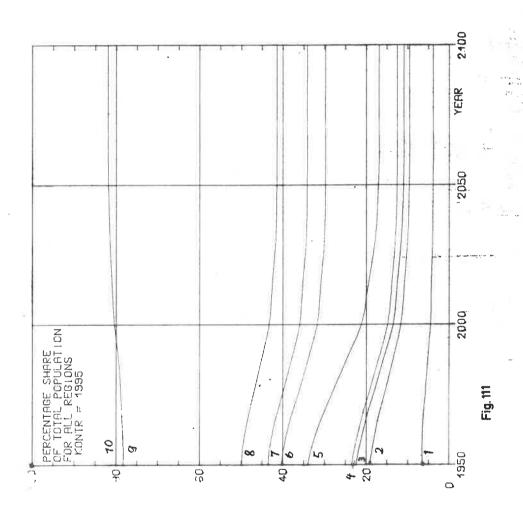
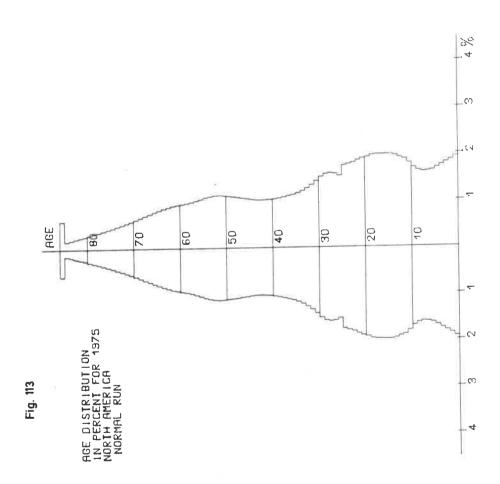
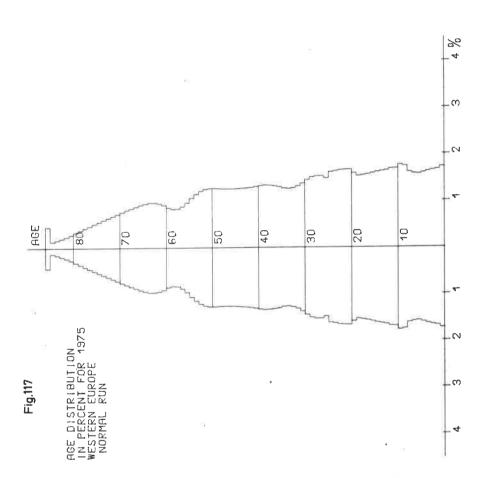
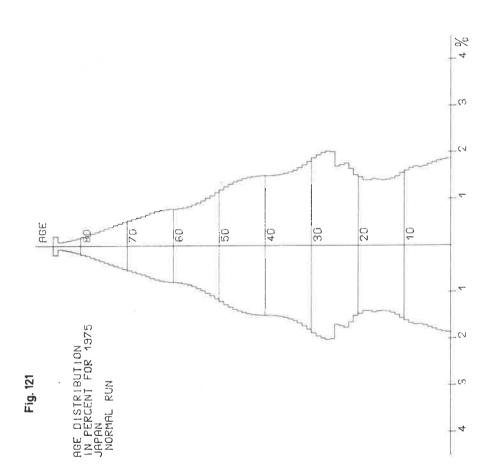


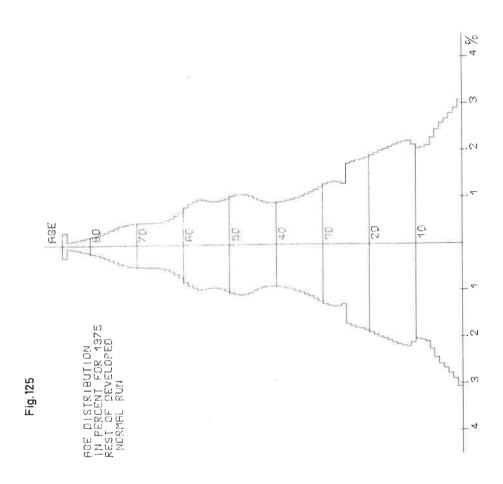
Fig.110

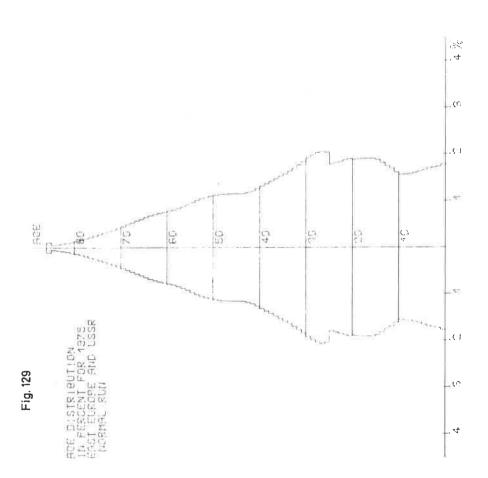


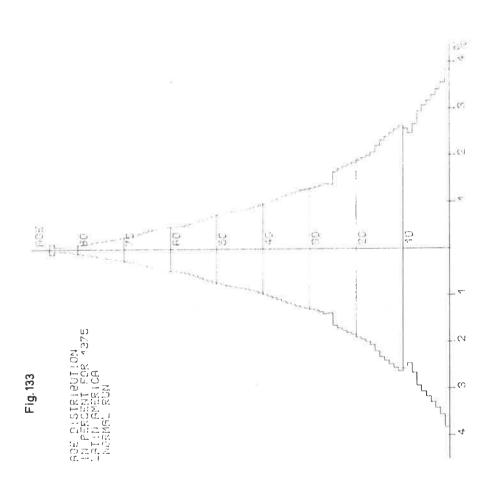


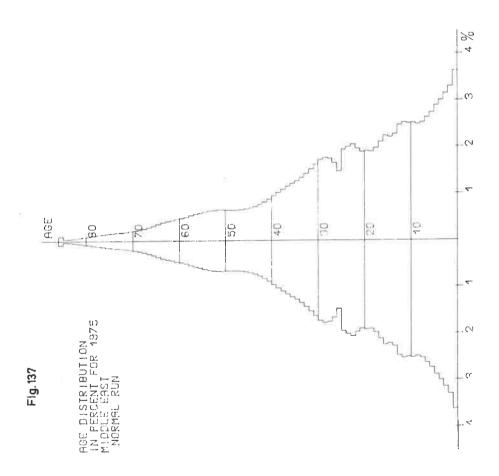


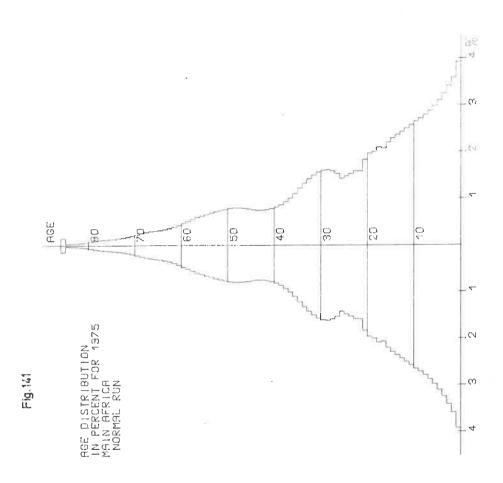


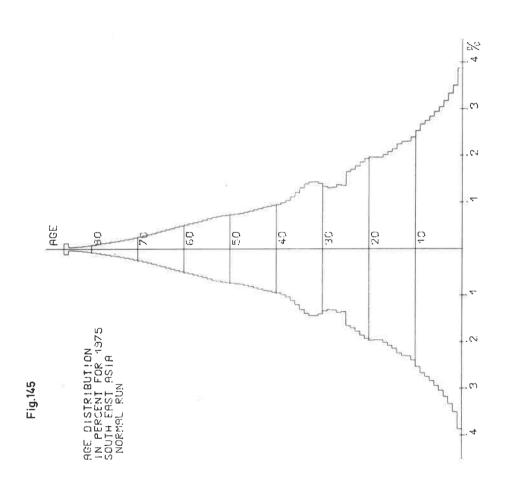


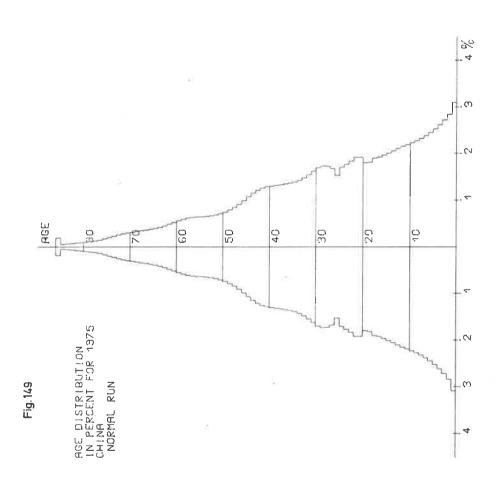












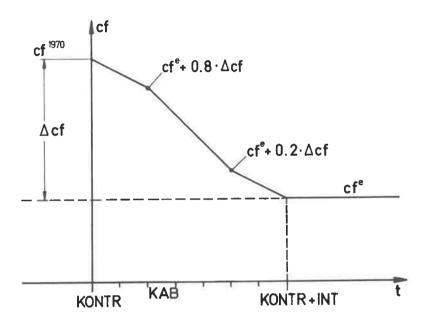


Fig. 192: Scheme for fertility transition period

key numbers for equilibrium runs:

KONTR =

Type 2.3 :

```
Type 1.1 : INT = O ; KONTR = 1975/1985/1995/2200

Type 1.2 : INT = 14 ; KONTR = 1975/1985/1995/2200

Type 1.3 : INT = 35 ; KONTR = 1975/1985/1995/2200

Type 2.1 : KONTR = 1975 ; INT = 0/14/35/\infty

Type 2.2 : KONTR = 1985 ; INT = 0/14/35/\infty
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1995 ;

INT =  $O/14/35/\infty$ 

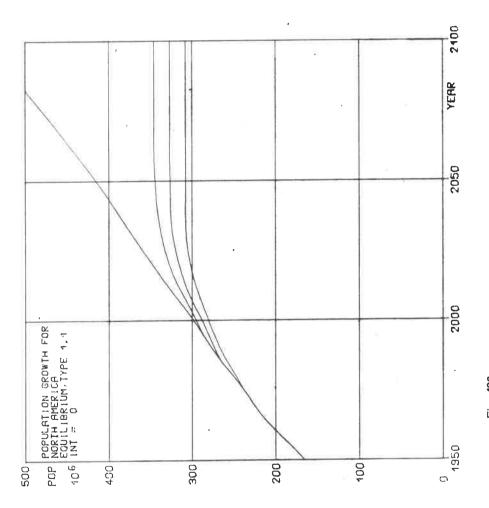
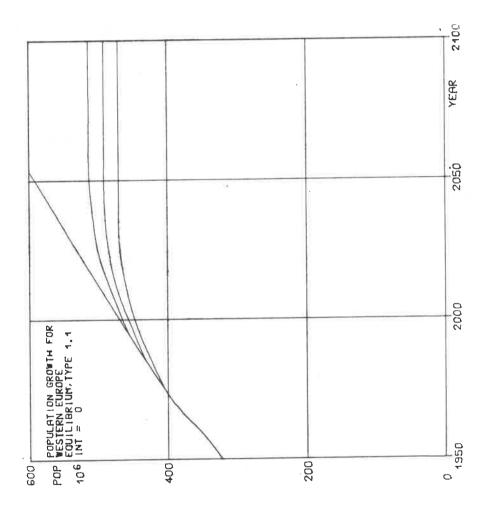
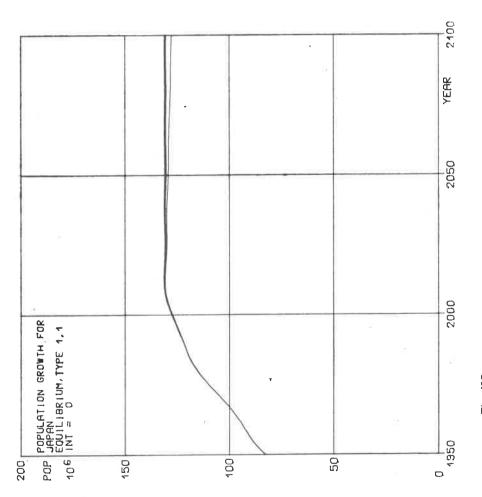


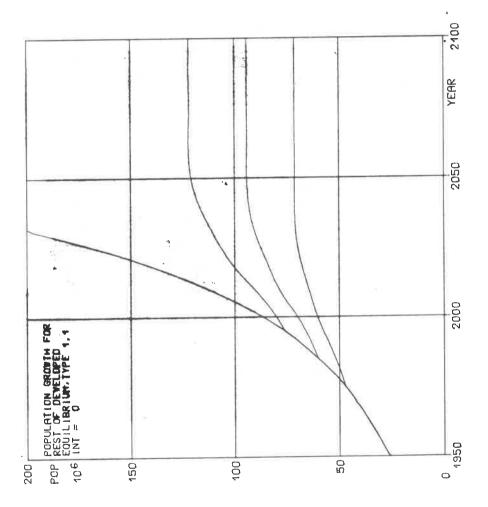
Fig. 193

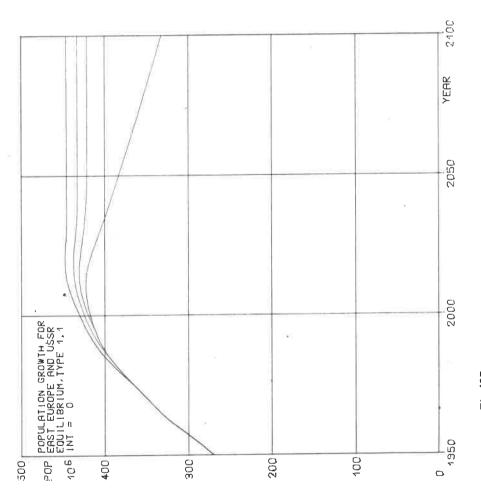


.ig. 194

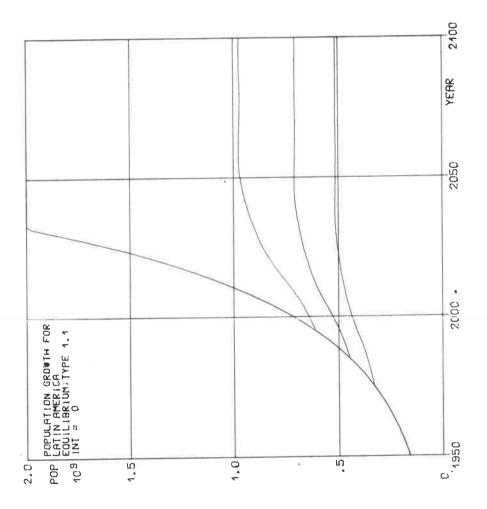


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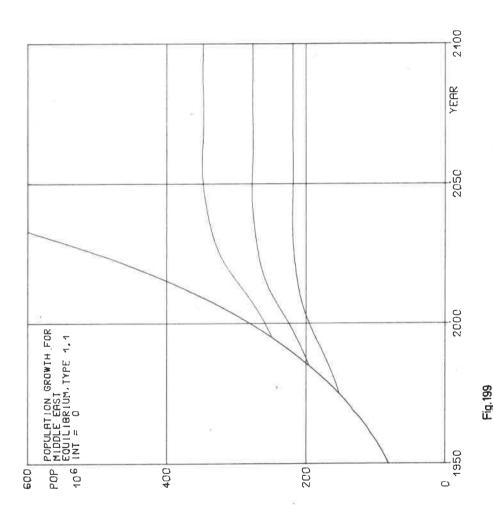


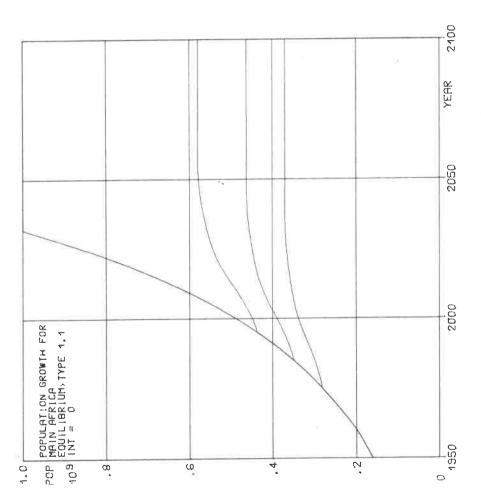


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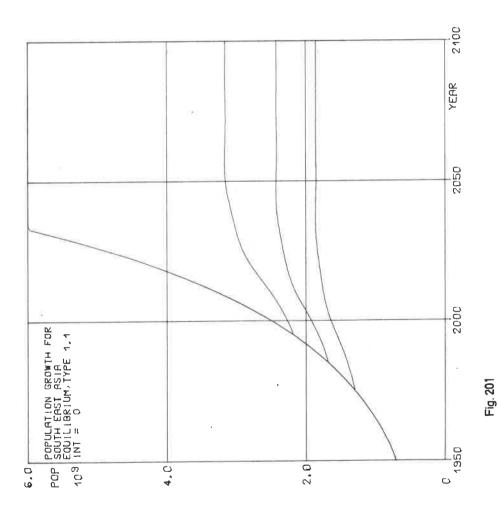


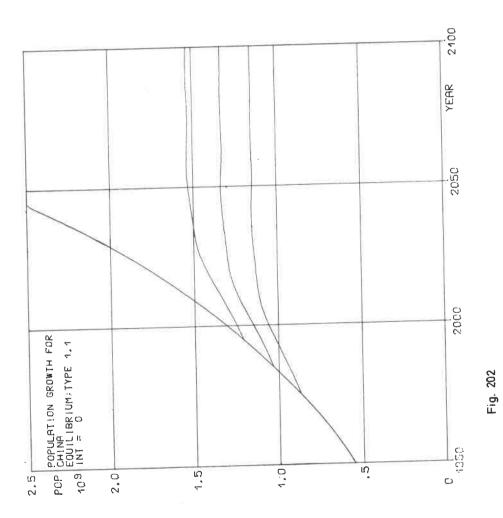
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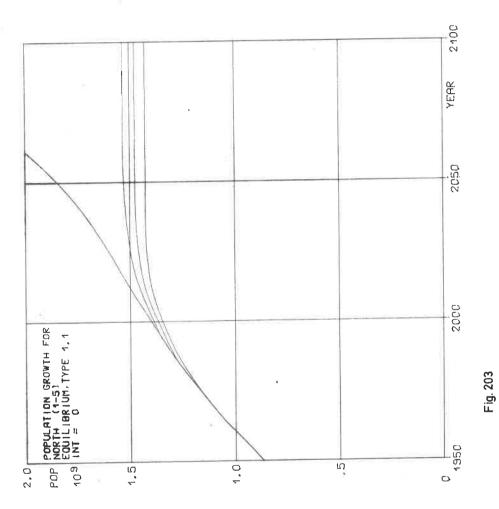


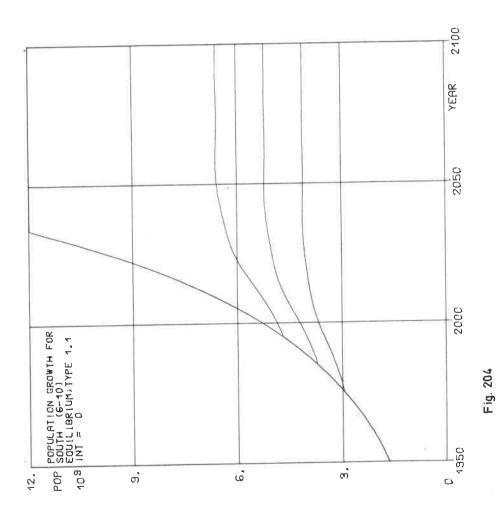


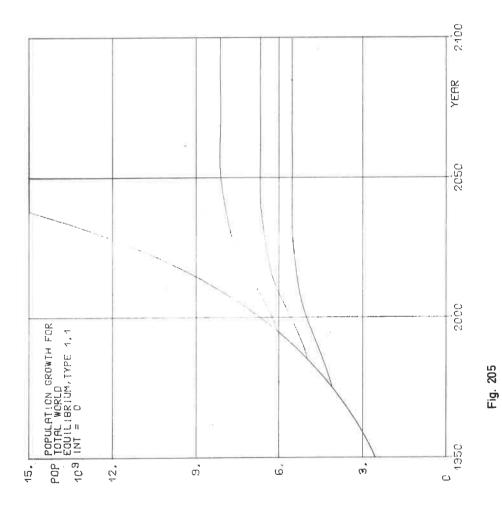
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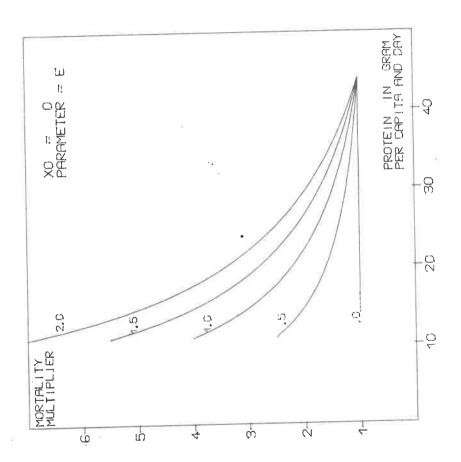


Fig. 271

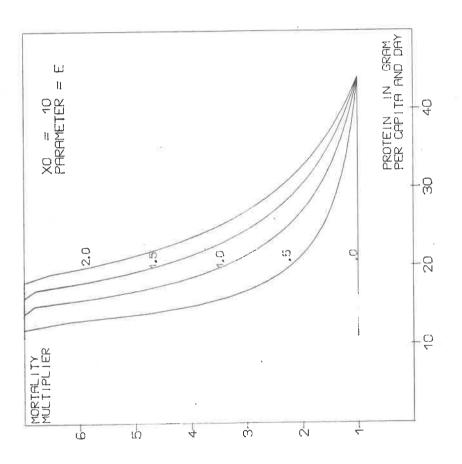


Fig. 272

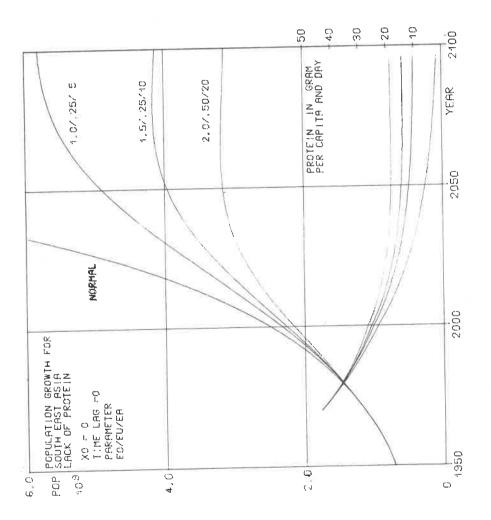


Fig. 273

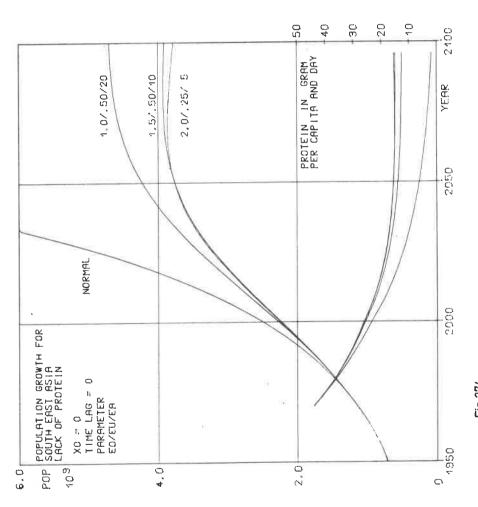


Fig. 274

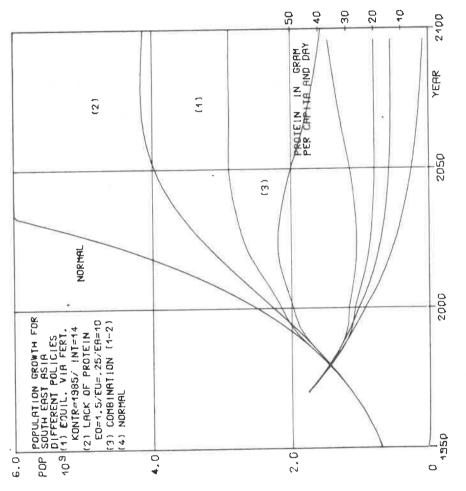


Fig. 281

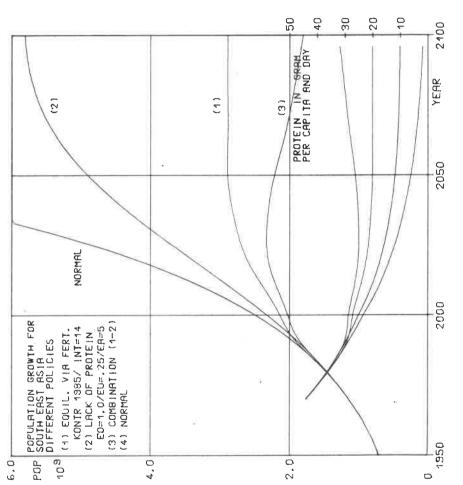


Fig. 282

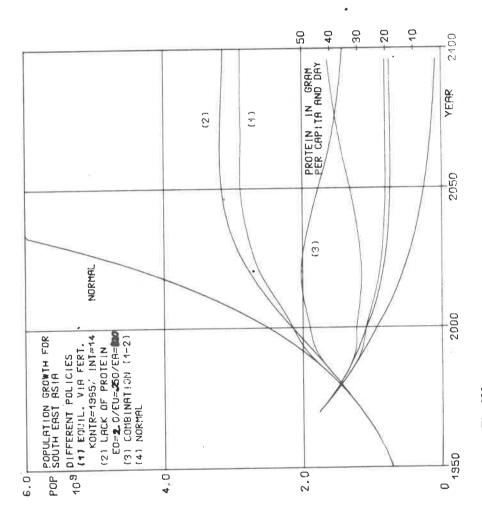


Fig. 283

## III.2. A SUBMODEL OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELECTED NUTRITIONAL VARIABLES AND EXCESS MORTALITY IN POPULATIONS

T. Weisman

Most people agree that there exists some sort of feedback mechanism between the food supply available to a population, and its subsequent growth and change. We are postulating an extremely simplified model of this feedback relationship, yet one which, as we hope to show, is both realistic and justifiable. The intuitive statement of the relationship is that as less food becomes available to a population, there is a point at which general mortality increases so as to have a dramatic impact on population dynamics. Our task is to both qualify and quantify this relationship.

Human nutrition is complicated subject about which many questions remain unanswered. Certain things, however, are relatively clear. The National Research Council of the Food and Nutrition Board has recommended certain minimum levels of calories (energy), protein, ten vitamins, and five minerals necessary to maintain a healthy state (NAS, 1968). These minimum levels are sometimes very difficult to determine with any degree of confidence, partly because they vary with different individuals in a population as well as with a single individual at different times. Because of these and other factors, there is often disagreement about appropriate nutrient levels. But for our purposes, namely the construction of a model, it is necessary to simplify. To construct a nutrition model with 17 interdependent parameters (with many of the interactions being unknown) is simply not a realistic task. Therefore, we must choose those factors which seem to be the most important indicators of the general nutritional state of a person or population. There is little disagreement that the two most significant indicators are calories (energy) and protein. Sufficient quantities of both are vitally important to health

and well-being. Sufficient calories and insufficient protein have been implicated in kwashiorkor, a significant cause of morbidity and mortality in young children around the world. Furthermore, when calories are insufficient, protein is diverted from its maintenance function to energy production, often causing protein deficiency even in the presence of supplementation of the diet with added protein (WHO, 1973) However, the incidence of this latter condition is much rarer than the former.

Because an adequate intake of either energy or protein by itself seems to be a necessary but not sufficient condition for adequate nutrition, and because adequate intakes of both seem to be fairly well correlated with good nutritional status, we will use both factors in constructing our model. Although a previous, more simplified iteration of this model used only protein as an indicator of nutrition, the effect of energy insufficiency was implicitly included. For the reasons given below, it will be seen why including both energy and protein in our model yields a more accurate and defensible representation of reality as well as a more discriminating predictor of future trends.

The human need for energy is based on three basic, interrelated factors:

- (1) Body size and composition
- (2) Physical activity
- (3) Age

All of these factors reflect on the three basic needs for energy, the needs for maintenance, growth, and activity. The maintenance need for energy is the amount of energy which must be consumed to stay alive under conditions of minimal activity. It is basically unaffected by ethnic origin and seems mainly

dependent upon the surface area of the body, correlating well with the body weight raised to the power 0.75.

The energy need for growth is basically the amount required for the deposition of new tissue. This value in infants, children and adolescents is approximately 5000 calories per kg of new tissue added.

The obligatory effect of activity on energy requirement is obvious.

The WHO categorizes physical activity into four classes: light, moderate, very, and exceptionally, for both men and women. Energy requirements are calculated on the basic weight, sex and moderate activity. Correction factors, which are percentages of total energy requirement of moderate activity are (WHO, 1973):

Light activity	90%
Moderate activity	100%
Very active	117%
Exceptionally active	134%

These factors apply to the various age and sex groups from 13 years onward; however, at this stage of model building we will assume both average weights and moderate activity for all individuals.

Another correction factor is necessary to account for the effects of age. The WHO gives energy requirements for the age 20-39 as a baseline for adults. As people age, for reasons not yet completely determined, their energy requirement diminishes. The following table summarizes the correction factors (WHO, 1973):

20-39 years	100%
40-49 years	95%
50-59 years	90%
60-69 years	80%
70 years and over	70%

We are now in a position to summarize the energy requirements for a population. Because the population model does not break age groups into males and females, we will assume equal numbers of males and females in each age group and use the mean energy requirement for the entire age group. Furthermore, the energy requirements for pregnant and lactating women are implicitly included in the figures for infants less than one year of age. The following table summarizes our age-specific energy requirements (WHO, 1973).

TABLE I Age-specific energy requirements

Age	Energy per person/day
1	820
1	1180
2 =	1355
3	1540
4	1695
5	1830
6	1955
7	2075 2185
1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	2295
	2400
10	2475
11 12	2550
13	2625
14	2700
1.5	2750
16	2735
17	2720
18	2685
19	2610
20-39	2600
40-49	2470
50-59	2340
60-69	2080
70 and over	1820

It now becomes a straight-forward task to calculate both the total and per-capita energy requirements for any population generated in our model. How we will use these figures (in comparison to the figures generated by our Food Model), will be discussed after we consider the human need for protein.

In contrast to the well quantifiable and predictable needs for energy in any given individual, the individual needs for protein seem to vary in a fashion which is only probabilistically predictable. That is, for any group of people of the same age, sex, ethnic background, weight, and activity, individual protein needs will vary in a gaussian distribution, the mean and standard deviation of which can be determined.

It is therefor possible to stipulate a level of protein intake for an age-sex group in a population which would suffice for a vast majority of the individuals in that population. This is precisely the path taken by the WHO.

But before going into the actual numbers involved, it is necessary to discuss the role of protein in diet and metabolism. Protein is the building material of life. Much of the musculo-skeletal and vegetative systems of the body are composed largely of protein, as are all of the enzymes controlling the biochemical processes of metabolism. The protein in the body is never in a static state, but is always being catabolized (broken down) and renewed. This constant turnover, plus the requirements for growth in children, as well as the lack of any specific storage mechanism for protein in the body, necessitates the daily intake of an adequate amount food protein to prevent an actual net loss of body protein (loss of body tissue). Prolonged inadequate protein intake (depending on its severity) in adults causes loss of body substance, increased susceptibility to stress and infection, and ultimately, death. In children, it retards or prevents normal growth and

development, decreases resistance to infection, and is ultimately fatal (Cravioto and DeLicardi, 1973; Ramalingaswrmi, 1973).

The WHO committee examined research on daily obligatory nitrogen loss in humans on a protein-free diet. Nitrogen loss is an indicator of protein catabolism (breakdown) in the body. The committee asked the question, what is the minimum amount of protein intake necessary to replace that which is obligatorily catabolized daily? They also examined research on "nitrogen balance". Nitrogen balance studies attempt to determine the minimum amount of daily protein intake which will result in a net nitrogen balance. That is, the amount of protein catabolized (estimated by nitrogen excretion) is balanced exactly by the amount of food protein ingested.

Using the data from all of these studies the committee arrived at a mean protein requirement for adult men and women, adolescents boys and girls, children. They found that the coefficient of variation (standard deviation ÷ mean) for these figures was about 15%, so they estimated that 130% of the mean values would suffice for approximately 97+ % of the population.

The protein specified in these figures is milk or egg protein, both of which are very efficiently utilized by the body. However, most human diets contain proteins which are less efficiently utilized. Therefore, the committee gives "safe" levels adjusted for various quality of proteins. The protein in the average diet in developed countries is approximately 80% as efficient as milk or egg protein. In most developing countries a 70% figure is appropriate (due to lower intake of animal protein). In the very poorest countries where the majority of proteins come from maize or cassava, a 60% figure is used. This is summarized in the following table (WHO, 1973).

TABLE II

Safe level of protein (130% times the mean requirement) in terms of qualities of 80%, 70% and 60% relative to milk or eggs.

Age	Grams eg	gg protein son per day		Adjusted 80	1evels 70	grams/person/day 60
6-11 months	14			17	20	23
1-3 years	16			20	23	27
4-6 years	20			26	29	34
7-9 years	25	5		31	35	41
10-12 years	30			37	42	49
13-15 years	34			42	49	57
16-19 years	34			42	49	57
Adults	33			41	47	55
Add for pregnan woman (2nd half	t of preg.)	add 9	ad	d 11	add 13	add 15
Add for lactati	ng months)	add 17	ac	ld 21	add 24	add 28

We are now ready to construct our model. The first step is to look at calories. Using the population distribution of any given region, and our table I, we can calculate the number of calories necessary to satisfy the energy requirements (assuming moderate activity as a general average) for the population of that region. From our food model, we are able to obtain the net total calories available to people in that region. We now compare the figures. If the calories available exceed the calories required, we go on to look at the next step, namely protein. If the calories available are less than the amount needed, we have, depending on the magnitude of the discrepancy, a famine.

It should be mentioned parenthetically, that certain adverse effects occur when there is a large excess of calories available to a population, namely obesity and its adjuvant effects on mortality from diabetes and cardiovascular diseases. However, these manifest themselves mainly in the elderly, post-reproductive members of a population and have little influence on population dynamics. For this reason, we will, for now, ignore the situation of over-abundance of calories.

The chief question is, how will a lack of calories affect age-specific mortality in a population? The first effects are compensatory in nature. In both children and adults, activity is decreased. In adults, body weight falls, in children growth is retarded. All of these adaptations serve to reduce energy requirements. In situations where the food shortage is acute, following a period of good general nutrition (perhaps an isolated crop failure) these mechanisms are more effective. However, when the food shortage is chronic, individuals have little or no reserve capacity with which to cope. Furthermore, children, because of their energy needs for growth and smaller stored

reserves (fat), are particularly vulnerable to not only the direct effects of malnutrition (starvation), but also demonstrate increased susceptibility and mortality due to infectious and parasitic diseases. This is in addition to the fact that during a famine, children are often less able to compete for the scarce supplies of food available.

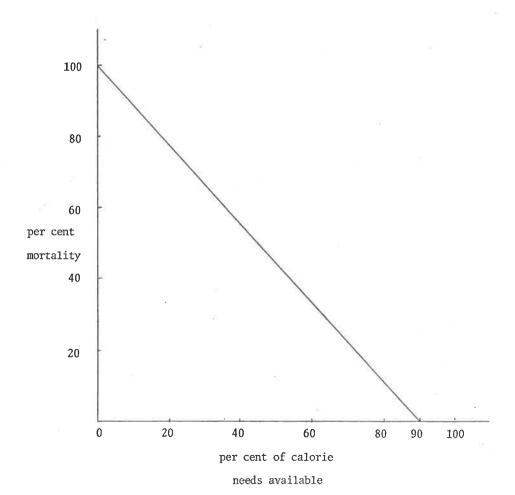
Because, in a sense, you either eat enough calories to survive or you starve, we can postulate a linear relation between the percentage of needed calories available and the percentage of the population that survives.

Essentially this means that if 75% of the necessary calories are available to a chronically deprived population, approximately 75% will survive. This does not directly consider such factors as food distribution or death due to infectious and parasitic disease, but contains them implicitly. But it is a simplification which seems sensible. If you have 100 people to feed but only food for 75, you may try to feed all 100 on a reduced ration. But in real life, in a long-term situation, some will receive adequate food, others will starve. Furthermore, some of those receiving reduced rations will not be able to survive due to increased susceptibility to disease, while others will.

We must postulate two relations. The first concerns situations in regions which, during the preceding year, had adequate calorie and protein supplies, but for some acute reason (e.g., a local crop failure) in the present year manifested a calorie shortage. Because an individual engaged in light activity requires only 90% of the calories of one engaged in moderate activity (our standard), we are assuming that a well nourished population can withstand a

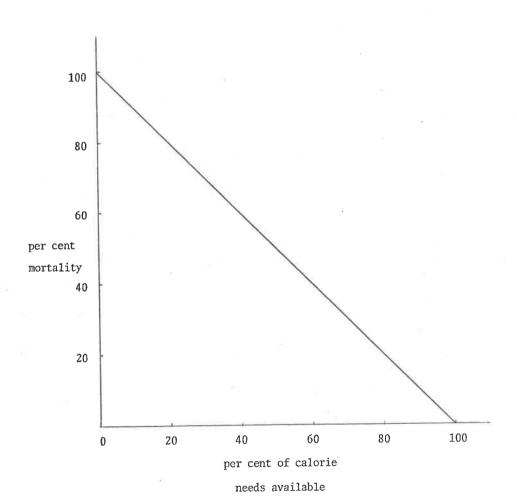
single, acute calorie shortage of as low as 90% of requirements without increased mortality, but that any larger deficit will have a linear effect on mortality as illustrated below: (Relation A)

## RELATION A



In a population which during the preceding year had been exposed to either a lack of protein or a lack of calories, any existing reserves would have been used up. Therefore the following relationship is postulated: (Relation B).

RELATION B



We further postualte that there is an increased mortality among the young in situations of food shortage. This is due to such factors as inability to compete with adults for scarce supplies, and retardation of growth, development, and immunological competence. Although we cannot accurately quantify all of these factors, we can determine that the child's specific requirement for energy (calories per kg body weight) is higher than the adult's. It seems reasonable, then, to use this figure as a factor to calculate the increased mortality among younger people to any given food shortage. These figures, based upon the increased energy requirements of children and adolescents, follow in table III (WHO, 1973).

TABLE III

Increased age-specific mortality factors\* (calories)

Age			F	actor
1 1-3 4-6 7-9 10-12 13-15 16-19				2.6 2.35 2.1 1.8 1.55 1.25
Adults	20			1.0

<sup>\*</sup> When 39% or more of adults are dying all infants are dying. This is reasonable, for if a famine is this bad, no infants will survive. For computational purposes, mortality in any age group is limited to 100%.

We now come to protein requirements. If a population is not getting adequate calories, protein is usually deficient as well. However, a population may be receiving adequate calories but insufficient protein. This is the case in many areas of the world today.

Using table II and the population distribution of a region, we can calculate "safe" levels of protein intake for the entire region corrected for the average quality of protein available in that region. This total, divided by 1.30, yields a figure we shall call the "mean requirement" for the region. Fifteen percent of this "mean requirement," we shall call the "standard deviation requirement."

We now compare the "mean requirement" for protein in a given region with the net amount of protein actually available to consumers in that region. The difference between the net available protein and the "mean requirement" divided by the "standard deviation requirement" will give us a distance, in  $\sigma$  units from the mean of a standard gaussian distribution. The integral of this distribution at that point yields a per cent survival figure. For example, if the calculated "mean requirement" for a region is one hundred million grams of egg equivalent protein, and the available protein of 70% quality is 178.6 million grams, we perform the following computations:

(1) 
$$(178.6 \times 10^6) \times .7 = 125 \times 10^6$$

(2) 
$$125 \times 10^6 - 100 \times 10^6 = 25 \times 10^6$$

(3) 
$$(25 \times 10^6) \div (15 \times 10^6) = 1.67$$
 (standard deviation requirement)

 $\mbox{(4)} \qquad + \mbox{1.67 } \mbox{$\sigma$ from the mean of a standard gaussian}$  distribution includes 95.25% of the area.

We would then use this resultant figure, 95.25% as the percentage of adults surviving that year, or, in other words, 4.75% of adults would die from causes related to protein deficiency in that year.

As is the case with calories, the specific need of children for protein are higher than for adults. For the same reasons given before, we postulate an age-specific mortality multiplier for protein, based on the specific (per kg body weight) needs for protein of various age groups. These are given in table IV (WHO, 1973).

TABLE IV

Increased age-specific mortality factors\* (protein)

Age	Factor	
1	3.35	•
1	2.35	
2	2.20	
3	2.05	
4	1.95	
· <b>5</b> .	1.85	
6	1.80	
7	1.70	
8	1.60	
9	1.55	* as before, mortality in
10	1.50	* as before, mortality in any age group is limited to 100%, all infants dying when 30% or more adults are
11	1.45	when 30% or more adults are dying.
12	1.40	
13	1.33	8
14	1.23	
15	1.15	
16	1.12	
17 .	1.08	
Adult	1.0	

We now have, in cases where both calories and proteins are inadequate, two sets of mortality figures for each age group. Since any sort of weighted summing is harder to justify that a "limiting factor" hypothesis, we will take, as a mortality figure for any given age group, the calculation which gives us the higher mortality. That is, either calories or protein will act as a limiting factor on the number of people in any age group who survive nutritional deficiency.

The final point to mention is how these derived mortality figures will interact with the population model. In order to restrict ourselves to the situation where nutritional status and food supply are the decisive factors, we should first examine mortality patterns in situations where, due to a long history of adequate food supplies, malnutrition has had no effect on mortality patterns. That is to say, even under circumstances of perfectly adequate nutrition a proportion of people in all age groups will nevertheless die in any given year. We shall examine mortality patterns in a number of situations where malnutrition can, for all practical purposes, be ruled out as a cause of, or contributor to, mortality. From these situations we can propose a baseline mortality pattern to use in our calculations. For example, if in our baseline pattern, the expected mortality in an age group is 1.5% and our model generates a nutrition-dependent mortality of 5.0%, 1.5% + 5.0% yields a total mortality of 6.5% in that age group under those nutritional conditions.

A summary of the steps followed in the model is:

- (1) Calculate energy requirements of region (Table I)
- (2) Compare to total net calories available to region (a) if ratio > 1 go to protein calcualtions(b) if ratio < 1 go to step (3)</li>

- (3)(a) If during the previous year no excess mortality was due to nutrition, calculate excess mortality using relation A
  - (b) Otherwise use relation B
- (4) Use figure obtained in (3) with Table III to obtain age-specific excess mortality with respect to calories
- (5) Calculate "mean requirement" and "standard deviation requirement" for protein for the region (Table II)
- (6) Compare "mean requirement" to total net protein (consider quality) available to region.
- (7) Derive excess mortality factor using standard gaussian distribution.
- (8) Use figure derived in step (7) with table IV to obtain age-specific excess mortality with respect to protein.
- (9) Compare age-specific mortality rates generated in step (4) and step (8) and use the higher mortality rate for each age.
- (10) Add nutrition-dependent mortality rate obtained in (9) to the baseline mortality rate to obtain final mortality rates for each age.
- (11) Feed results of step (10) back to the population model.

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## III.3. A REGIONALIZED FOOD MODEL FOR THE GLOBAL SYSTEM

W.B. Clapham, T. Shook, M.W. Warshaw

#### Introduction

The most dramatic of the "limits to growth" is food. It has a directness and an absolute quality about it which other potential limits do not have: If a person gets enough food of adequate quality, he can survive and be a productive member of society. If he does not, his productivity will be impaired, and he may not even survive. In many countries, food production is the primary activity, the most important industry, and the prime generator of foreign exchange. It is a complex activity in all areas, representing the confluence of policies governing land use and applied technology, and its spatial complexities stem not only from the historical development of man-land interactions but also the differing ecological potentials of the land itself.

There are no widely accepted estimates of how much food can be produced on the earth today. On one hand, it has been estimated that enough food can be grown to provide a minimum diet for 104 billion people<sup>1</sup>; on the other hand, incipient famines have been predicted for many years<sup>2</sup>.

It is implicit in a world whose population is growing that basic subsistence needs (at least) must be met. But food production systems are already being put to an extreme test; and there is some doubt that they can meet the demands being put on them for much longer<sup>3</sup>. There are also severe fallouts of changing the food supply systems on the remainder of the society. The classic paradigm for agricultural change, increasing the intensity of technology, has the by-effect of reducing the man/land ratio and "liberating" thousands of able-bodied workers from the agricultural labor

force. But cities cannot always absorb the new workers, so that social turmoil is a common and perhaps necessary result of increasing the capability of food supply systems. The only alternative paradigm that can be observed, agricultural involution as described by Geertz, is no more attractive a goal.

In a very simple way, there are only three ways to increase the production of food to meet increasing demands: increasing the area under crop, shifting crop types to those with greater yields, and increasing yields per hectare of a given crop by more intensive farming. All three of these options have been exercised throughout the history of agriculture, but the first has tended to be the first and easiest step; the third has been the most difficult and last. Today, there are parts of the world where virtually all of the potentially arable land is cropped and the mixture of crops is the most productive mixture feasible. The only way that production can be increased is to intensify the farming system to increase yields per hectare production. Even in areas which have much potentially arable land left undeveloped, such as South America and Africa, the land remaining is of poor quality and productivity cannot be increased on these without fairly intensive care.

The approach used in this report is predicated on two postulates: first that it is reasonable to view agriculture in an ecosystems framework and secondly that we know enough about agroecosystems to gauge their responses to specific stimuli. These postulates deserve some discussion.

Food-producing ecosystems are of many types, including fields, cultivated fish ponds, pastures, feedlots, marine fisheries, and the like. All

have their own methods of exploitation, all are regulated by their own internal feedback devices, and all show considerable variations from place to place. But as ecosystems, they are all governed by the geochemical and biological laws of ecology, and the responses of an ecosystem to some input are controlled by the structure of the ecosystems and the nature of the input much more than by the nature of the society which is making the input. This means that we need not consider political or economic processes in order to describe or simulate the agroecosystems, except as these processes set limits to a society's ability to use a specific input. However, we may need to deal explicitly with ties among agroecosystems.

The possible inputs into the agroecosystems are relatively few: fertilizers containing nutrients from a fairly restricted set, certain methods of soil conditioning, some sort of weed and pest control, and decisions on specific uses of land. But if the responses of agroecosystems to them are functions of the geochemical and biological interactions which occur in the given place, the intensity with which a society uses the imputs at its disposal are controlled by its perceptions of its goals and its own socio-political structure. What this means is that we can simulate agricultural production using a straightforward physical model whose complexity lies only in its ability to consider explicitly the differential productivity of ecosystems, and setting the regulating feedback loops external to the agroecosystems in the socio-economic sphere as they are actually found. For this reason, we have constructed an integrated model including three components: Population growth, an economic model determining investment in various parts of food production, and the physical agroecosystem The population and economic models are discussed in detail elsewhere<sup>7</sup>; model. this report concentrates on the physical agroecosystem model.

## The Data Base

The agroecosystem model is based on as much regional data as is available to us. With some exceptions, the data and statistical summaries are from the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO). The FAO publications used as data sources include the Production Yearbooks of 1970, 1967, 1964, 1961, 1958, 1955, 1953 and 1951, the summary volume of World Crop Statistics 1948-1966, the Fisheries Yearbook, 1970, and the Food Balance Sheets, 1964-1966. Detailed mathematical relationships between variables are based on long time series of up to 22 years. Less intricate relationships are based on the dataof the last few years only. The specific data used to derive the relationships used in each sector of the model are footnoted in the body of the report.

There should be some discussion of the usefulness of the FAO statistical data. Their sources are member governments, and they reflect whatever insufficiencies exist either in data gathering or in political bias. There are a number of missing data points, and the quality of the data varies markedly from region to region and from country to country within a region. All of this means that the data are "noisy" and not as precise as might be desired. In addition, different sets of statistics use different reporting intervals, most commonly either the calendar year or the year ending on 30 June, but other specific years also apply. Despite these problems, we believe that the FAO statistics are a reasonable reflection of at least the commercial phase of world agriculture, and that no better data are available.

# Model Structure -- Overview

The food model is designed to be as realistic and complete as possible within the context of a simple dynamic model. To this end, it considers both the production of foodstuffs and allocation of this production to various uses within a given region. Production is considered in three different sectors representing different ways of exploiting available resources and different types of ecosystems. These are field crops, livestock, and fisheries. The land bases for field crops and livestock are calculated by a land use sector, and the model is driven by the economic and population models which have been integrated with the food model. Gross production is expressed in terms of 26 different foodstuffs (Table 1), of which 5 are cereal grains, 8 are non-cereal crops, and the remaining 13 are various meat, fish, and dairy products. The food processing and allocation sector of the model allocates each foodstuff into its use as seedstock, livestock, feed, and food for the human population. Per-capita diet with regard to each foodstuff is calculated, and the results are summed into total calories, total protein, and animal protein. The overall structure of the food model is shown in Figure 1. The main usefulness of this model is that we have considered food in fairly concrete terms. That is, we have considered enough different types of food to allow a feeling for the spectra of food production in different regions of the world, the different uses to which foodstuffs are put in different region, and the nature of the diets that we are predicting for the future.

## TABLE 1

# Foodstuffs considered in the World Food Model

# Cereal Grains

Wheat Maize Millets and Sorghum Rice Other Cereal Grains

## Non-Grain Crops

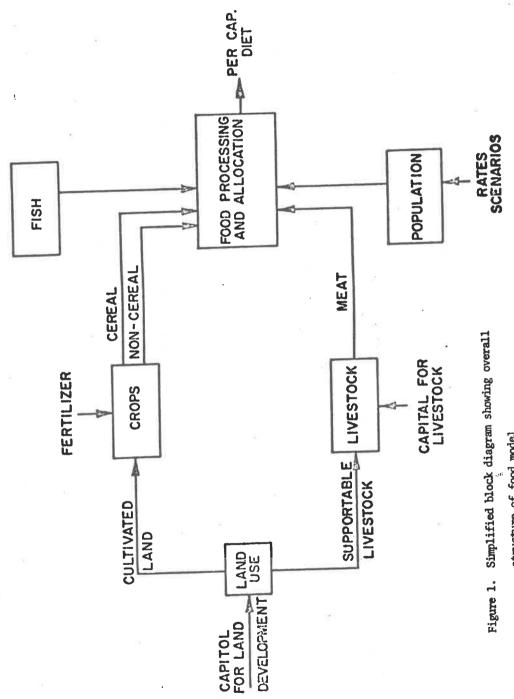
Sugar Crops Starchy Root Crops Vegetables Pulses Fruits Oil Crops Drinks and Stimulants Fibers

## Meat Products

Beef and Veal Pork Lamb, Mutton, and Goat Horsemeat Poultry Meat Edible Offals Other Meat Fish

## Dairy Products

Honey Eggs Milk Cheese Butter



structure of food model

### Production of Foodstuffs

The land use sector of the model considers the land which is used for growing crops, that which can potentially be cultivated for crops, land which is potentially grazable but nonarable, and lands which are removed from cultivation or grazing by urbanization or other nonagricultural uses. Land cultivated in cereal grains is the state variable for this section, with maximum arable land a boundary condition and land cultivated in non-cereal crops based on land cultivated in cereals. Rates of development and withdrawal of cereal-cultivated land are calculated by the economic model. We concentrated on cereal grains because these are the most important crops from the viewpoint of calories and gross production; also the basic data on production and area in cereals appears the most reliable.

The field sector of the model relates the land base and technological input to gross crop production (Figure 2). The land base is the total land cultivated in cereal grains as calculated from the land use sector of the model. Technological inputs are expressed in terms of fertilizer usage in kg./ha. The amount of fertilizer used in a region is calculated through the economic model, which determines the amount of money available for purchasing fertilizer in a given year. Obviously, fertilizer is not the only technological input, but it is the most convenient and realistic index of the whole technological package, and data on both its production and consumption are readily available. Indeed most of the advances in agriculture which have been made in the last 25 years have been closely tied in some way with fertilizer use. The main thrust of the Green Revolution, for example, has been to develop new crop lines which would respond better to more intensive

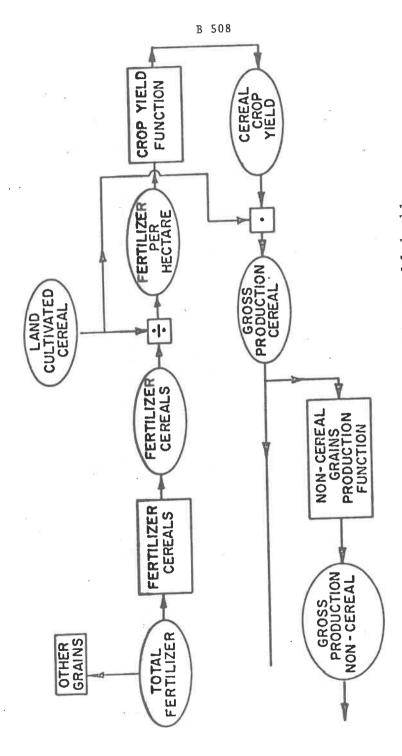


Figure 2. Simplified block diagram showing structure of field sector of food model

fertilizer use. 8 In order to use the new technologies of agriculture, it is necessary for a farmer to purchase them. Thus, technological inputs also imply the flow of a certain amount of capital, so that it is extremely unlikely that anybody would be able to take advantage of any of the other technological options open to him if he did not already use fertilizers. As Lester Brown points out 9, there is no half way in the Green Revolution: one either uses the total package of inputs which is available or one uses none of it. The technological package, including inputs such as irrigation, extension services, pesticides, mechanization, in addition to fertilizers, must be regarded in two ways. In the short run, they are commodities which are purchased and used to increase production; thus they are equivalent to fertilizers and can be included conceptually with them. But in a longer term, the technological infrastructure of agriculture determines not only the yield of crops in any given year, but the potential ability of the agricultural system to produce. Thus, our model treats the long-term and short-term effects of technology separately. In the short term, fertilizer consumption is a realistic index of the extent of technological input and can be used to calculate annual yield. In the longer term, the nature of the infrastructure and the integration of the whole technological package determines the potential ability of the developed agroecosystems to produce food. We have considered this infrastructure to be a function of long-term capital investment in agricultural technology, and the potential ability of agroecosystems, or maximum possible yield, is computed in the model on the basis of long-term investment.

The land base and fertilizer use are translated into production of grain. Once again, grains were chosen as the group whose production was most meaningfully calculated, as it is the crop with the prime role in the food supply of almost all areas of the world. Production of non-grain crops was calculated from cereal production.

The livestock sector takes advantage of the fact that the relationship between numbers of livestock and meat production is remarkably constant for a given meat type in a given region (Figure 3). Nine different types of livestock and twelve livestock products were considered (Table 2). Additions or subtractions to world livestock herds was calculated from the economic model, constrained by the maximum number of animals that could be supported on natural pasture and by the price of grains for feedlots. This maximum was calculated from the total potentially grazable, but nonarable, land and the average carrying capacity for livestock in the region. It must be noted that although the relationship between livestock numbers and meat production has been quite stable in most regions, it can be altered if a region chooses to invest more or less of its resources in producing livestock for meat purposes. Such a shift in the uses of livestock might, for example, be the result of mechanization in which draft animals are replaced by tractors or other mechanical devices, or if grain now going to feedlots is diverted to the human population.

The fishery sector includes both marine fish and cultivated fish (Figure 4). The 'marine' group includes not only marine fish but also fish taken from natural inland waterways. Thus far, we have no figures for cultivated fish production, but we believe that it is far less than natural fish production. However, fish are such a good source of protein that we felt

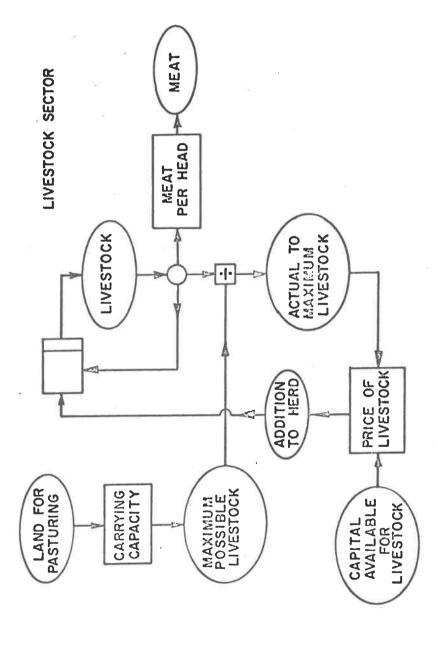
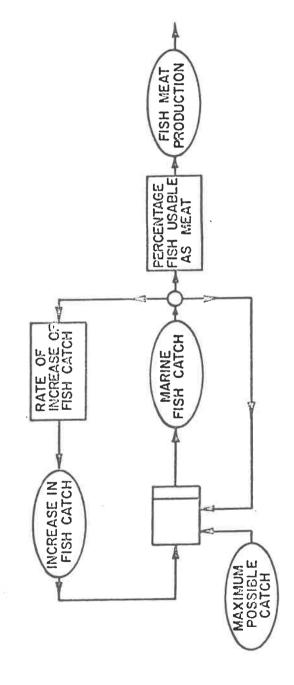


Figure 3. Simplified block diagram of structure of livestock sector of food model

TABLE 2

Livestock Types and Livestock Products Considered

Types of Livestock	<u>Livestock Products</u>		
Cattle	Beef and Veal		
Pigs	Pork		
Sheep and Goats	Lamb, Mutton, and Goat		
Horses	-Horsemeat		
All Poultry	Poultry Meat		
Chickens and Miscellaneous Poultry	Eggs		
Honey	Honey		
Mules, Asses, Buffaloes, Camels	Other Meat		
Cattle, Buffaloes, Sheep, and Goats	Edible Offals		
Cattle, Buffaloes, Sheep, and Goats	Milk		
Cattle, Buffaloes, Sheep, and Goats	Cheese		
Cattle, Buffaloes, Sheep, and Goats	Butter		



FISH SECTOR

Figure 4. Simplified block diagram showing structure of marine fishery sector of food model

that an explicit consideration of aquaculture would be an important requisite for scenario development in an accurate model of the world food supply. Marine fish catches, of course, are well known, as are the animal growth rates of those catches. But the maximum possible catch is not well known. Several estimates have been made 11, and the specific estimates used can be considered a scenario variable. For aquaculture, many sources of information are available 12. They strongly suggest that the best basis to determine the yield of cultural fish is the area of the fish-pond, and that the relationship between pond area and fish yield is fairly constant within a region but will vary considerably from region to region. Let us now examine the basis for the equations used in each module in greater detail.

#### Land Use

The land use sector of the model functions mainly to calculate the land base for the field sector given the current area in grains, the rates of development and withdrawal of arable land, and the maximum developable arable land (Figure 5). This land base is that which is actually harvested annually, and it may be considerably less than the land actually planted in a given crop or involved in a long-term cropping cycle. Development of arable land is driven by the economic model through the investment available to develop land and a land-price function depending on the proportion of potentially arable land remaining to be developed. Permanent withdrawal of cultivated land for purposes such as roads, urbanization, and the like, is treated as a function of population growth.

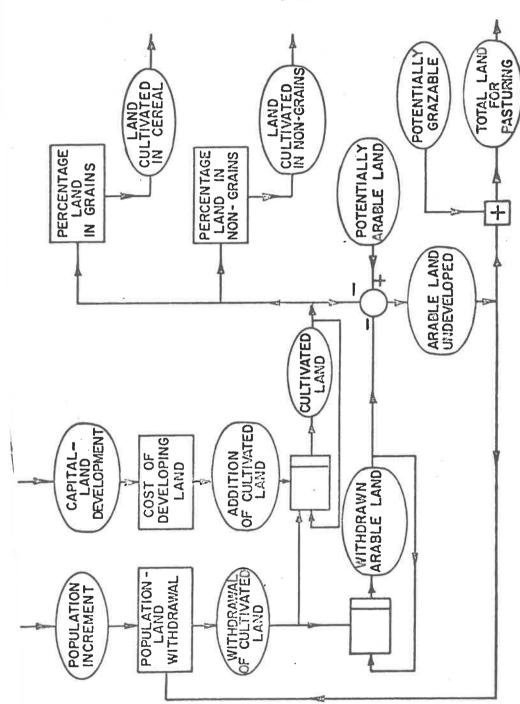


Figure 5. Simplified block diagram showing structure of land-use sector of food model

The land use model concentrates on land cropped in grain. The reason for this is that the data base for croplands in grain is much better than that for lands in non-grain crops <sup>13</sup>. Lands in non-grain crops are assumed to have a linear relationship to those in grain crops. As shown in Figure 6, this relationship is rather noisy due to the inadequacies of the data base for non-grain crops, but the role of non-grain land in the rest of the model is relatively minor, as that the effect of this inadequacy on the model's prediction ability is minimized. The total amount of land in production is the sum of the land cultivated in grains and that cultivated in non-grains.

It is clear that land development can continue until there is no more land suitable for cultivation. But how much land is suitable for cultivation in a region is an open question. In principle, any land can be made arable given sufficient capital, energy, and other resources. But some land is suitable for utilization as it exists naturally and some is not. It is possible that when the food crisis is much worse than it is now, land which is currently non-arable will be reengineered to make it arable, but we shall ignore this possibility for two reasons. First, the Malthusian repercussions of the global food crisis will hit first in the third world, which does not have the capital to rebuild currently non-arable land. Secondly, the estimates of arable land, especially in the tropics, may be unreasonably large. An excellent discussion of the criterion for the different uses of land are given by Revelle et. al. 14 There are two main ways in which the maximum amounts of potentially arable land have been estimated. First, land is arable if it has ever entered the cultivation

cycle. This is the basis of the FAO definition of arable land 15, and it gives minimum estimates for lands which can enter the cultivation cycle. But there is no way to gauge the relationship between this estimate and the maximum acreage that can actually be harvested in a given year. As shown in Table 3, this acreage is only a fraction of the FAO estimates of arable land for most regions, and it is the area that is cultivated and harvested each year which is the land base for production. Especially in tropical areas, arable land may be usable only in a relatively long-term cycle of shifting cultivation, and efforts to shorten the fallow period may do permanent damage to the land 16. We in the temperate zone are used to thinking in terms of continuous cultivation, but even here the need for crop rotation effectively lowers the actual acreage which can be cultivated and harvested annually. We cannot say at this time what must be done in the tropics to bring land now in long-fallow cultivation schemes under continuous cropping. On the other side of the question, some lands can be effectively double or triple-cropped. This, of course, effectively raises the maximum arable land over what would otherwise be the case. In short, there is no easy way to estimate meaningful values for maximum cultivable land from the FAO arable land figures.

A second way to estimate maximum potential arable land is to use the approach of Revelle et. al. 17. This approach does not consider whether or not land has actually been cultivated, but rather what percentage of a given soil type is potentially arable on the average. This approach avoids the subjective aspect of determining whether land has or has not been used, concentrating on the most important factor in the system, the soil. The amounts of the various major soil types in each region is fairly well known.

Table 3

		(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	. (f) Average
	Ultimate Maximum Arable Land	Land in the Cultivation Cycle	(b) as percent of (a)	Land Harvested per Year	(d) as percent of (b)	Growth Rate Harvested Land	
1	N. America	392,000	219,844	56.1	111,499	50.7	-1.51
	W. Europe	155,000	127,318	82.1	88,707	69.7	0.53
	Japan	8,000	5,603	70.0	5,858	104.6	-1.57
	Rest of	150,000	57,779	38.5	19,474	33.7	2.82
	Developed E. Europe	382,000	279,894	73.3	193,260	69.0	0.98
		429,000	128,206	29.9	76,587	59.7	2.83
	Latin America	86,000	52,606	61.2	28,676	54.5	1.14
	Mideast Africa	423,000	166,997	39.5	73,080	43.8	1.77
	S. SE Asia	278,000	267,798	96.3	235,156	87.8	1.54
	China	122,000	117,774	96.5	(100,000)	(84.9)	
	World	2,425,000	1,423,819	58.7	1,000,390	70.3	1.08

All land figures are in thousands of hectares.
Figures in parentheses are our estimates

### Sources:

- (a) Revelle: Will the earth's land and water resources be sufficient for future populations? Paper delivered at Stockholm Conference
- (b) F.A.O.: Production Yearbook, 1970
- (d) F.A.O.: Production Yearbook, 1967 (data are for 1965)
- (f) F.A.O.: Production Yearbooks (data are for years 1948-1969).

But many of the objections to the use of the FAO estimates also apply to the Revelle et. al. estimates -- perhaps more so, since the latter are larger. In this report, we shall use the estimates of Revelle et. al. for maximum potentially arable land.

In any case, the choice of the maximum potentially arable land in a region is important, since the rate of development of cultivated land is related to the potentially cultivated land remaining uncultivated. This variable determines the price of developing additional land, and thus forms the basis of the land development portion of the model.

## Field

The field module takes inputs of fertilizer and land and calculates field crop production. The key to this module is the relationship between the use of fertilizer on grain crops and the production of grain. This is a very complex relationship based on the mixture of crops (not only the species involved but also the local varieties), the other factors which accompany fertilizer use (irrigation, mechanization, pesticide usage, use of new crop strains, and the like), and the quality of the land on which the crops are being grown. Clearly, one can determine the relations between yield and any one variable, holding all other constant, in a simple graph 0. Or two variables can form a 3-dimensional equation which will relate fertilizer use to yield when all of the variables are varying and none are held constant. We can make some reasonable simplifying assumptions, however, which will allow us to do this. First, we shall assume that there is little change in the relative abundance of crop species grown in a region.

In fact there has been some, but it is quite small. Second we shall assume that it is reasonable to speak of the average land in a region and to assume that the average response of the crop mixture to technological inputs (such as fertilizer) is very similar to the actual response of crops on the actual mix of arable land, of which some is better than average and some is worse. This is an important assumption, because realistic public food-production policy must be based on the average land being used for crops. Also, it points out why crop yield-response data from agriculture experiment stations cannot be incorporated directly in a regional model, since such stations may not be located on "average" land and they will not be running experiments in which all of the possible inputs will vary simultaneously. Nor will they be subject to the infrastructural deficiencies and bottlenecks of the average farm. It is likely, of course, that technological inputs are likely to be used on better than average land before they are used on poorer-than-average land, simply because they tend to be capital-intensive, and owners of better land are more likely to accumulate capital faster than owners of poorer land. As more intensive farming spreads, it will spread from better land to poorer land. But the error stemming from this source will be counterbalanced, at least in part, by our first assumption, since if there is a change in crop species, it will likely be from relatively less productive to relatively more productive sorts. Thus the most important factor in determining crop yield is the extent of the technological input.

As mentioned above, the technological input involves significantly more than just fertilizer: it includes mechanization, pesticides, genetic

hybridization, irrigation, and a lot of other factors. For a number of reasons, the use of fertilizer is the most useful index for these factors, but we cannot disregard the others. That is, when fields get fertilized to the optimum degree, holding the rest of the technological inputs constant, it is likely that some other technological devices will be available to raise crop yields still further. The most common interpretation of the relationship between crop yields and fertilizer usage is a parabolic curve, in which the yield drops off above the optimum application rate 18. But in practice, fertilizer usage is so closely integrated with the others inputs that it would not be increased were there no corresponding changes in the rest of the technological packages. But to say (as we will) that the application rate of fertilizer is not limited by some maximum on the same order as the present optimum rate is to make the optimistic assumption that new technological tools will be available as they are needed.

Let us discuss some of the reasons that fertilizer usage is the best index of technological input in the field. Like pesticides, irrigation, mechanization, and crop hybridization, fertilizers are purchased commodities and they cannot be used at all until farmers have a minimum of capital made available to them from some source. Once agriculture is part of the commercial economy, we can assume that the disposition of the available funds among the various types of input (fertilizer, hybrid seeds, water, etc.) will be so as to maximize, at least approximately, the returns on the investment (i.e., salable produce). Thus fertilizer is a basic aspect of commercialization. But it is more than that. Many, if not most, of the steps in crop hybridization

have been involved in making crops more responsive to the use of fertilizer. Many, if not most, of the irrigation projects in the third world today were built because farmers, now that they had the opportunity to get a sufficient yield to sell a substantial part of it, could afford to buy water to supplement that crop's new ability to respond to fertilizers. In short, fertilizers are the basis upon which the Green Revolution is based. Not only is it a useful index of the degree of commercialism in agriculture, a better index of the actual technological input into agriculture could not be imagined. If it is somewhat oversimplified, other indexes have this fault as well, and it makes up for it by being simple and having a sound data base.

There is no obvious way to extrapolate the fertilizer/yield curve beyond its current levels. It is likely that it is a diminishing - marginal - returns curve of some kind; most relationships of this general sort are.

But the precise sort of curve is anybody's guess. As the most useful general curve, we have chosen the saturating exponential function:

GRPH = FA[1.0 - (FA - FB) \* EXPF (-FC\*ZPHG/(FA-FB))]

where GRPH is the grain yield per hectare, ZPHG is the fertilizer usage per hectare of grain, FA is the maximum grain yield, FB is the grain yield when fertilization is nil, and FC is the initial slope of the curve. FB and FC were determined by fitting the equation above to 22 years worth of data for all regions of the world<sup>20</sup>. ZPHG is the annual fertilizer application ratio on the land, and hence represents the short-term effects

of technological input discussed above. FA represents the long-term effects of the investment of capital in the agricultural sector of the economy to define the maximum regional production possible. Without an adequate infrastructure to integrate the technological aspects of food production, all the fertilizer use in the world will not be able to raise regional yield per hectare; with adequate integration, a limited amount of fertilizer (or other imputs) will go relatively further<sup>21</sup>. Both ZPHG and FA are calculated through the economic model. The family of curves involved in the 10 regions considered, as well as the data upon which they are based, are shown in Figure 7.

The gross regional production of grains is calculated by multiplying the grain yield per hectare times the area of land cultivated in grain:

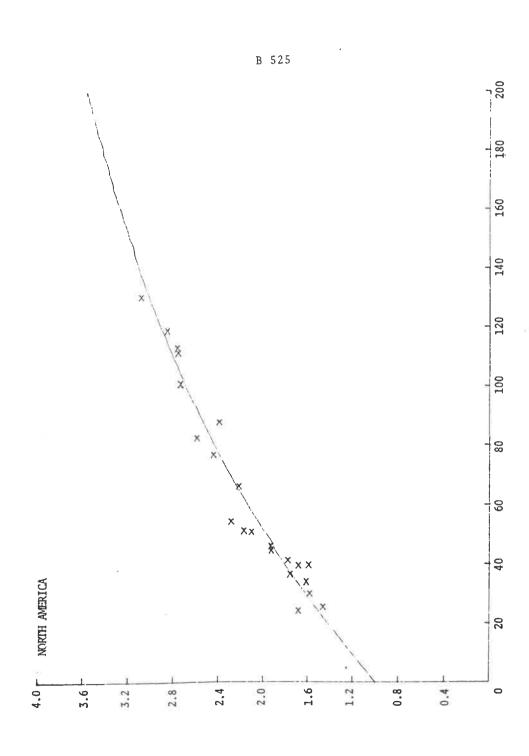
Thus far we have considered only grain in our discussion. Non-grain crops are also of some importance as cash and/or food crops and must be considered. Aggregate production of non-grain crops is calculated assuming a linear relationship between total production of grain and non-grain crops: The curves fitting the data and the data upon which they are based are shown in Figure 8<sup>22</sup>.

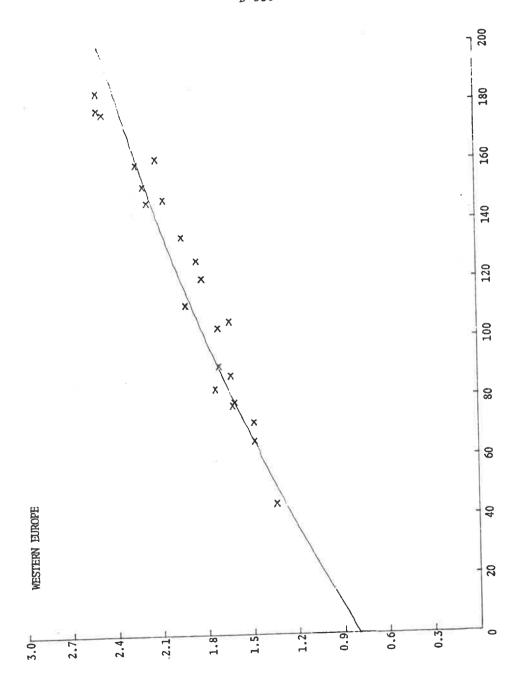
#### Livestock

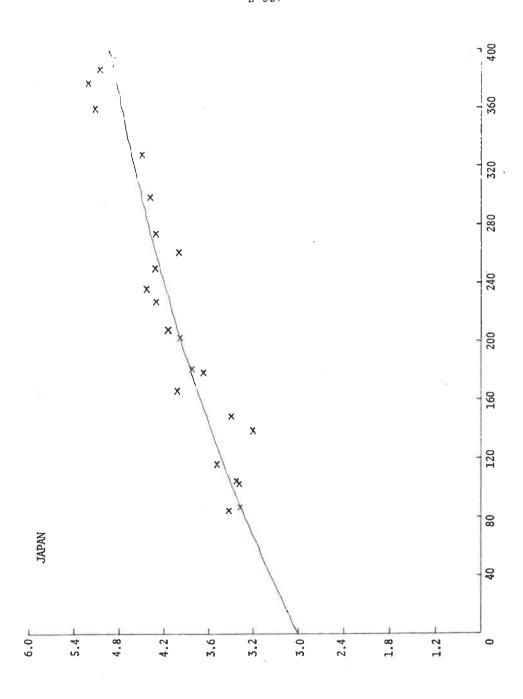
The livestock sector of the world food model is the simplest sector, but it is not a trivial sector. Other world models have ignored meat as being both a prodigal use of fixed energy and a food source which will not be feasible for the third world<sup>23</sup>. However, livestock must be considered explicitly for several reasons. First, while they may not be as good a source of calories as plant crops, they are a much better source of proteins,

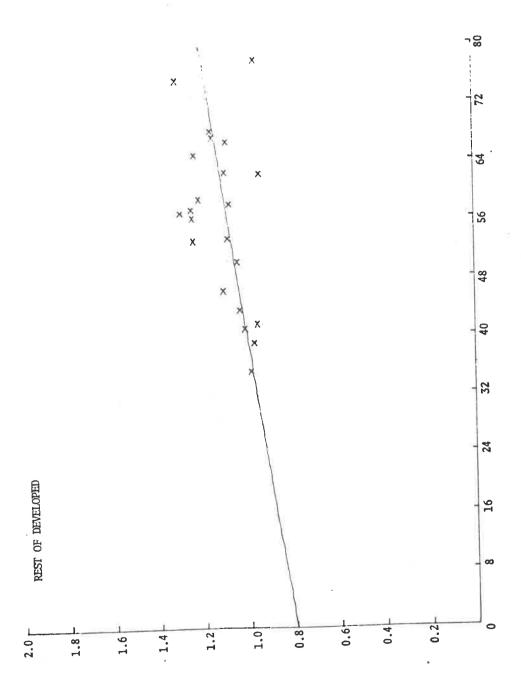
# Figure 7

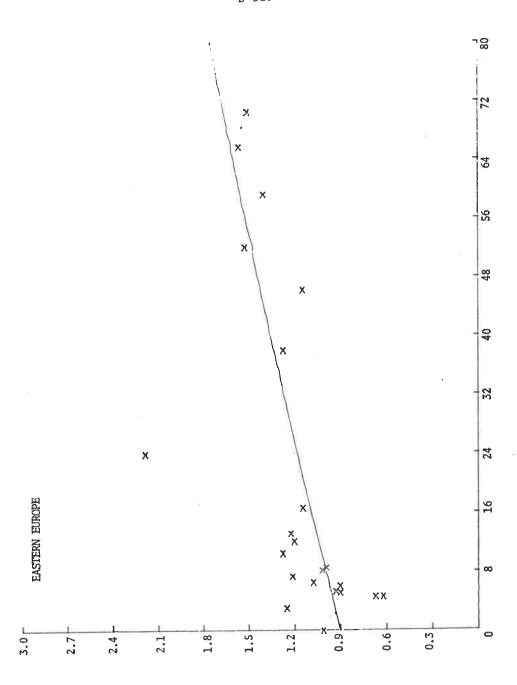
Relationships between fertilizer per hectare and grain yield, by region. Ordinate: Yield of grain in metric tons per hectare; Abscissa: Fertilizer application in kg. per hectare.

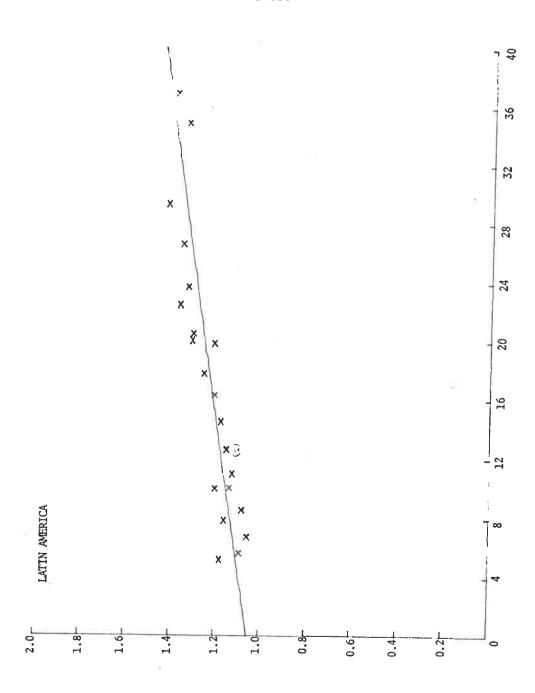


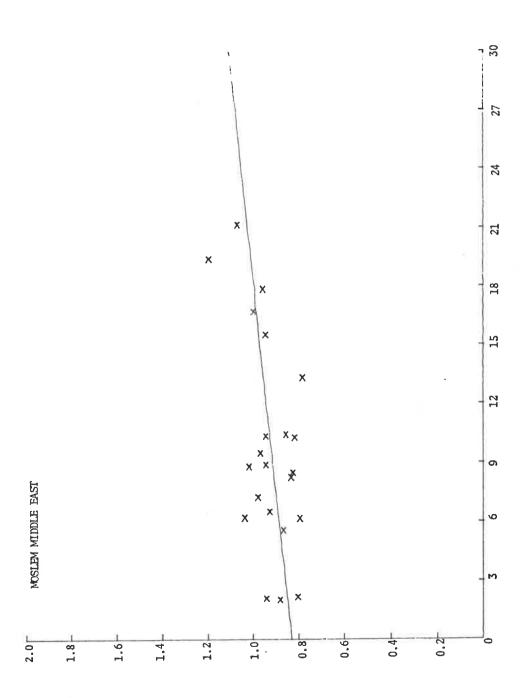


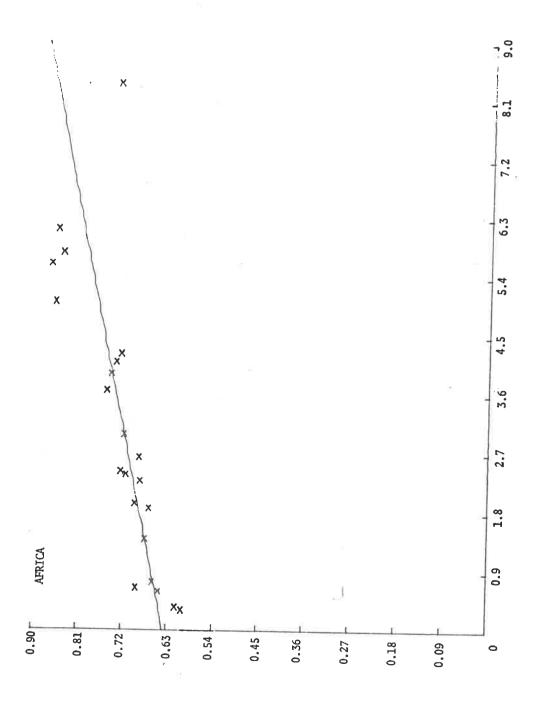


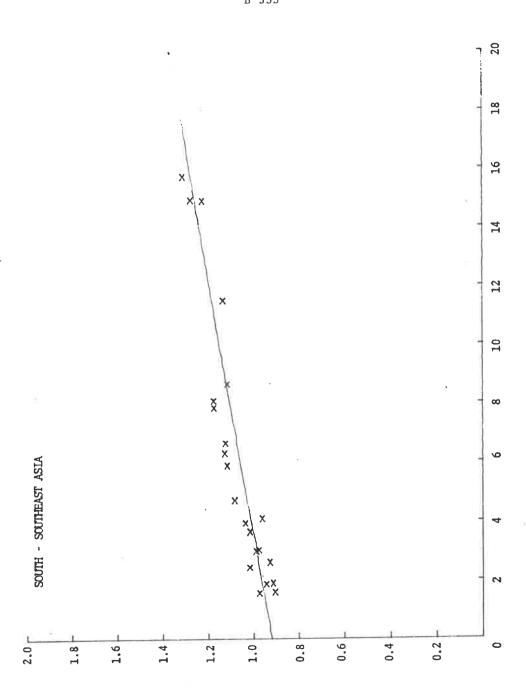


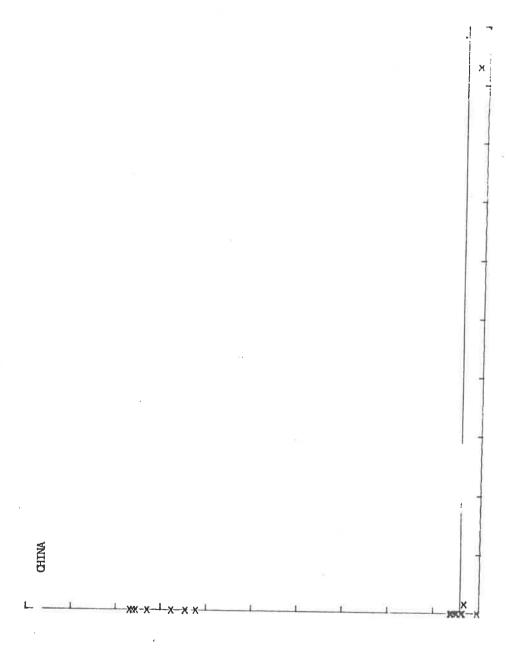


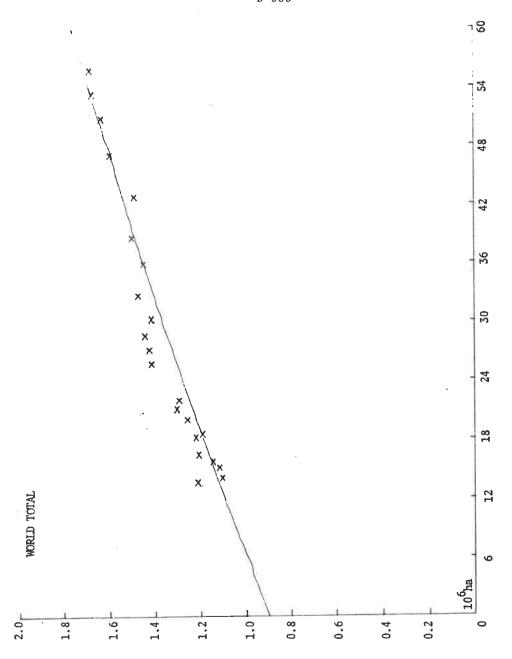












especially high-quality proteins. A diet that contains even a small amount of meat is likely to be much better than one containing none at all.

Second, livestock feed is a significant use of foodstuffs in all regions, and we cannot model the tradeoff between plant food and animal food without explicitly considering this particular use of plant food. Third, a major use of livestock in much of the world is as draft animals. As mechanization becomes increasingly the fact, animals which were previously needed for power will become available for protein supplements in the diet.

The state variable for this sector is the number of animals, which grows according to new livestock purchased as calculated by the economic model. There is a maximum number of animals which can be maintained in a region. This is due to the facts that natural pastures have carrying capacities and that the numbers of livestock that can be maintained in feedlots is limited by the amount of feed. At this level of aggregation, however, we shall calculate the maximum only with regard to the maximum carrying capacity of natural pastures <sup>24</sup>.

Eight different types of livestock are considered in each region: cattle, pigs, sheep and goats, horses, other large animals (mules, asses, buffalos, and camels) chickens, all poultry, and dairy animals (cattle, buffalos, sheep, and goats). Eleven kinds of animal foods are derived from these livestock types: beef and veal, pork, lamb and mutton, horsemeat, other meat, eggs, poultry meat, milk, cheese, butter and edible offals. Production of honey is also included in this section. The relationship between livestock number and meat production have been

determined as an average of the year 1966-1969 from FAO figures<sup>26</sup>. These are quite consistent, as shown in Table 4. Thus as livestock numbers are allowed to change through time, the production of various livestock products follows.

#### Fisheries

Fishery resources can be divided into those of natural waters and cultivated fish ponds. The catch of fish by the nations of the world is well known<sup>27</sup>, as are the growth rates of that catch. But the maximum sustainable yield for the world ocean fishery is not at all well understood, and estimates have ranged from 55 to over 1,000 million metric tons per year<sup>28</sup>. Present problems in fish production, including major declines in the Peruvian Anchoveta fisheries, suggest that the lower estimates are more realistic, and we have used Ryther's estimate of 100 million metric tons as the world maximum sustainable catch.

In this model we have assumed that regional marine fish catch would continue to grow at its current rate until the world maximum substantial yield was reached, at which point the catch would level off.

Fish constitute, in many respects, an ideal food supplement since they are very high in protein but rather low in calories. Furthermore, they can be rendered into fish meals and fish protein concentrate flour which can provide high quality animal protein with low bulk and excellent storage capability. Thus, if as seems now to be the case, the primary food problem in an area is a deficiency of protein, expansion of fish in the diet would

TABLE 4

Relationship between production of livestock products and the average number of animals in herds in all 10 regions

# REGION

10	2216.8	216.9 8099.7 37.338	143.0 699.1 4 888	9.916	40,447	,	1083.2 2421.9 2.236	1083.2 3117.3 2.878
9	1100.9	32.1 1143.8 35.658	180.6 632.1 3.500	3.3 1.1 0.337	91.5 18.3 0.20	1.50	535.6 468.7 0.875	469.3 732.1 1.560
8 124.5	1665.6	4.8 133.7 27.933	168.1 560.8 3.337	2.6 2.3 0.877	17.6 333.5 18.53	10.73	286.0 24.08 0.842	282.8 274.3 0.970
7	560.0 35.815	0.1 10.2 94.886	123.4 651.7 5.281	1.3 3.0	9.9 56.0 5.64	5.97	127.4 183.9 1.443	120.9 230.7 1.909
6 230.4	6505.0 28.23	93.8 1652.8 17.616	174.2 472.2 2.711	24.1 19.2 0.797	14.2 2.8 0.20	79.85	552.8 511.3 0.925	537.7 1206.6 2.244
5 120.0	6132.0 51.082	89.9 6662.8 74.122	176.1 994.3 5.647	12.1 14.0 1.158	1.8 212.9 117.04	245.47	871.2 1047.1 1.615	843.8 2967.6 3.517
4 39.1	1607.1 41.108	4.2 288.5 69.469	267.0 1382.8 5.179	1:1	$\frac{1.3}{171.7}$ $130.31$	26.01	53.7 238.3 4.435	50.4 396.8 7.869
3.0	168.2 56.286	5.7 \$17.1 90.871	$0.4 \\ 1.2 \\ 3.218$	0.2 14.2 58.819	1 1 1	99.9	134.2 225.2 1.679	133.8 1262.9 9.440
2 117.5	6553.8 55.800	95.7 7553.7 78.936	168.3 933.5 5.546	6.1 $172.7$ $28.137$	5.7 409.6 72.45	41.23	474.9 2199.0 4.630	468.5 4247.0 9.066
1 120.6	10756.4 89.177	60.1 6004.8 99.926	28.3 299.0 10.572	6.9 3.7 0.531	0.007	137.20	510.7 5997.8 11.745	491.9 4258.4 8.657
No. Cattle Beef-Veal	Prod. Production Factor	No Pigs Pork Prod. Production Factor	No Sheep & Goats Lamb-Mutton Prod. Production Factor	No Horses Horsemeat Prod. Production Factor	No Other Animals Other Meat Prod. Production Factor	Prod. Honey	No Poultry Poultry Meat Prod. Production Factor	No Chickens Egg Prod. Production Factor

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No Dairy Animal Edible Offal Prod. Production Factor	99.3 1108.5 11.16	112.2 1108.2 9.88	2.4 57.7 23.77	59.0 266.6 4.52	2.4 59.0 114.3 57.7 266.6 253.7 23.77 4.52 2.22	201.9 399.7 1.98	27.0 1: 103.8 3: 3.85	116.4 359.8 3.09	307.5 193.7 0.63	98.0
Milk Prod. Production Factor	61431.9 618.5	118335.1 1055.0	3788.9 1560.5	16745.0 283.9	114977.1 1006.1	22788.9	6054.3 224.5	5148.2 52.8		3184.6 32.5
Cheese Prod. Production Factor	1271.3	2277.0 20.3	31.1 12.8	224.1	1428.5 12.5	323.0 1.6	366.8 13.6	1 1	1 1	1 1
Butter Prod. Production Factor	685.3	1469.4 13.1	2.9	524.9	1702.8		13.3	13.3 116.4 0.5 0.4		

All livestock numbers are in million individuals All production figures are in thousand metric tons Production Factors are in kg/animal
Dash indicates lack of data

be a useful means of meeting this deficiency. So we have included aquaculture as an explicit means of improving protein production in the area. The literature on fish pond culture is adequate, but not terribly large 12. It suggests several things. First, the relationship between the land area in fish ponds is essentially uniform within an area (Table 5), but it may vary over several orders of magnitude from region to region. This is due to several factors, mainly the fish species being raised and the intensity of the fish culture. The reason for this latter phenomenon is not clear; it may be cultural or it may have some other basis, but it does seem to hold. Because of this relationship, however, it becomes possible to estimate the potential for fish production in cultivated fish ponds by setting the growth rate of land in fish ponds as a scenario variable.

The catch of fish from natural watercourses and cultivated fish ponds is added and converted to meat by a uniform factor of 45%.

# Allocation of Food

The outputs from the food-producing sectors of the model (field, live-stock, and fisheries) calculate production in terms of useful foodstuffs (edible portions, meat, etc.). These foodstuffs are then equivalenced to a single vector including all of the important foodstuffs, plant and animals. To make the destination of the food more realistic, several different categories of plant foods are calculated from the aggregated categories of "grains" and "non-grains". Cereal grains are subdivided into wheat, maize, mutton and sorghum, rice, and other cereals; non-grains are subdivided into sugars, starches, root crops, vegetables, pulses, fruits, oil crops, drinks and stimulants, and fibers. The percentage distributions of the food types are considered constant for each region. A complete

TABLE 5

Relationshp of fish production in cultivated ponds to fish pond area, by region.

Region	Production of fini	Production of finfish in fish ponds						
	mean(kg/ha)	Std. deviation	of Observations					
1	963.	1697.	46					
2	797.	466.	12					
3	3778.	6159.	9					
4	1441.	1725.	28					
5	854.	451.	3					
8	2713.	3804.	5					
9	2074.	479.	74					
10	2832.	1967.	5					
World	1712.	1988.	184					

Data are from sources listed in footnote 12

listing of the crops included in each category is given in Table 6; the percentages of the various crop types in each region is given in Table 7. This disaggregation serves two purposes: first it will enable us to get a feel for the makeup of the complete diet of an average person in each of the regions; secondly it separates out crops which are important in international trade, and which can thus be used as indicators of interregional capital in agriculture.

The next step in the model is to calculate the use of the food supply within a region (Figure 9)<sup>29</sup>. Defining food supply as the sum of gross regional production plus import, less export, we have considered 5 uses: livestock feed, seed, human food, industrial uses, and wastage inherent in extraction. The disposition of foodstuffs into these uses is shown in Table 8. Retention as seed means that a percentage of the crop is held back as the seedstock for the next year's crop. As more efficient seed-producing schemes are adopted throughout the world, these percentages may fall, but they can never be eliminated. Industrial uses are manyfold. Some are for heavy industry (as in the case of some of the vegetable oils), while others are for specialized uses within the food industry (either human food or pet food). Insofar as was possible, seed, imports, and exports were considered in terms of raw agricultural products; feed, industrial uses, and food were considered in actual weight of the commodity.

Livestock feed included the materials fed to livestock. This is a significant use of grains in all regions, and in some regions may account for the majority of grain use. In some cases, materials are fed to livestock to fatten them to increase meat quality and quantity. In others

## TABLE 6

Specific Crops included in each of the categories considered in the world food  ${\tt model}_{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ 

CATEGORY	CROPS INCLUDED
Wheat	Wheat
Maize	Maize
Millets & Sorghum	Millet and Sorghum
Rice	Rice
Other Cereals	Rye, Barley, Oats, Mixed Grains, Buckwheat, Miscellaneous Cereals.
Sugar Crops	Sugar Cane, Sugar Beets
Starchy Root Crops	Potatoes, Sweet Potatoes and Yams, Cassava
Vegetables	Onions, Tomatoes, Cabbages, Cauliflowers
Pulses	Greenbeans, Green peas, Dry beans, Dry peas, Dry broad beans, $\operatorname{Chic}^k$ peas, Lentils, Pigeon peas, Cow peas, Vetch, Lupins, Other pulses.
Fruits	Apples, Pears, Plums and Prunes, Cherries, Peaches, Apricots, Grapes, Oranges and Tangerines, Grapefruit, Lemons and Limes, Dates, Figs, Bananas, Pineapples,
Oil Crops	Olives, Palm Kernels, Soybeans, Peanuts, Cottonseed, Linseed, Hempseed, Rapeseed, Sesame Seed, Sunflower Seed, Castor Beans, Copra, Tung oil.
Drinks and Stimulants	Coffee, Cocoa, Tea, Hops, Tobacco
Fibers	Cotton Lint, Flax fiber, Hempfiber, Jute, Abaca, Agaves, Other hard fibers, Natural Rubber

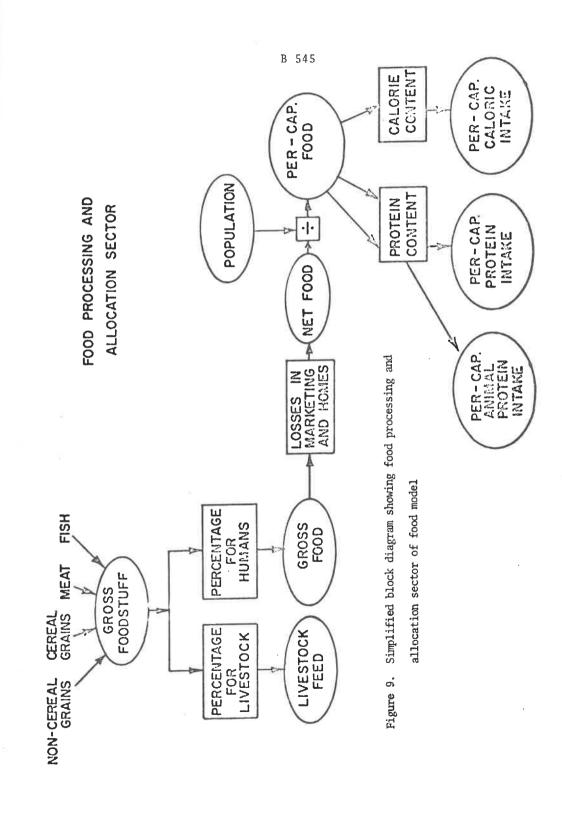
TABLE 7

Percentages of individual crop types in aggregate crops.

REGION

						]	В	54	4												
World	Average	25.85	77:17	7.27	24.69	20.97	100.00	41 46	04.74	:	35,43	2.36	20.2		9.17	0 * * 0	1	0.70	1.30	0	99.99
ç	0.4	20.79	10.1	0.00	71.10	100.00	100.00	28 88	•	0	7.20	0.00	15.69	27.6	38 22	11.00	0 24	47.6	20.0	10001	10.001
σ	,	10.00		10.89	69.96	100 001	•	64.36		17.00	15.38	0.64	6.30	22.22	7.01		0 75	5.5	•	80 00	00.00
00		26.39		56.38	71.21	100,00		16.28		68 22	27.00	0.28	3.48	1.52	7.15		1.95	1.10		86.66	,
7	70 76	11.29	ò	4.90	75 51	100.00		28.29		7, 7,	12 62	Ç0.77	5.44	33.66	10.90		0.34	3.18		66,66	
9	22 00	50.13	2 02	15 50	7.45	100.00		73.60		12.02	0.83	200	77.1	8.09	2.27		1.24	0.68		100.00	
r	46 08	13.51	1 38	0.00	38.74	100.00		28.77		60.15	1.79	1.60	1.00	20.6	3.63		0.16	0.88		100.00	
4	50.68	29.51	4.05	0.91	14.85	100.00	i	75.88		5.32	2.48	0.97	12.66	77.00	7.30	ć	07.0	0.12		66 66	
ъ	7.01	0.41	0.46	81.51	10.01	100.00	i	0.54	7	77.40	18.78	2.30	12 14	11.2	7.10	1 20	1.20	0.03		100.00	
2	42.40	11.68	0.19	1.44	44.29	100.00	11 70	44.07	76 70	20.00	1.14	2.44	23.88	3 30		0 22	27.0	/7:0	0	99.99	
-	25.25	47.32	5.58	1.44	20.41	100.00	31 00	06.10	14 57		TC.,	3.06	16.48	22.36	)	1.04	2 90	;		88.88	
Crop Type	Wheat	Millets &	Sorghum	Arce	Cereal Crains	COICAI OIAINS	Sugar Crons	Starchy Root	Crops	Vegetables	Dilee	Sastna	Fruits	Oil Crops	Drinks 🖟	Stimulants	Fibers	Non-Grain	Crons	rdo to	

Data refer to percentages of total cereal grain and non-grain Production by weight. From FAO sources (footnote 13)



these are fed to increase the usefulness of livestock as draft animals. This usage of foodstuffs is a complex one: In principle it can be reduced, thus freeing additional food to go to people. But these parameters cannot be involved in scenarios unless its impact on the energy supply and the protein intake of the regions concerned are considered. Finally, some of the foodstuffs is actually consumed by humans as food. For some foodstuffs, this may be an astonishingly low proportion. But it gives us the basis for the actual diet of a region. It will be noted in Table 8 that not all of the uses add up to 100%. The reason for this is that there is always waste. Some of this is in the form of actual waste of raw foodstuffs, while much of it is due to the fact that the extraction rate of refined products may be rather low30.

The amount of food calculated by the model at this point is essentially that which appears for human consumption at the wholesale level. Between this stage and its conversion into human biomass, another adjustment is needed to describe the losses in the marketing process and in the home. In an industrialized country, these losses average around 10%; in other regions with poorer storage facilities they may be much higher. The regional net food supply is calculated and then divided by the population to give the average per capita intake of each foodstuff.

The protein and calorie content of each foodstuff is known (table 9) so that the average regional per capita intake of each foodstuff can be expressed in proteins and calories. These can then be added to give the total intake of calories, of all proteins, and of animal (high quality) proteins.

TABLE 9

Energy and Protein Content of Foodstuffs Considered

Foodstuff	Calories Cal/gm.	Proteins Percent
Cereal Grains		
Wheat	3.500	12.2
Maize	3,600	9.5
Millets & Sorghum	3.480	9.7
Rice	3.600	6.7
Other Cereals	3.490	11.8
Non-Cereal Crops		
Sugars	3.870	_
Roots	0.920	1.8
Vegetables	0.220	1.7
Pulses	3.450	23.1
Fruits	0.590	0.7
Oils	2.750	19.0
Drinks	-	-
Fibers	_	_
110013		
Meat and Dairy Products		
Beef	2.500	17.7
Pork	4.380	11.9
Lamb	2.880	15.6
Horsemeat	0.940	20.0
Other Meat	1.650	15.2
Honey	2.900	-
Poultry	1.300	20.0
Eggs	1.630	12.4
0ffals	1.430	16.0
Mi1k	0.650	3.5
Cheese	3.000	18.0
Butter	7.160	0.6
Fish	1.320	18.8

# Application of the food model

Because the food model is a simple feed-through model, it must be driven by some external parameters. It was originally driven by the observed rates of growth of the state variables, but the world is in such a rapid state of flux now that we felt that these rates could not be maintained for long and that the results obtained thereby were not meaningful. Thus, the food model was integrated with the economic and population models developed by Richardson and by Oehmen and Paul<sup>7</sup>, to form a single model of the world food production system. Several scenarios have been run for regions 1 and 9 and the results are very meaningful. These are described in detail in the accompanying report by Richardson et al.

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- 13. Data are from the World Crop Statistics 1948-1964 and the Production Yearbooks of 1967 and 1970. National figures for production, area under crop, and yields are given for over 10 cereal grains and 58 non-cereal crops. All 3 types are given for the cereals and most of the other crops; however area and yield are (unfortunately) omitted for perennials and some other minor crops. Production and area (where available) data were aggregated into the regions for the period of 1948-1970. The relationship between land cultivated in grains and that cultivated in non-grains was determined by linear regression.
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- 15. FAO defines arable land in the notes to Table 1 of the Production Yearbook. It should be noted that this statistic is probably the most subjective in the entire compendium, since it is based entirely on the judgement of various national ministries of agriculture, and each ministry assesses its own land base by a different yardstick.

- 16. For example Watters, R.F., 1971. Shifting Cultivation in Latin America. FAO Forestry Development Paper No. 17: x + 305; Horsfall, J.G. Brady, N.C., Cline, M.G., Drosdoff, M., Cuilken, P.C., Kellogg, C.E., Odum, H.T., Overbeck, J. van, 1967. Tropical Soils and Climates. Chap. 8 in The World Food Problem, A Report of the President's Scientific Advisory Committee. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office: 471-500.
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- 19. Lester Brown Discusses the interrelationship between these factors in a particularly lucid way in Seeds of Change.
- 20. Data for grain production and area are from WorldCrop Statistics 1948-1966 and the Production Yearbooks of 1967 and 1970. National figure are aggregated into data on total cereal production and total area in cereals for all regions. Regional grain yield per hectare (GRPH) was calculated by dividing total production by total area. The fertilizer consumption data are from the Production Yearbooks of 1951, 1953, 1955, 1958, 1961, 1964, 1967, and 1970. Total consumption of fertilizer was aggregated to regional totals using the same product as that of grain production. As a rule of thumb, we assumed that 2/3 of the fertilizer consumption was on cereal grains; this was a suggestion from Dr. Raymond Ewell. Professor of Chemical Engineering at SINY-Buffalo, a widely respected expert on fertilizer usage. Thus, the average regional fertilizer application rate was calculated by dividing two-thirds of the regional fertilizer consumption by the area cultivated in grains.

- See. Richardson, J.M. 1974. Scenario Analysis of the World Food Problem Report for the Multilevel Regionalized World Modeling Project. 32 pp.
- 22. The data for this relationship are from World Crop Statistics 1948-1966 and the Production Yearbooks of 1967 and 1970. Aggregation of production data for 10 cereal grains and 58 non-cereal crops into regional totals is by the same protocal as that used in footnotes 11 and 19. The relationships between gross production of cereal grains and that of non-cereal crop was determined by a linear regression using the aggregated data for the period 1948-1969.
- 23. This is implicit in the reliance on arable land as the prime level determining food production in Meadows, D.H., Meadows, D.L., Randers, J., and Behrens, W.W., III, 1972. The Limits to Growth. New York: Universe Books: 205 pp., and it is explicit in the technical report on the agricultural sector of that study (xerox copy, privately circulated. Appendix to Chapter 1).
- 24. Data are from Revelle, R., Brady, NC., Brown, A.L., Hagan, RM., Orvedal, A.C., Peterson, D.F., Russell, M.G., Thorne W., and Schilfgards, Ivan., Water and Land. Ch. 7 in The World Food Problem. Washington: Govt. Printing Office: 405-470. Land is apportioned into the 10 regions in proporation to the amount of arable land from each continent in each region.
- 25. The numbers of animals in each region are taken from the FAO production yearbook for 1970, with national totals being aggregated to regional totals in the same manner as the crop data described earlier. Only the years 1966-1969 or 1966-1970 (depending on the extent of the data in the 1970 Production Yearbook) were considered, because the relationships being considered are much simpler. The average annual ratio of change in livestock numbers were calculated as the average percentage change in regional livestock population during the interval.
- 26. The production of meat in each region is listed in the FAO Production Yearbooks for 1967 and 1970, with national totals aggregated to regional totals as done before. The relationship between livestock number and meat production was obtained by dividing regional meat production by regional lovestock population.
- 27. These data were obtained in the FAO Fisheries Yearbook for 1970. The average annual growth rate of the regional catches were calculated by aggregating national catch into regional catch and determining the average percentage change in the regional catch during the interval 1964 to 1970.

- 28. The low estimate is from Graham, H.W., and R.L. Edwards, 1962. The World Biomass of marine fishes. Fish in Nutrition. Fishing News (Books) Ltd; 3-8. The high come from Pike, S.T. and Spilhaus, A., 1962. Marine Resources: A report to the committee on Natural Resources of the National Academy of Sciences. National Research Council. NAS-NRC. Pub. 1000-E, and Chapman, W.M., 1965. Potential Resources of the Ocean Long Beach, Calif., Van Camp Seafood Company; 43 pp (Available on loan from Living Marine Resources, Inc., San Diego).
- 29. The allocation of food to the various uses are based on the FAO Food Balance Sheets 1964-1966, which list production, import, exports, animal feed, seed, manufacturing, waste, and net food for all major foodstuffs. We have taken the food balance sheets for the largest countries in each region, Canada and the United States in region 1. France, The Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Italy, The Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and the United Kingdom in Region 2; Japan in region 3; Australia, New Zealand, and the Republic of South Africa in region 4; Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, The Democratic Republic of Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania and the USSR in region 5; Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, and Venezula in region 6; Algeria, Iran, Irag, Morocco, Syria, and the United Arab Republic in region 7; Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Nigeria, Rhodesia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Upper Volta Zaire in Region 8; and Burma, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Taiwan, and Thailand in region 9; and the Peoples' Republic of China, North Korea, and North Vietnam in region 10), and calculated coefficients of retention as seed, use as livestock feed, and use as a human food for all regions and all foodstuffs except for fibers. The seed coefficient is the total amount reserved for seed divided by total production. The livestock feed coefficient is the total feed going to livestock divided by the total local production plus net import. The food coefficient is the total food going to the human populations divided by the total local production plus net import.

It should be noted that these data are also provided to FAO by member governments, and thus show the same biases as the other FAO data. Also, two different ways of reporting certain data are used in the volume of Food Balance Sheets, one of which obscures the relationship between gross production of foodstuff and the form in which it is imported or exported. Even so, these data are as good as indication of the disposition of food within regions as can be asked at this point, and errors are probably no greater than in other portions of the model.

For example, sugar cane - raw sugar, 10%; sugar beets - raw sugar, 13.5%, soybeans - soybean oil, 19%; coconuts - coconut oil, 15% sunflower seeds - sunflower oil, 35%., etc.

# III.4. THE STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTION AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

## OF THE FOOD SUBMODEL

M.D. Mesarovic, J.M. Richardson Jr., T. Shook,
M.W. Warshaw

## B 556

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#### 1. Overall Structure

The principal structure of the model of interest for the analysis of the food situation are the population and economics, land use and food on the technology stratum and the individuals stratum on which the response on the individuals to food and diet deficiency or surplus is assessed. In the report we study the structure of the submodels of interest for the food analysis, the linkages and data base. The land use food production submodel (Clapham and Warshaw,1974) and the population submodel (Oehmen and Paul,1974) have been already described. In the case of the economic stratum, a two sector (food and non-food) aggregation of the nine sector regionalized micro-economic model (Hickman, Klein and Mesarovic, 1974) is of interest of the food analysis presented in this report and we shall describe how this aggregation is made.

A simplified diagram of the connections within the world system model of interest to the food analysis are identified in Fig. 1-1. The reader will note that, in addition to the four submodels, a pricing mechanism, import sector, export sector and mechanism for comparing regional food supply with population needs, are identified as important components.

# 1.1 Components of the Integrated Model

# 1.1.1 The Population and Economic Submodels

The overview of the main aspects of the population submodel of interest for our purpose is given in Fig. 1-2. To permit coupling with the land use and food production strata, while retaining maximum siplicity, a model on the microeconomic level of resolution, comprising of an agricultural and non-agricultural sector has been used.

Parameters, inputs, outputs and scenario variables of the econimic submodel are identified in Figure 1-3. Coefficients for consumption, investment, government expenditure, imports and exports in the demand equations are defined exogenously. Input-output matrix coefficients,

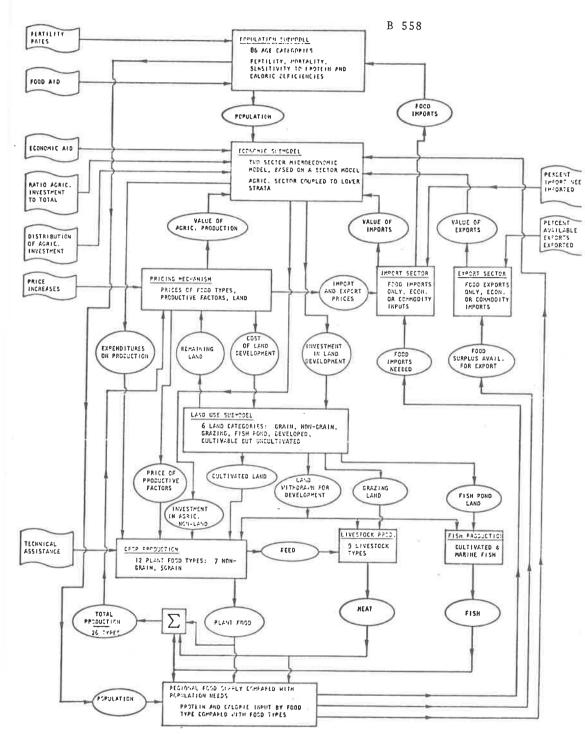


Figure .1-4. Integrated Food Policy Analysis Model: Structure and Principal Interrelationships Between Strata and Sectors

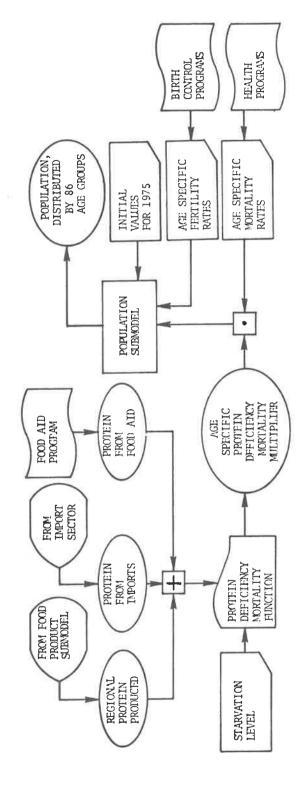


Figure 1-2. Population Submodel: Simplified Representation of Parameters, Inputs and Outputs

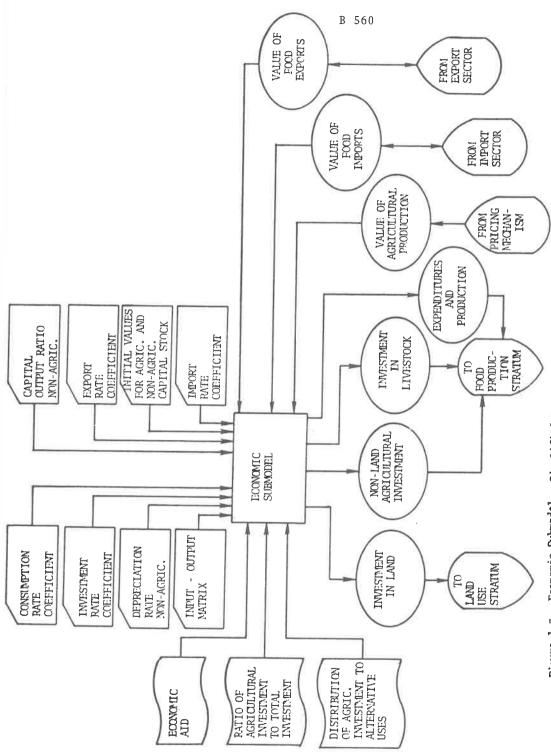


Figure 1-3, Economic Submodel: Simplified Representation of Parameters, Inputs and Outputs

the non-agricultural sector capital output ratio and the non-agricultural sector depreciation rate are also defined as exogenous coefficients.\*

The scenario variables identified for the economic stratum reflect a concern with the problems of investment development of aid, and with the distribution of investments. Both the ratio of agricultural investment to total investment and the distribution of agricultural investment to fertilizer production and technological improvement, land and livestock can be manipulated.\*\*

The outputs from the economic stratum which affect the level of food production are investment in land, investment in livestock, non-land agricultural investment and expenditures in production. The latter is expended on fertilizer and other non-capital factors of production.\*\*\*

A fraction of agricultural investment may also be allocated to a fertilizer production use subsidy program. The value of imports may also be

A comprehensive economic data base [Erdilek et. a1., 1974] has been used to estimate parameters and validate the micro-economic model for which these coefficients are derived. See, for example, McCarthy and Shuttic [1974].

We have considered the possibility of implementing a mechanism which would maximize the marginal productivity of investments with respect to the three categories; however, it has not been implemented at this time. Such a mechanism might prove to be of some value for modeling relatively "free market" agricultural systems such as that of North America. (Even in North America, however, the level of government involvement has been relatively high.) For centrally planned systems, treating the distribution of investment as a scenario variable is probably most appropriate.

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> Following the practice of FAO and others in aggregate productivity and yield-value analysis, fertilizer consumption is used as an indication for a mix of non-capital inputs to the food production process.

specified as an input to the import sector from the food production sector. When this is done, the value of food imports, an input to the population sector, is determined by the funds allocated to imports and current market prices. The value of food exports may be specified in a similar manner.

Alternatively, the volume of exports and of imports (measured in food or edible protein) may be specified by scenario variable inputs to the import sector. When the model is used in this way, the value of food imports and the value of food exports are inputs to the demand equations of the economic submodel. The value of agricultural production is a function of the amount and price of products produced in the other input to the economic submodel. As noted above, this input replaces the value of agricultural production calculated from a production function in the one stratum microeconomic model.

#### 1.1.2 The Land Use Submodel

The basic structure of the land use submodel pictured in Figure 1-4. For categories of land - cultivable but uncultivated, grazing, developed, cultivated and fish pond are defined as state variables.\* The rate of increase in cultivated land is determined by the amount of investment in

For reasons which are discussed in the technical report describing the land use and food models [Clapham and Warshaw, 1974], grain land rather than cultivated land is defined as a state variable in the actual model computations. This difference has no effect on the overall results. The structure depicted in Figure 1-6 conveys, in the judgment of the author, a clearer understanding of the model.

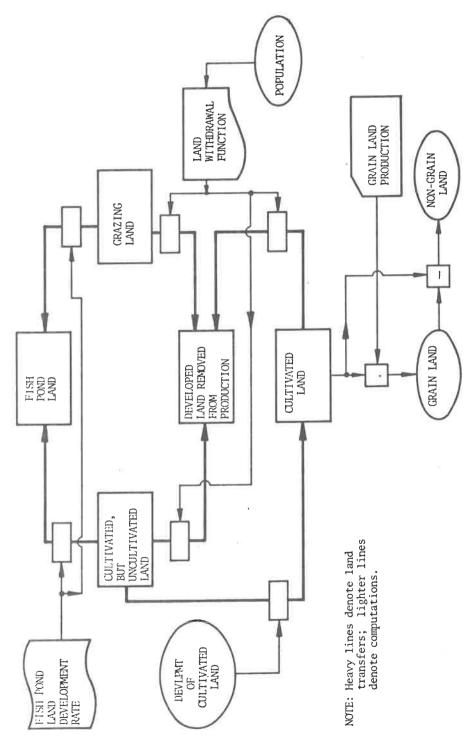


Figure I-4. Simplified Structure of the Land Use Model

land development and land development costs (which include the price of land). Development costs increase as the amount of cultivable but uncultivated land decreases. As population increases, land is withdrawn from agricultural uses for urban and economic development.

Parameters, inputs, outputs and scenario variables of the land use submodel are identified in Figure 1-5. Since the price of land is sensitive to the amount of uncultivated agricultural land available for development, both the input and output couple the land use model to the pricing mechanism. Outputs to the food production sector - grain land, non -grain land, total land for livestock support and fish pond land - are significant factors in determining the amount of food produced. Because of inadequate data, components of the model dealing with the production of cultivated fish have not been coupled to the economic sector in the present version of the model. Hence, scenarios which examine this type of food must be directly implemented in the land use sector, rather than through shifts in patterns of investment in the economic sector. This also means, of course, that the economic implications of such scenarios can not fully be taken into account.

#### 1.1.3 The Food Production Submodel

Because the food model computes information on twenty-six food types, it appears to be quite complex.\* The fairly high level of disaggregation

Both the land use and food submodels were developed by Clapham and Warshaw. It should not be assumed that the brief discussion here is, in any sense, an adequately substitute for the detailed elaboration found in their technical report [Clapham and Warshaw, 1974].

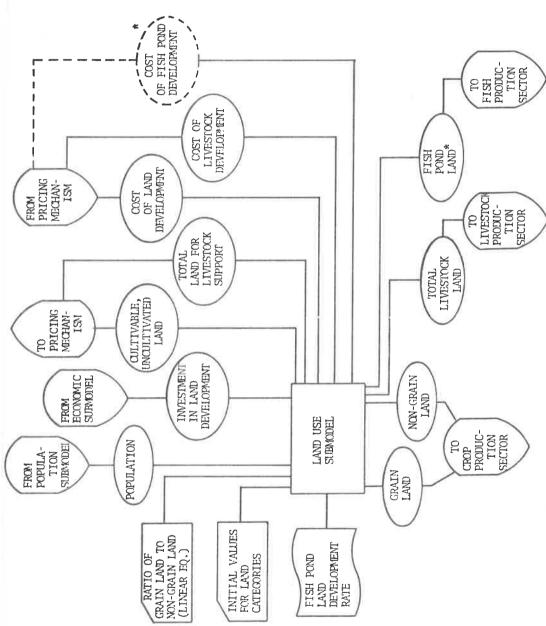


Figure 1-3. Land Use Submodel: Simplified Representation of Parameters, Inputs and Outputs

permits an examination of different uses to which foodstuffs are put in different regions and allows for costs of future dietary patterns to be made in concrete terms. But the underlying rationale of the model is straightforward (Figure 1-6). Gross production levels in the three sectors - plants, livestock and fish - are determined by the input levels of land, capital and other factors of production.\* Production levels for the various food types are determined by gross production levels with adjustments made to take into account the utilization of some portion of the output for seed and livestock. In calculating the net food production level from which regional production of calories and protein is computed, household, marketing and food processing losses are also taken into account.

For many policy analysis problems, the food model can simply be viewed as a "black box" with inputs of land, capital and other factors of production and outputs of protein and calories. But for other problems the availability of data in the different food types will be quite significant.

The inputs to and outputs from the food model and their significance should be clear from Figure 1-6 and the above discussion. There are no scenario variables presently defined. Because of the complex disaggregation and reaggregation scheme, this submodel has by far the largest

As indicated by the dotted lines in Figure 1-6, this scheme is fully implemented only for the plant production sector. In Region 9, on which our attention has first been focused, failure to take production costs directly into account in the fish and livestock sectors is probably not of great significance. In the Region 1 scenarios, livestock production costs are taken into account indirectly.

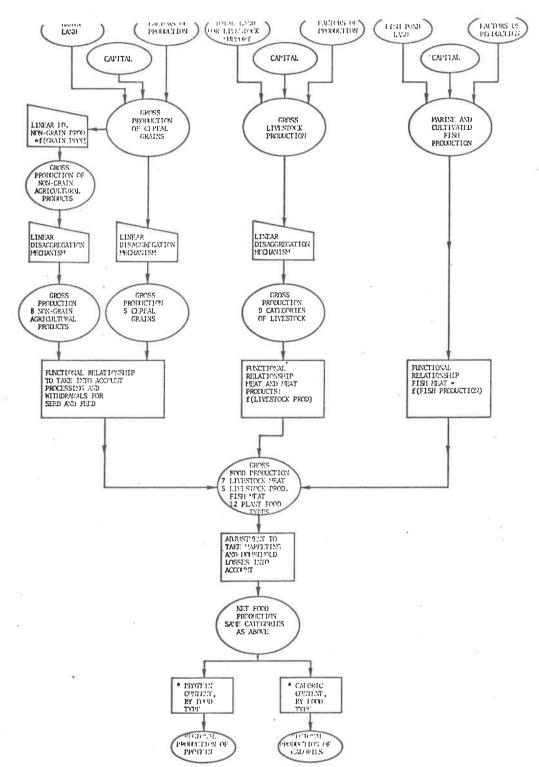


Figure 1-6 Basic Structure of the Food Production Submodel

number of parameters. It is interesting to note that regional differences between parameter values are, in a surprising number of instances, quite significant\*.

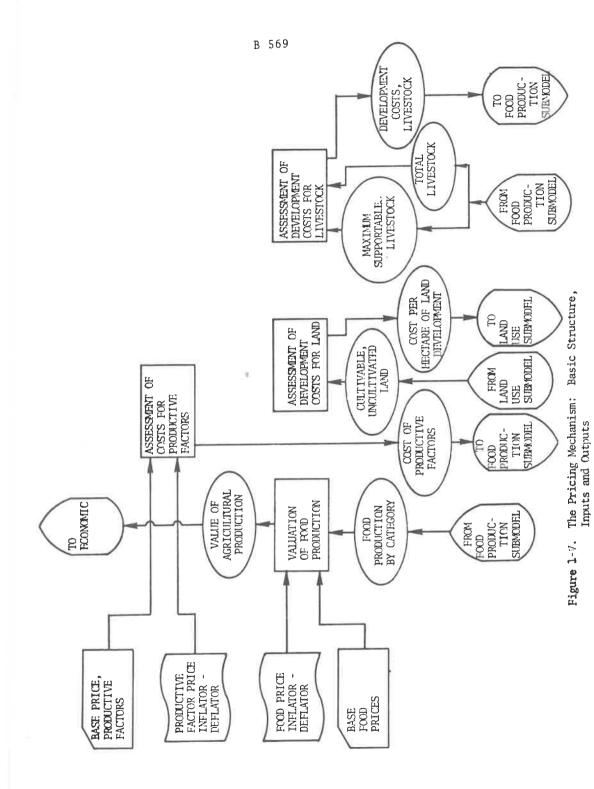
# 1.2 Couplings within the World Model of Interest for the Food Analysis

Many of the couplings between submodels are described in more details elsewhere and require no elaboration other than that presented above. The population-economic, papulation-land use and land use submodel couplings fall into this category. But the pricing mechanism while couples economic-sector variables, measured in dollar values, with land use and food production variables, measured in physical quantities, does merit further discussion. The mechanism which compares regional food supply with population needs will also be briefly considered.

## 1.2.1 The Pricing Mechanism

The pricing mechanism is composed of four distinct components which are not directly coupled (Figure 1-7). Three of the components compute per-unit costs for land, livestock and productive factors related to crops. The fourth assingns monetary values to the various categories of agricultural production, thus computing the agricultural component of GRP, an input to the economic sector. In two of the components - valuation of

<sup>\*</sup>For examples, see the specification of parameter values for Region 1 and Region 9 in Part 5, below.



food production and assessment of costs for productive factors. The respective values and costs of physical commodities and determined by parameters and scenario variables. The scenario variables are used to inflate or deflate food and/or productive factor prices relative to those of other commodities.

In the two other components, the amount of available land is a constraint which affects prices. Costs of land development are directly related to the available land remaining for cultivation. In land deficient regions, such as fertile Asia, costs rise steeply as remaining land diminishes. Eventually they may reach prohibitive levels. Costs associated with increasing the number of livestock may be indirectly affected by the amount of land available for livestock support through variables which measure the maximum number of grazing livestock that can be supported. It is possible to increase herds beyond that "maximum," but the capital and production costs involved increase significantly.

## 1.2.2 Regional Food Supply Compared With Population Needs

Because food protein and calories are direct inputs to the population stratum where the occurrance of starvation, if any, is computed, this sector does not have any significant effect on the overall model dynamics.

The reader will recall that all monetary values are in 1963 constraint dollars.

However, the relationship between food needs and supply determines import needs or the availability of surplus for export. The existence of surpluses or deficits are of importence when examining scenarios involving interregional food aid programs.

"Food Needs" are defined as the amount of food which will result in an adequate level of nutrition. This is substantually above the starvation level. In establishing base needs, we have been guided by the work of WHO in this area. Food needs are also sensitive to increases in GNP/per capita thus, particularly in the developed regions, food demand might be a more appropriate label for this variable. The inputs to and outputs four this mechanism are pictured in Figure 1-8.

For a more detailed discussion of this and other specific parameter values, see Section 5, below.

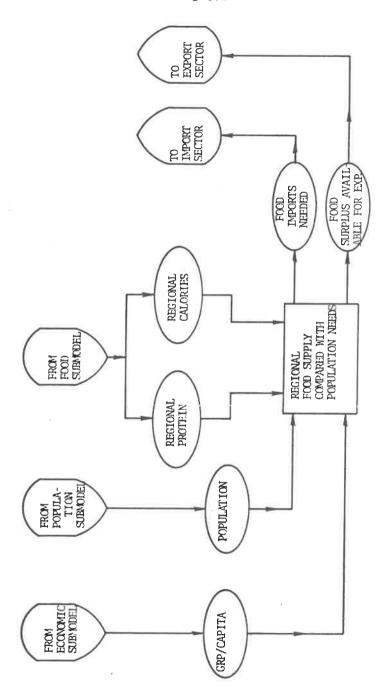


Figure 1-8. Regional Food Supply Compared with Population Needs: Inputs and Outputs

## 2. Model Equations

In this section, the complete set of equations from the world model of interest for the food assessment is presented. As noted in the introduction, this is done so that this report could be, essentially, self contained for the readers who are not interested in details of the world model as a whole. However, it should be emphasized again that this discussion cannot be regarded as an adequate substitute for the more fully elaborated discussions of individual submodels or the overall structure by Mesarovic et al., Clapham, Oehmen and Paul, Clapham and Warshaw. Its intent is to present a clear and detailed picture of the way in which these relationships affect the world food situation\*.

## 2.1. The Population Submodel

## (1) Total Population

$$POP = \sum_{I=0}^{86} AP(I)^{**}$$
(1.1)

$$AP(0) = RABIES - DN(0)$$
 (1.2)

When discussing the equations of a computer model, selection of an appropriate notation always posses a problem. Use of strict mathematical notation may make if difficult to understand the computer program. On the other hand, discussion of a FORTRAN program, in all its detail will necessarily include items which may confuse, rather than clarify understanding of the model structure. In the presentation below, a notations scheme somewhere in between these two alternatives has been chosen. In the technical papers describing the individual submodels, more traditional mathematical notation has been used.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Since all of the model computations are annual, time subscripts have been omitted.

$$AP(86) = AP(86) - DN(86) + AP(85)$$
 (1.4)

Computed Values: POP Total Population

> AP(0) People aged 0 - .5 years, after infant mortality has been taken into account

BABIES Number of Live Births

DN(0)Infant Mortality

AP(I) Population, by age category

DN(I) Number of Deaths, by age category

## (2) Births

BABIES = FERT 
$$\stackrel{86}{\underset{I=1}{\times}}$$
 (AP(I) \* AF(I)) (2.1)

Parameters:

FERT Fertility Coefficient

Normalized age specific probability that a person in the age group between I- $\frac{1}{2}$  and I+ $\frac{1}{2}$  will produce a child between July 1 of year t and July 1 of year t-1.\* AF(I)

Computed Values:

BABIES

Number of Live Births

<sup>\*</sup>The product of FERT and AF(I) is the actual age specific fertility. For further discussion, see Oehmen and Paul [1974, p. 3, ff].

(3) Deaths

$$DN(0) = BABIES * AMPF(0) * AM(0) * .5 * MORT$$
 (3.1)

$$DN(I) = AP(I) * AMPF(I) * AM(I) * MORT$$
(3.2)

$$DN(86) = AP(86) * AMPF(86) * AM(86) * MORT$$
 (3.3)

Parameters: MORT Mortality Coefficient

AM(I) Normalized age specific probability that a person in the age group between I-½ and I+½ will die between July 1 of year t and July 1 of year t-1.\*

Computed Values: DN(0) Infant Mortality

BABIES Number of Live Births

It is envisioned that MORT will be used as a scenario variable in scenarios which examine the effects of improving health care. However, no such scenarios have, as yet, been implemented.

(4) Effects of Protein Starvation on Mortality

$$PROPCI = PTPCR * PRODST * 1000/365$$
(4.1)

$$I = TIMLAG + .5 (4.2)$$

$$PPCSAV(I) = PROPCI$$
 (4.3)

$$PROPCN = PPCSAV(1) \tag{4.4}$$

$$PROFAC = (PRONOR - PROO)/(PROPCN - PROO) - 1.0$$
 (4.5)

The rationale for MORT and AM(I) is similar to that for FERT and AF(I).

(4.6)

E(I) = (EO - EU) \* EXPF(-I/EA) + EU

	AMPF(I)	= PROFAC * E + 1	(4.7)
	AMPF(0)	= PROFAC * EO + 1	(4.8)
	AMPF (86)	) = PROFAC * EU + 1	(4.9)
Parameters:	PRODST	Protein distribution factor (Scenario Variable)	
	TIMLAG	The time interval between a decrease in protein pe capita and its impact on mortality	r
	PRONOR	Level of daily protein per capita below which star occurs	vation
	PROO	Level of protein per capita below which there is n survival	0
	EO	Multiplier denoting Sensitivity of babies to prote starvation	in
	EU	Multiplier denoting sensitivity of older people to protein deficiency	
	EA	Time constant denoting the number of years that pa until E, the age speicifc sensitivity minus EU dro 37% of EO - EU (in eqn. 4.6)	
Computed Values:	PROPCI	Daily per capita protein consumption	
	PTPCR	Annual protein per capita produced regionally	
	PPCSAV	Intermediate value used in computing lagged daily capita protein consumption	per
	PROPCN	Multiplier denoting the amount by which age specific mortality is increased due to protein deficiencies	
	E	Multiplier denoting sensitivity, by age group, to tein deficiency	pro-
	AMPF(I)	Effects of protein starvation on mortality	

Coupling between the food production submodel and the population submodel occurs in Equation 4.1, through the variable PTPCR. The scaling factor, 1000/365, converts the dimensionality of the food production submodel (kilograms per capita per year) to that of the population model (grams protein per capita per day). The protein distribution factor, PRODIST, takes into account inadequacies and inequities in the distribution system which can occur in less developed regions of the world. Because of this uneven distribution, the actual amount of food needed to provide adequate nutrition (or prevent starvation) is greater than one would predict by simply computing PROPCI from regional aggregate food production. Equations 4.2 - 4.4 take into account the time delay between changes in food supply and their impact on the population.

Computation of the effects of protein starvation on mortality is broken down into two components. In equation 4.5, a multiplier is computed which denotes the age specific sensitivity of the population to protein deficiency. Values of this variable are related in plots of the "starvation factor" in scenario results. Values of E(I) are highest for babies and fall off rapidly during the period specified by EA. (A typical distribution of E(I) is pictured in Figure 4-1.) The variable PROFAC is sensitive to the amount of protein deficiency, relative to the threshold starvation levels specified by the values of PRONOR (level below which starvation occurs) and PROO (level below which there is no survival). Over the range of E(I), equation 4.7 generates a hyperbolic with its verticle asymptote at PROO (Figure 4-2). Since EO and EU are, respectively, the upper and lower bounds of E(I), the equations for AMPF(0) and AMPF(86) are defined separately from equation 4.7.

B 578 Figure 2-1

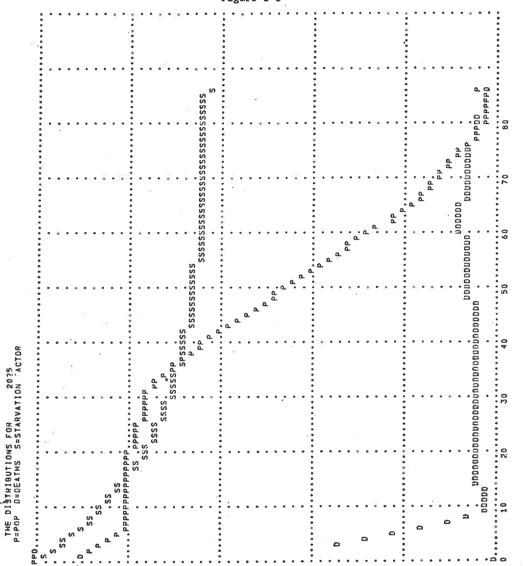
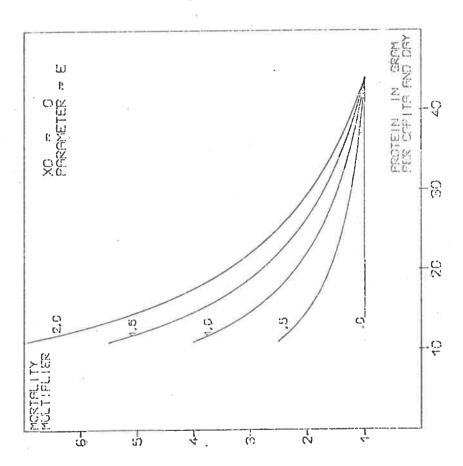


Figure 2-2.



## (5) Indicators

$$DCHLD = \sum_{I=0}^{15} DN(I)$$
 (5.1)

$$CBR = BABIES/POP (5.2)$$

$$CDR = DEATHS/POP$$
 (5.3)

Computed Values: DCHLD Total child deaths, ages 0 - 15

DN(I) Mortality, by age category

CBR Crude birth rate

CDR Crude death rate

POPGR Population growth rate

Equations 5.1 - 5.4 have no effects on the dynamics of the model. Their prupose is to calculate some of the more commonly used demographic indicators for use in scenario analysis.

## 2.2. The Economic Submodel

## (1) Production

$$KA_{t} = KA_{t-1} * (1 - DA) + IA$$
 (1.1)

$$YAX = KA * QA$$
 (1.2)

$$KDA = KA * DA$$
 (1.3)

$$KNA_{t} = KNA_{t-1} * (1 - DNA) + INA$$
 (1.4)

(1.5)

(1.6)

(1.7)

YNA = KNA \* QNA

KDNA = KNA \* DNA

Y = YNA + YA

Parameters:	DA	Depreciation rate, agricultural sector
	QA	Capital per output ratio, agricultural sector
	DNA	Depreciation rate, non-agricultural sector
	QNA	Capital per output ratio, non-agricultural sector
Computed Values:	KA	Capital stock, agricultural sector
	IA	Investment, agriculture sector
	YAX	Agricultural output, computed within the economic stratum
	KDA	Amount of depreciation, agricultural sector
	KNA	Capital stock, non-agricultural sector
	INA	Investment, non-agricultural sector
•	KONA	Amount of depreciation, non-agricultural sector
	Y	Gross regional product

Equations 1.1 and 1.2, from the decoupled economic model have been retained so that YAX can be compared with YA, which is calculated by the food production model and pricing mechanism. Since the effects of depreciation on capital stock are computed directly in equations 1.1 and 1.4, KDA and KDNA are only included so that their values may be available as indicators.

<sup>\*</sup>As noted in Part 1 above, the "agricultural sector" of the economic submodel aggregates both the agriculture and food sectors of the nine sector micro economic model.

# (2) Gross Outputs and Intermediate Demand Z(1) = A1I(1,1) \* YA + A1I(2,1) \* YNA (2.1) Z(2) = A1I(1,2) \* YA + A1I(2,2) \* YNA (2.2) U(1) = A(1,1) \* Z(1) + A(2,1) \* Z(2) U(2) = A(1,2) \* Z(2) + A(2,2) \* Z(2) UA = A(2,1) \* Z(2) UAF = UA \* UAFK (2.6)

Parameters for this section are the "A" input-output matrix and its inverse. The matrices have the following structure:

	Agriculture	Industry	
Y 1			
Agriculture	A <sub>11</sub>	A <sub>12</sub>	
Industry	A <sub>21</sub>	A <sub>22</sub>	

In the equations, numbers in parentheses denote the cells of the matrix.  $^{*}\!\!$  "I" denotes the inverse of the matrix.  $^{*}\!\!$ 

Where a variable has been defined in an immediately preceeding section, the definition will not always be repeated.

Computed Values:	Z(1)	Gross output, agricultural sector	
	Z(2)	Gross output, non-agricultural sector	
	U(1)	Intermediate demand, agricultural sector	
	Ŭ(2)	Intermediate demand, non-agricultural sector	
	UA	Intermediate demand, from agriculture	
	UAF	Total expenditures on fertilizer and related prod factors	uctive
	UAFK	Coefficient, expenditures on fertilizer and relat productive factors	ed
(3)	Investme	nt	
	I = GI *	YNA * SYSYNA	(3.1)
	SYSYNA =	Y/YNA	(3.2)
	IAS = (I	AKS - IAK) * I	(3.3)
	IAS = (I	AS, 0.0)	(3.4)
	IA = IAK	* I + K1 * IAS	(3.5)
	SUAF = U.	AS + (1 - K1) * IAS	(3.6)
	INA = I	- IA	(3.7)
	IR = I *	IRK	(3.8)
	IMN = I	- IR	(3.9)
	IAP = IAI	bk * IV	(3.10)
	IALV = L	AVK * IA	(3.11)

Parameters:

Total investment, coefficient

IALD = IA - IAP - IALV

GI

IAKS Shift of Investment of agricultural sector (Scenario Variable)

(3.12)

	IAK	Investment in agricultural sector, coefficient
	K1	Fraction of investment to agricultural capital stock (Scenario Variable)
	IRK	Investment, regional, coefficient
	IAPK	Investment in agricultural production, coefficient (Scenario Variable)
	LALVK	Investment in livestock, coefficient (Scenario Variable)
Computed Values:	I	Total investment
	YNA	Regional product, non-agricultural sector
	SYSYNA	Ratio of GRP to regional product, non-argicultural sector
	IAS	Amount of investment shifted from agricultural sector to non-agricultural sector
	IÅ	Investment, agricultural sector
	SUAF	Total expenditures on fertilizer and related productive factors (equivalent to UAF)
	INA	Investment, non-agricultural sector
	IR	Regional investment
	IMN	Imports of investment capital needed
	IAP	Investment in non-land agricultural capital stock
	LALV	Investment in livestock development
	IALD	Investment in land development

Four important scenario variables appear in the equations of this section, IAKS, K1, IAPK and IALVK. Through the mechanism defined in equations 3.3 - 3.6, IAKS will override the historically based value for the fraction of investment in agriculture, IAK, and shift additional investment from non-agricultural to agricultural uses: The value of K1 divides

the additional resources made available between capital development and a subsidy program to promote greater use of fertilizer and related inputs. IAPK and IALVK allocate agricultural capital development funds to alternative uses.

The investment allocation IALD is an input to the land use submodel. IAP and IALV are inputs to the food production submodel. The equations for regional investment and investment needs (3.7 and 3.8) define indicators which do not presently affect the model dynamics.

## (4) Consumption, Governmental Expenditure, Imports

$$C = GC * Y (4.1)$$

$$G = GG * Y$$
 (4.2)

$$M = GM * Y (4.3)$$

$$MA = MAK * M$$
 (4.4)

 $10 \quad MI = M - MA$ 

GO TO 12

MI = IMN

CONTINUE

MC = M - MA - MI

MC = MAX (MC,0,0)

Here we have made a rare exception in our notation and used the FORTRAN "IF" statement to depict the model structure.

Parameters:	GC	Consumption, coefficient
	GG	Government expenditures, coefficient
	GM	Imports, coefficient
8	MAK	Agricultural imports, coefficient
Computed Values:	С	Consumption
	G	Governmental expenditures
	М	Imports
	MA	Imports, agriculture
	IMN	Imports needed
	MC	Imports for consumption
	MI	Imports, investment

The reader will note that only imports, consumption, government expenditure and investment - not exports - have been considered in the demand equations. Exports are considered, but in a way which does not affect the dynamics of the economic submodel. For further discussion, see the section below dealing with the export sector.

## 2.3. The Land Use Submodel

# (1) Cultivated Land

$$CLGR_{t} = CLGR_{t-1} + CLDGR - CLWGR$$
 (1.1)

$$CLNG = TA + TB * CLGR$$
 (1.2)

$$CL = CLGR + CLNG$$
 (1.3)

Parameters: TA Subscript of linear equation relating grain land to non-

grain land

TB Slope of linear equation relating grain land to non-

grain land

Computed Values: CLGR Cultivated land, grain

CLDGR Cultivated land development, grain

CLWGR Cultivated land withdrawal, grain

CLNG Cultivated land, non-grain

CL Cultivated land

## (2) Livestock Land

$$GL = GLM - GLW$$
 (2.1)

$$TLLS = GL + CLR (2.2)$$

$$CLR = TLM * (CLM/TLM) - CL - CLW$$
 (2.3)

Parameters: GLM Maximum grazing land

TLM Maximum total land (includes grazing land and cultivable

land)

CLM Maximum cultivable land

Computed Values: GL Grazing land

GLW Grazing land withdrawn for urbanization and economic

development

TLLS Total land for livestock support

CLR Cultivable land remaining

(3)	Withdraw	al of Land for Urban and Economic Development	
	TLWR = T	LW/TLM	(3.1)
	TLWM = T	LIMF (TLWR)	(3.2)
	TLAW = (	BABIES - DN(0))	(3.3)
	CLAW = T	LAW * (CLM/TLM)	(3.4)
	CLW = TL	w * (CLM/TLM)	(3.5)
	GLW = TL	W - CLW	(3.6)
	$TLW_t = T$	LW <sub>t-1</sub> + TLAW	(3.7)
	FCLR = C	L/(TLM * (CLM/TLM) - CLW)	(3.8)
Parameters:	TLM	Maximum total land (includes grazing land and culland	livable
	TLWPCB	Per capita land withdrawal, base value	
	CLM	Maximum cultivable land	
Computed Values:	TLWR	Ratio of land withdrawn to maximum total land	
	TLW	Total land withdrawn for urbanization and econom development	ic
	TLWM	Land withdrawal multiplier	
	TLAW	Annual withdrawal of land for urbanization and e development	conomic
	BABIES	Number of live births	
	DN(0)	Infant mortality	
	CLAW	Annual withdrawal of cultivated land	
	CLW	Total cultivable land withdrawn	
	GLW	Grazing land withdrawn	
	FCLR	Fraction of cultivated land remaining	

Through a coupling with the population model (equation 2.3), the equations in this section take into account the urbanization of land due to population growth. TLWPCB is the withdrawal rate per capita for the initial year of the run. This value is adjusted by the multiplier TLWM to allow for increasing population density as the amount of available land decreases (equation 2.3). The shape of the nonlinear function TLWMF will vary somewhat from region to region.

It is assumed that much of the land withdrawn for urbanization will be cultivable or grazing land. A second assumption is that friction of TLAW withdrawn, respectively, from cultivated and grazing land will be determined by the ratio CLM/TLM.

## (4) Development of Cultivated Land

$$CLD = IALD/KCLDH (4.1)$$

$$CLDNG = CLD * CLNG/CL$$
 (4.2)

$$CLDGR = CLD * CLGR/CL$$
 (4.3)

Computed Values: CLD Cultivated Land developed

IALD Investment in land development

KCLDH Capital cost of land development per hectare

CLDNG Cultivated land developed, non-grain

CL Cultivated land

CLDGR Cultivated land developed, grain

Coupling between tha land use and economic submodels occurs through IALD in equation 4.1. KCLDH is computed in the pricing mechanism as a non-linear function of FCLR.

# 2.4. The Food Production Submodel

KAPH

(1)	Crop Production	
	PMCI = PMCIF (YNAPC)	(1.1)
	KAPH = KA/CL	(1.2)
	PTFC = PTFCF (KAPH)	(1.3)
	FA = PMCI + PTFC	(1.4)
	ZPHG = TPF * GZPHK/CLGR	(1.5)
	TPF = UAF/PXPF	(1.6)
	TEMP = FA - FB	(1.7)
	GRPH = FA - TEMP * EXPF (-FC/TEMP * ZPHG)	(1.8)
	GRGP = CLGR * GRPH	(1.9)
	NGGP = FD + FE * GRGP	(1.10)

Parameters:	FB	Minimum level for grain productivity, constant
	FC	Slope of grain productivity curve at minimum level, constant
	FD	Intercept of linear equation in which production of non- grain crops per hectare is calculated as a function of the production of grain crops
	FE	Slope of linera equation in which non-grain production is calculated as a function of the production of grain crops
Computed Values:	PMCI	Productivity coefficient from infrastructure
	YNAPC	Regional product, non-agricultural, per capita

Agricultural capital, per hectare

KA	Agricultural capital
CL	Cultivated land
PTFC	Productivity coefficient from capital investment
ZPHG	Use, per hectare, of fertilizer and related productive factors
TPF	Total use of fertilizer and related productive factors
GZPHK	Coefficient, fraction of fertilizer and other productive factors devoted to grain production
CLGR	Cultivated land, grain
UAF	Expenditures for fertilizer and related productive factors
PXPF	Price of fertilizer and related productive factors
TEMP	Intermediate value used in computation of productivity
GRPH	Grain production per hectare
FA	Saturation level for grain production
GRGP	Gross production, grain crops
NGGP	Gross production, non-grain crops

The crop production sector is obviously one of the most important in the entire model, especially when the capability of potentially food-deficient regions (such as South Asia) to meet future needs is being considered. Five variables - CLGR, YNAPC, KAPH, UAF and PXPC - link the food production model to other strata. They are also the principal determinants of productivity.

Productivity per hectare (equation 1.8) is calculated as a saturating exponential function of fertilizer and other factor inputs.  $^{\star}$  FB and FC are

<sup>\*</sup>Fertilizer is viewed as an index of other technological inputs contributing to productivity. See Clapham and Warshaw [1974].

regionally specific parameters denoting, respectively, the yield if no inputs are provided, and the initial slope of the curve defined by equation 1.8.

For computing forecasts based on an extrapolation of present trends, it might be adequate to let fertilizer use serve as an index for <u>all</u> relevant inputs. However, designing an integrated model to be used for scenario analysis requires that sensitivity to different mixes of productive inputs be incorporated. This approach, moreover, is quite consistent with recent experience gained in foreign aid and technical assistance programs. Both aid giving and recipient nations have discovered, to their sorrow, that a miz of inputs which is inappropriate to a particular region will produce far less than the anticipated results.

The approach used here is not presented as a complete solution to the problem - obviously it is only a beginning. ZPHG is used an indicator of consumerable productive inputs. We have in mind, primarily, fertilizer, seed and pesticides. This variable is a direct input to equation 1.8 and determines productivity per hectare given the constraints defined by the values of FA, FB and FC. The two other productive factors taken into account are, first, capitalization and capital infrastructure of the agricultural sector and second, the overall regional level of economic

<sup>\*</sup>Robert Evenson's recent work on factor productivity in India [Evenson, 1972; Mohan and Evenson, 1973; Evenson and Kislev, 1973] is an example of the more detailed work at the national and subnational level which must be undertaken to fully elaborate this component of the model.

development. The first variable, KAPH, agricultural capital stock per hectare, is used as an indicator which is intended to take into account concrete factors such as tools, machinery and irrigation systems, and more intangible ones such as research and extension. \*\* Clearly these factors at, at least to some degree, independent of the level of consumerable inputs. (Compare, for instance, the agricultural systems of Japan and the United States.)

The second variable- PCMI, takes into account more diffuse characteristics of the social and economic infrastructure, such as transportation systems, communication systems, the overall level of education, etc. The assumption is made that these factors, aggregated additively, affect the threshold of maximum productivity, FA, in equation 1.8. The specific functional relationships, PMCIF and PTFCF, defined for Regions 1 and 9, will be discussed in Section 5, below.

## (2) Livestock Production

## (2.1) Livestock "On the Hoof"

SLYMA = RLLVS \* TLLS 
$$(2.1.1)$$

$$SLVA = SLV(2) * SLVK(2) + SLV(4) + SLV(5) + SLV(9)$$
 (2.1.2)

<sup>\*</sup>Ideally, only that portion of agricultural capital stock devoted to productive factors other than livestock and land should be used. Eventually KAPH will be broken down in this way to compute PTFC. At the present stage of our work, however, we feel that this approach would reflect a level of detail not justified by the available data.

<sup>\*\*</sup> For an analysis of the contribution of research and extension to productivity, see Evenson and Kislev [1973].

SLVAR = SLVA/SLVMA

(2.1.3)

	LVPLM = 1	KLVPLMF (SLVAR)	(2.1.4)
	UALV(J)	= IALV * SLV(J) * SLVK(J)/SLVA J=1,, 9	(2.1.5)
		= $UALV(J)/LVPL(J)$ $J = 1,, 9$	(2.1.6)
		$= SLV(J)_{t-1} + ALXI(J) \qquad J = 1, \dots, 9$	(2.1.7)
(2.2	) Produc	tion of Meat and Livestock Products	
	SLVP(J)	= $SLV(J) * SLVMK(J)/1000.0$ J = 1,, 9	(2.2.1)
	SLVP(J)	= $SLV(9) * SLVMK(J)/1000.0$ J = 1,, 9	(2.2.2)
Parameters:	SLVK(J)	Coefficient to correct individual categories of 1 for purposes of aggregating to a single base unit	ivestock
	RLLVS	Land livestock support rate	
	SLVMK(J)	Meat from livestock coefficient**	
Computed Values:	SLVMA	Total livestock supportable on available grazing	land
	TLLS	Total land for livestock support	
	SLVA	Total livestock in animal units	
	SLVAR	Total livestock, animal use ratio	
	LVPIM	Livestock, price-land multiplier	

<sup>\*</sup>The types of livestock considered are cattle, pigs, sheep and goats, horses, other large animals (mules, asses, buffalos, camels), chickens, all poultry and dairy animals.

The types of animal food considered in the model are beef and veal, pork, lamb and mutton, horsemeat, other meat, eggs, poultry ,eat, milk, cheese and butter. Production of honey is also included.

UALV(J)	Investment in additional livestock, by type
IALV(J)	Investment in livestock, by livestock categories
LVPL(J)	Development capital cost per livestock unit
SLV(J)	Total livestock, by type
SLVMK(J)	Meat from livestock, coefficient, by type

TILS, TALV and LVPL are the variables by which the livestock sector is coupled to other parts of the model. The calculation of TLLS in the land use submodel and IALV in the economic submodel have already been discussed. The value of LVPL os computed in the price sector and is dependent on whether or not the carrying capacity of the available livestock land, TLLS, has been exceeded. So long as the total number of animals is below the carrying capacity, development coasts are low. But when the capacity is exceeded, necessitating a more capital intensive system of livestock production, development coasts escalate rapidly.

# (3) Fish Production

AWFM = FWCM * AWFMK	(3.1)
AUFWP = UFWP * WB	(3.2)
FWCP = UFWP * UFWPK	(3.3)
FWCT = FWCM + FWCP	(3.4)
FWT = FWCT * FWCNTK	(3.5)
SFWCM = MINIF (FWCM + AFWM, FWMM)	(3.6)
SUFWP = MINLF (UFWP + AUFWP, UFWPM)	(3.7)

Parameters:	AWFMK	Growth rate of marine fish production
	WB	Fish pond growth rate
	UFWPK	Relationship between land use and pond fish
	FWCM	Catch of marine fish
	FWCNTK	Meat from fish, coefficient
	UFWP	Land in pond culture

The fish production model has bot been fully coupled to the economic model on the input side. Instead, fish production is sensitive to the within stratum scenario variables, AWFMK and UFWPK.

# (4) Production of Crop Food Types and Distribution of Food to Alternative Uses

PLGP(J) = NGGP * NGGPK(J)	J = 14,, 21	(4.1)
PLGP(J) = GRGP * GRGPK(J)	J = 22,, 26	(4.2)*
SFT(J) = FGP(J) * SPFTK(J)		(4.3)
FTS(J) = FCP(J)		(4.4)
LSFT(J) = LSFTK(J) * FTS(J)		(4.5)
FTG(J) = FFTK(J) * FTS(J)		(4.6)
FIN(J) = FIG(J) * (1.0 - HMLF)	(J))	(4.7)**

<sup>\*</sup>Equation 4.1 computes production of non-grain crops, while equation 4.2 computes production of grain crops. Categories of non-grain crops taken into account in the model are sugars, starches, root crops, vegetables, pulses, fruits, oil crops, drinks and stimulants and fibres. Grain crop categories are wheat, maize, sorghum, rice and other cereals.

<sup>\*\*</sup>In equations 4.3-4.7, J = 1, ..., 26.

Parameters:	NGGPK(J)	Coefficient which disaggreg duction into 7 categories	ates non-grain crop	pro-
	GRGPK(J)	Coefficient which disaggreg into 5 categories	ates grain crop prod	uction
	SPFTK(J)	Withdrawals for seed, by ca	tegory	
	LSFTK(J)	Withdrawals for livestock f	ood, by category	
	FFTK(J)	Total human food supply, co	efficient by type	
	HMLF(J)	Household and market losses	, by type	
Computed Values:	SFT(J)	Seed food total, by categor	у	
	FGP(J)	Gross regional food product	ion, by category	
	FTS(J)	Gross food supply, by type		
	LSFT(J)	Livestock food total, by ty	pe	
	FTG(J)	Gross human food supply, by	type	
	FIN(J)	Net human food supply, by ty	/pe	
2.5. <u>Regi</u>	onal Food S	upply Compared with Populatio	on Needs	
(1)	Supply*			
	FJRPC(J) = FIN(J)/POP * 1000   J = 1, 26		J = 1, 26	(1.1)
	VCLPCR(J) = FSRPC(J) * CLK(J)   J = 1, 26		J = 1, 26	(1.2)
	VPTPCR(J) = FSRPC(J) * PTK(J)   J = 1, 26		J = 1, 26	(1.3)
	$CLPCR = \sum_{\mathbf{J}=1}^{20}$	VCLPCR(J)		(1.4)
	$PTPCR = \sum_{\Sigma}^{20}$	6 VPTPCR(J)		(1.5)

Where it appears in this section, the 1000 is simply a scaling factor.

		3 VCLPCR(J) 1	(1.6)
	PTAR = PTAP	CR * POP/1000.0	(1.7)
Parameters:	CLK(J)	Calorie content coefficient, by category	
	PTK(J)	Protein content, coefficient	
Computed Values:	FSRPC(J)	Regionally produced food, by category	
	POP	Population	
	VCLPCR(J)	Calories per capita, regional, by category	
	VPTPCR(J)	Protein per capita, regional, by category	
	CLPCR	Calories, per capita, regional	
	PTPCR	Protein per capita, regional	
	PTAPCR	Annual protein per capita, regional	
(2)	Comparison	with Needs	
	PTNM = PTK	F (YPC)	(2.1)
	PTPCN = FT	PCB * PTNM	(2.2)
	SPTPC = MA	X (PTPCR - PCPCN, 0.0)	(2.3)
	DPTPC = MA	X (PTPCN - PTPCR, 0.0)	(2.4)
	PTPCSN = P	TPCR/PTPCN	(2.5)
	PIN = PIPC	N * POP/1000.0	(2.6)
	PTR = PTPC	R * POP/1000.0	(2.7)
	DPT = DPTP	C * POP/1000.0	(2.8)
	PTPCDR = P	TPCR/365.0	(2.9)

Computed Values: PTNM Protein needs multiplier

PTPCB Protein per capita base

YPC Gross regional product, per capita

PTPCN Protein per captia needed

SPTPC Per capita protein surplus

DPTPC Per capita protein deficit

PTPCN Protein per capita, ratio of supply to needs

PTN Total protein needs

PTR Regional protein

DPT Regional protein deficit

PTPCDR Regional daily protein per capita

As noted in Section 1.2.2. above, PTPCN is defined independently of the starvation level, PRONCR, in the population model. Equations in this section are used to compute import needs and export surplusses, but otherwise have no effect on the overall model dynamics. The principal function of this section is to provide indicators for scenario analysis.

## 2.6. The Pricing Mechanism

## (1) Prices

$$PXLVP = PXLV * PXLVK * PXK$$
 (1.1)

$$GRV = GRGP * PXGR * PXK$$
 (1.2)

$$NGV = NGGP * PXNG * PXK$$
 (1.3)

$$SLVV = \sum_{J=1}^{5} SLVP(J)$$
 (1.4)

## B 600

LVV = SLVV \* PXLVP

FSV = FWT \* PXFS \* PXK

(1.5)

(1.6)

(1.7)

(1.8) (1.9)

	YA = GRV + NGV + LVV + FSV		
	YAPC = YA/POP		
	PXPTM <sub>t</sub> =	PXPTM <sub>t-1</sub> * (1.0 + RPXPTM)	
Parameters:	PXLV	Base price of meat	
	PXLVK	Meat price coefficient	
	PXK	Price coefficient	
	PXGR	Price of grain	
	PXNG	Price of non-grain crops	
	PXFS	Price of fish	
	RPXPIM	Rate of change, protein imports	
Computed Values:	PXLVP	Adjusted price of meat	
	GRV	Dollar value, grain production	
	GRGP	Gross grain production	
	NGV	Dollar value, non-grain production	
	NGGP	Gross production, non-grain crops	
	SLVV	Total livestock meat production	
	SLVP	Meat production from livestock, by category	
	LVV	Dollar value, livestock production	
	FSV	Dollar value, fish production	
	FWT	Total fish meat production	
	YA	Gross regional product, agriculture	
	YAPC	Gross regional product, per capita	
	PXPTM	Price of protein imports	

The structure of this section is straightforward and requires little elaboration. Prices are defined for each category. The value of production is the product of prices and production. The price coefficients PXK and PXLVK have been added to allow experimentation with the model.

## (2) Cases

$$PXPF_{+} = PXPF_{+-1} * (1.0 + RPXPF)$$
 (2.1)

$$TPF = UAF/PXPF (2.2)$$

$$LVPL(J) = PXLVB(J) * LVPLM J = 1, ..., 9 (2.3)$$

$$KCLDH = XKLDF (FCLR)$$
 (2.4)

Parameters: RPXPF Rate of price increase, productive factors

PXLVB(J) Livestock price, base value, by category

Computed Values: PXPF Price of productive factors

TPF Total productive factors

UAF Expenditures on productive factors

LVPL(J) Development costs, livestock, by category

LVPIM Livestock price land multiplier

KCLDH Capital cost, land develop per hectare

FCLR Fraction of cultivated land remaining

In this section, the rate of price increase for productive factors is a scenario variable (equation 2.1). Since all monetary values are in 1963 constant dollars, inflation is not taken into account. But scenarios involving relative price increases (or decreases) can be examined.

As noted in the discussion above, both the price of land and livestock development costs are sensitive to hortages of land.

## 2.7. Energy Consumption

$$ENZ = TPF * ENZPLK$$
 (1)

$$ENFZR = CLPCR * POP/ENZ/1000.0$$
 (2)

Parameters ENZPLK Energy requirements, coefficient

Computed Values: ENZ Energy required for plant food production

CLPCR Calories per capita, regional

ENFZR Ratio of energy in food produced to that required for

plant food production

This section will assume increased importance when the integrated food model is coupled with the energy model which has been developed for the Multilevels Regionalized World Modeling Project.

## 2.8. The Import Sector

FDMV = DPT * PXPTM	(1)
FIMAR = FDMV/YA	(2)

$$FDMYR = FDMV/Y$$
 (3)

 $FDMR = FDMV/M \tag{4}$ 

Computed Values: FDMV Dollar value of food imports

FIMAR Ratio of food imports to agricultural production

FDMYR Ratio of food imports to total GRP

FDMMR Ratio of food imports to total imports

## 2.9. The Export Sector

FDXV = YA * (SPT/PTR)	(1)
FDXAR = FDXV/YA	(2)
FDXYR = FDXV/Y	(3)
FDXXR = FDXV/X	(4)
FDX9YR = FDXV9/Y	(5)
FDX9AR = FDXV9/YA	(6)
PTX9RR = PTX9/PTR	(7)
PTX9SR = PTX9/SPT	(8)

Parameters: FDXV9 Value of food exported from Region 1 to Region 9

Computed Values: FDXV Value of exports

SPT Surplus protein

PTR Regionally produced protein

This sector couples Region 1 and Region 9. It has been used in the "foreign aid" scenario discussed below. FDXV9 may be coupled on line (under the assumption that all Region 9 food needs are met by Region 1, or it may be implemented as a scenario variable).

The variables calculated in equations 3 - 8 are indicators. Since they are all ratios, their definition should be evident from the equations. Hence, written definitions have not been provided.

## 3. Parameters and Functional Relationships

Because many of the parameters and functional relationships in the model are region specific, discussion of this component of the model has been separated from the equations. The parameters presented are "base run" parameters for Regions 9 and 1, which have been the focus of our scenario analysis. Results from sensitivity analysis in which many of these parameter values have been varied reported in section 4, below.

Some of the parameters in the population and food models (such as the coefficients for individual food types) which are discussed in other reports, have not been reported here. Omission reflected the author's belief that inclusion would not be of any particular value in aiding the reader to understand the structure of the world model of importance for food policy analysis.

The division of equations and parameters into two sections has not been made for convenience alone. It reflects our judgment as to the relative importance of the two components of the model. We are quite confident about the overall model structure. On the other hand, while we have exercised care and used the best available data to estimate parameters and functional relationships, it is probable that further investigation will reveal the need for some changes. Whether such changes will significantly affect the model's behavior can, of course, only be determined by sensitivity analysis similar to that discussed in Section 6.

# 3.1 The Population Submodel

(Births)

Region 9	Region 1
FERT = TIME SERIES:	*
(Deaths)	
MORT = 28/1000 Pop.	*
(Effects of protein starvation on mortality)	
PRODST = .7	*
TIMLAG = 1.0	*
PRONOL = 44.0 GM/DAY	*
PROD = 25.0 GM/DAY	*
EO = 1.0	*
EL = .25	*
EA = 10.0	*

Since detailed results on Region 1 population were not of interest, a simple growth modwl was substituted for the population model. A population growth rate of .01 per year was assumed.

If the data source or justification for a particular parameter value is not presented here, it will be found in the technical report describing the submodel in which the parameter appears.

## 3.2 The Economic Submodel

1-1	
(1)	Production

	Region 9	Region 1	
KA <sub>1975</sub>	39.5	186.0	(Billion \$)
KNA <sub>1975</sub>	225.5	2219.0	
DA	.055	.055	
DNA	.0285	.0285	
QNA	2.49	2.858	

## (2) Gross Outputs and Intermediate Demand

## A MATRIX - Region 9

	Agriculture	Industry
Agriculture	.2024	.055
Industry	.069	.2898

# A MATRIX - Region 9

	Agriculture	Industry
Agriculture	.4379	.0091
Industry	.2121	.4166

# (3) Investment

5	Region 9	Region 1
GI	.1286	.1703
IAKS	0.0	0.0
IAK	.15	.042
IRK	.30	.90
IAPK	.50	.50
IALVK	.05	.08

(4)	Consumption,	Government	Expenditure,	Imports
		Region 9	Rej	gion 1
GC		.7599		6436
GG		.10		.10
GM		.1249		.0664
MAK		.1736	0	.0

# 3.3 The Land Use Submodel

# 3.3.1 Parameters

# (1) Cultivated Land

	Region 9	Region 1
CLGR <sub>1975</sub>	171.844	68.5156
TA	-48.6982	29.1987
ТВ	.7969	.0204

### (2) Livestock Land

	Region 9	Region 1
GLM	287.813	444.445
TLM	565.0	836.0
CLM	278.0	391.5

### (3) Withdrawal of Land For Urban and Economic Development

	Region 9	Region 1
LM	565.0	836.0
LM	278.0	391.5
LWPCB	.5	.001

### 3.3.2 Functions

### (1) TLWM = TLWMF(TLWR)

The land withdrawal multiplier in conjunction with the parameter, per capita land withdrawal, base value (TLWFCB) takes into account the effects of population growth and, indirectly, economic growth or land use. Data is not at all satisfactory for either region; however, agricultural output is not particularly sensitive to variations in TLWBCP within reasonable limits in either region.

A recent survey by the Council on Environmental Quality (Fig. 3-1), based on data compiled by the Economic Research Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (1972), shows little change in broad land use patterns. Even when unreasonable assumptions about land development are made, availability of land is not a constraint on agricultural production

# Land Utilization, 48 States, 1900-1969

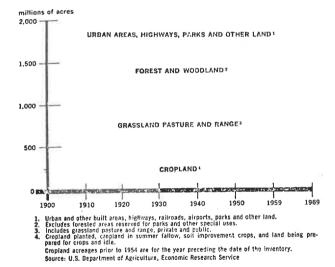
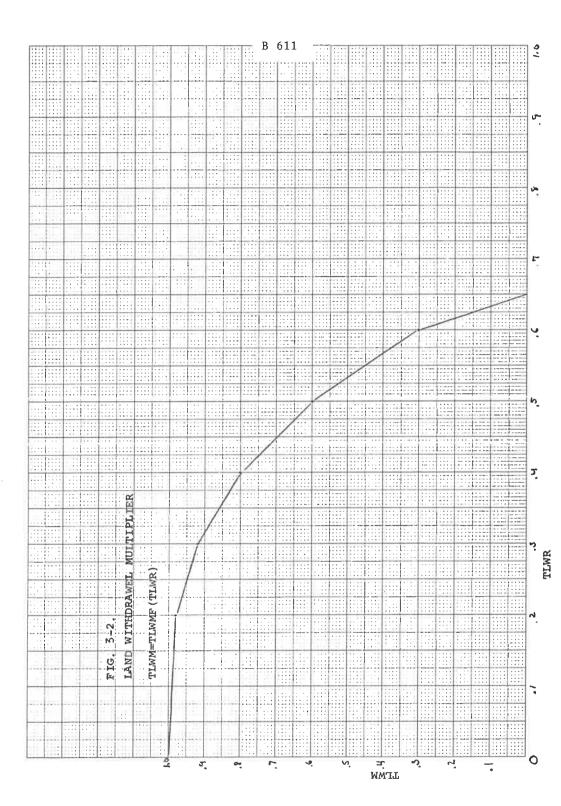


Figure 3-1



in North America. TLMMF is defined in Figure 5-2. It is a rough, but reasonable, estimate according to theland use information in our data base. Because of the relative unimportance of the withdrawal phenomena during the period of our scenario, we have not tried to define it further.

In Region 9, we have assumed that, despite the high levels of population growth, withdrawal would be very low. Of course, land availability is a severe constraint on agricultural productivity, and if an estimate is over-optimistic, forecasts of productivity in South Asia would have to be revised downward.

# 3.4 The Food Production Submodel

# 3.4.1 Crop Production

#### (1) Parameters

	Region 9	Region 1
FB	.919983	1.0
FC	.0238991	.0229
FD	-66.1973	-15.0
FE	1.71991	.615

### (2) Functions

PMCI = PMCIF (YNAPC)

PTFC = PTFCF(KAPH)

Recall that PMCI and PTFC combine additively and define a coefficient, FA, which is the productivity saturation level in the equation

where:

FB is the intercept,

FC is the slope at the intercept, and

TEMP = FA-FB.

It was assumed, for reasons discussed above, that the two factors would affect FA, the cumulative effects of direct investment in the agricultural sector (agricultural capital stock, KNA) and the overall level of economic development (measured by YNAPC).

While this was consistent with the relevant literature, we did not feel that it would be appropriate to attempt development of a precise estimation procedure at this time. Rather, we decided to treat the components of FA as scenario variables, but in a special way - by imputing the development characteristics of more developed regions, for which data was available, to Region 9. The version of the function used for the scenario and sensitivity runs presented here uses the United States as the prototype. Log-linear was selected as the appropriate functional form and the slope of the function was determined by the following values (based on 1970 values). The functions are graphed in

 $KAPH_1 = $463$   $GRAIN PROD_1 = 2.939$   $KAPH_9 = $56.70$   $GRAIN PROD_0 = 1.35$ 

The assumption was made that the effects of the overall level of economic development was about one-third that of the capital stock in the agricultural sector.

We are aware that there is wide diversity in agricultural productivity in South Asia. As much as seven tons per hectare of rice has been produced on some experimental plots in the Philippines. But we feel that, if anything, our projection of potential productivity for the region is optimistic. Possibly productivity may be much less.

It should, perhaps, be emphasized again that the actual level of productivity is not determined by FA, but by the inputs of productive factors. In no instance during our scenario runs does this threshold act as a direct constraint. But it does affect productivity indirectly.

Clapham and Warshaw [1974] have fitted the curve described in equation 1 to data from 1948 to 1970 for all ten regions of the world. Examination of their results is most helpful in gaining a more complete understanding of the assumptions presented here.

# Region 1

In Region 1, it is assumed that the overall level of economic development is so high that it would have no further effects. Hence,

values for PMCI are not defined. A graph of PTFC is found in Figure 5-5. In "fits" for historical data by Clapham and Warshaw for the region, FA was defined at a level of about 8. The assumption that ten times present capitalization would produce that threshold was a very rough estimate. However, it should be noted that in our scenario analyses, it is land, rather than increased capitalization, which produces increased productivity. For the result reported thus far, values of this function never fall within what we would regard as the dubious range.

### 3.4.2 Livestock Production

### (1) Parameters

	Region 9	Region 1
RLLVS	87.7129	1.16675

### (2) Functions

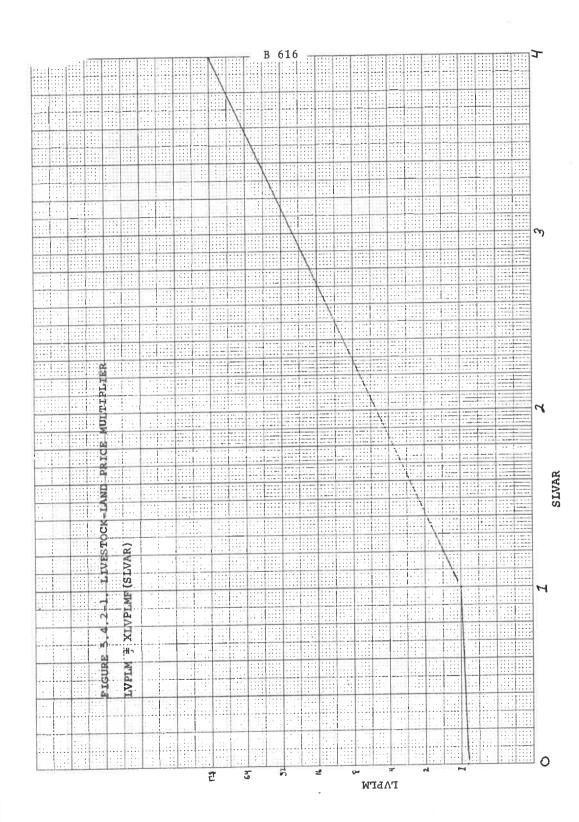
LVPLM = XLVPLMF(SLVAR)

Wheat

SLVAR = SLVA/SLVMA

SLVMA = RLLVS \* TLLS

There are two critical parameters in this mechanism, RLLVS, the carrying capacity of land and PXLVB the development cost for livestock. RLLVS is a region specific parameter from the food model. PXLVB was computed by dividing the capital stock in livestock in 1970 by the number of livestock. Comparisons with market prices indicated that the figure obtained in this way was reasonable.



The function, which is assumed to be applicable to both regions 1 and 9 (remember that the base prices and carrying capacities differ has little effect so long as livestock numbers are below the maximum. But as the value of SLVAR exceeds 1, development costs increase rapidly. (Fig. 3.4.2-1).

This function does not have any significant effect on food production during the period examined. In Region 1 the livestock numbers are far below carrying capacity. In Region 9 livestock is an insignificant component of total food.

### 3.4.3 Fish Production

### (1) Parameters

	Region 9	Region 1
AFWMK	.0710	.0119
WB	.0010	0.0
UFWPK	2.074	.9632
FWOM	13.09	3.8731
FWCNTK	.4499	.4499
UFWP	.0011	.0011

# \$.4.4 Production of Crop Food Types and Distribution of Food to Alternative Uses

Parameters in this section are reported in Clapham and Warshaw (  $\,$  1974  $\,$  ).

# 3.5 Regional Food Supply Compared with Population Needs

Parameters in this section are reported in Clapham and Warshaw ( 1974 ).

# 3.6 The Pricing Mechanism

# (1) Parameters\*

	Region 9	Region 1
PXLV	1.50	1.50
PXLVK	1.0	1.0
PXK	1.0	1.0
PXGR	.114	.114
PXNG	.089	.089
PXFS	.89	.89
RPXPTM	0.0	0.0
PXPF <sub>1975</sub>	.149	.149

# (2) Functions

KCLDH = XKLDF (FCLR)

KCLDH = KCLDF(SCLR)

Prices are in thousands of dollars.

where

#### FCLR=CLR/CLM

### Region 9:

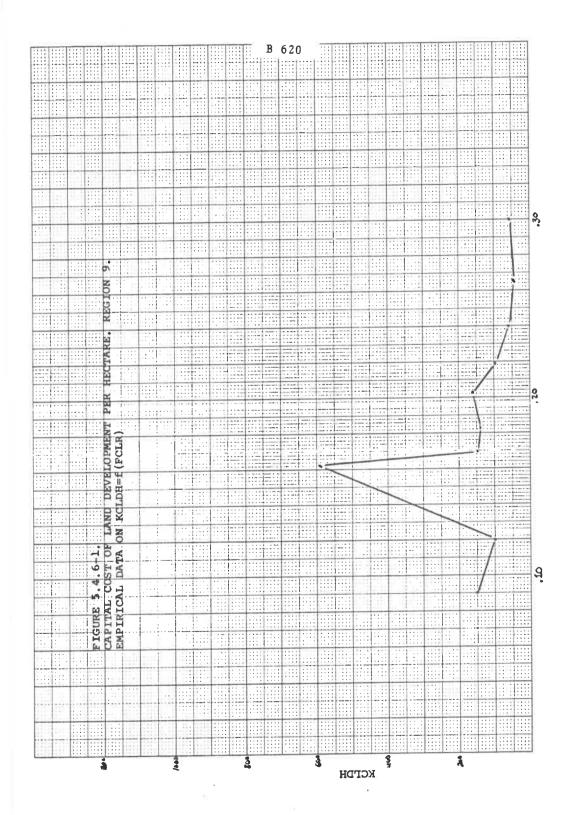
This function computes the costs of developing land, taking into account the decreasing amount of land available for development. It is based on the following assumptions.

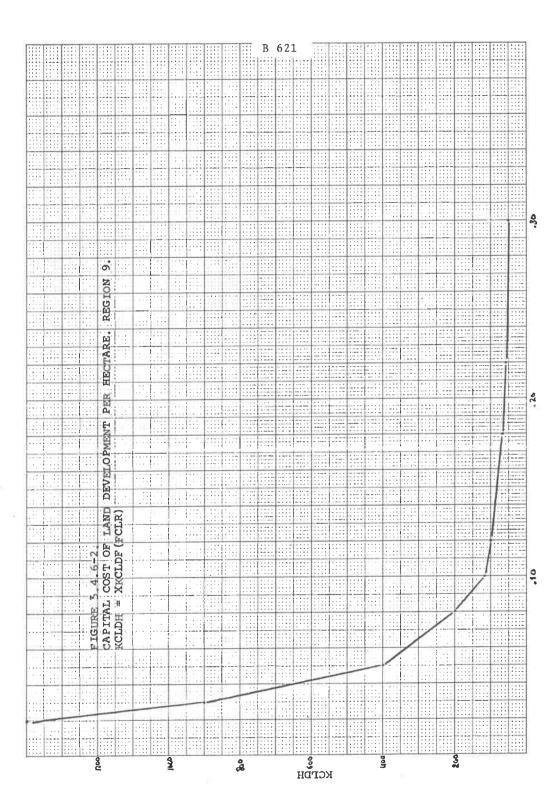
- (1) Agricultural capital formation = total capital formation\* .145. (Based on historical data).
- (2) Investment to non-land productive factors = .5 (based on inferences from historical data and some sketchy data).
  - (3) Investment to livestock = .05.
  - (4) Investment to land = .45 \* IA.

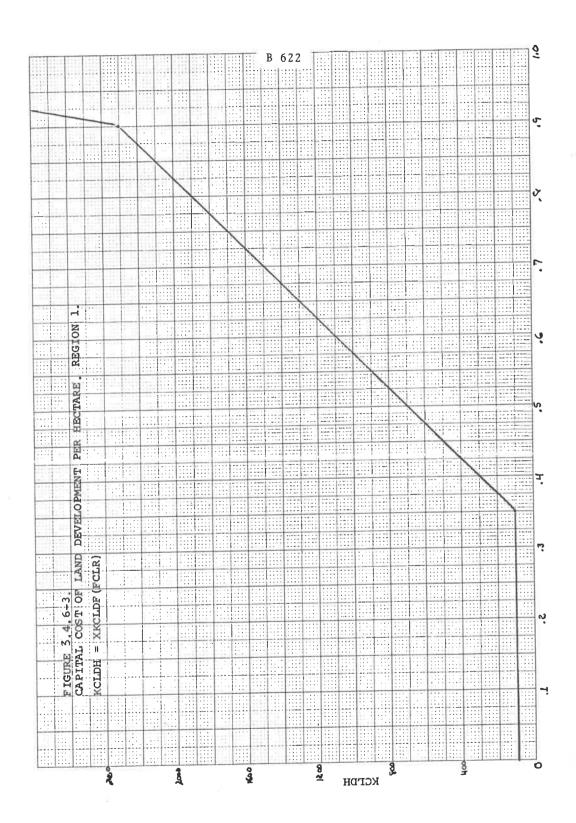
From these assumptions it was possible to estimate annual investments in land and compare them with annual data on total increase in cultivated land from the food data bank. (Fig. 3.4.6-1). From this the curve was smoothed and the remainder was estimated to ensure that prices would increase rapidly as the amount of land diminished. (Fig. 3.4.6-2).

### Region 1:

In this region, the shape of the function takes into account that a substantial amount has been removed from production as a result of U.S. government agricultural policies and can be brought back into production at relatively little cost. After that, there is a steady, linear increase in costs as the amount of land diminishes. (Fig. 3.4.6-3).







### 4. Sensitivity Analysis

In order to determine the errors which might be introduced by the inevitable inaccuracy in the parameters a most detailed sensitivity analysis is performed. The results of eighteen sensitivity analysis runs are reported in the full IIASA report. The complete listing of the runs is summarized in figures 4-1 and 4-2. The runs for South Asia focus on demographic variables. The runs for North America focus on economic and agricultural output.

Comparative data on five sets of runs for South Asia and six sets of runs for North America are reported there.

FIGURE 4-1

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RPXPF	.02						.015	.015 .040											
RPXK	.015		K.						.015	.040									
UAFK	.30										.10 .50	. 50							
PXGR	0.115												100	.130					
FAK	٥.														-1.0 1.0 5.0	1.0	5.0		
IAPK	.50																	m.	.7
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18. IAPK from .5 to 1.0 During Period FM 1975 to 2000.

FIGURE 4-2.
Region 1. Sensitivity Analysis

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	IAK	IAPK	TLWPCB	FAK	PXPF	RPXPF	RPXK	PXGR

W.B. Clapham Jr., M.S. Mesarovic, J.M. Richardson Jr., T. Shook, M.W. Warshaw

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3.	Conclusions	в 656
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### 1. Introduction

This paper examines alternative policies which might be implemented in the food deficient and food sufficient regions of the world to prevent the occurrence of deaths from starvation during the next fifty years. In addition, it examines, using scenario analysis, the possibilities for self-sufficiency in regions of the world where serious deficiencies are presently being forecast.

Potentially severe food deficiencies exist in two of the ten regions of the world, South Asia (Region 9) and Africa (Region 8). Parts of Latin America may also face deficiencies, if present trends continue. However, in our judgment, there is no comparison between the severity of the problems which are likely to be encountered in South Asia and those of other regions. Accordingly, it is to this region that we have devoted primary attention in preparing for this presentation.

There are four principal reasons why the problems of South Asia will, in our judgment, require particularly urgent attention during the next decade.

(1) First, the absolute number of additional people who will have to be fed, as a result of population growth, is relatively much greater.

Our model forecasts a population of more than 1.3 billion in 1975 (1.3075). By 1985, if present trends continue, an additional 380 million

will be added. If sufficient food were available, another 497 million persons would be added to the population of South Asia during the next decade.

(2) Second is the shortage of land, complicating the problem of increasing agricultural productivity.

There are about 278 million hectares of potentially arable land in South Asia. In 1965, 47 1/2 million remained uncultivated. According to our assessment, the comparable figure for 1975 will be about 16.7 million. By 1980, the amount of potentially arable, uncultivated land remaining in South Asia will be insignificant.

(3) A third reason for focusing on the problems of South Asia is that, paradoxically, it is in this region that a technologically intensive system of agricultural production is most needed, but it is also in this region that obstacles to the implementation of such a system are, perhaps, the most severe of anywhere in the world.

The total amount of agricultural capital stock, divided by the amount of cultivated land, provides a very rough indicator of the gap which separates the technologically intensive agriculture of North America and that of South Asia. For South Asia the figure is about \$150/hectare. For North America it is 12 times as great.

To capitalize agriculture in South Asia at a level equivalent to that of North America would require an investment of more than 400 billion dollars (in 1963 prices).

Moreover, this kind of aggregate comparison wholly ignores the problem of creating the social, educational and economic infrastructure necessary to support technologically intensive agriculture.

development in the region. We do not believe that it is possible for a technologically intensive system of agriculture to exist, except as part of a balanced economy. Our analysis suggests that substantial shifts of investment to meet short term food needs would, in the long run, significantly reduce the prospects for balanced economic growth. Moreover, it is our conclusion that without balanced economic growth in South Asia, agricultural self-sufficiency is impossible.

There are a number of problems and issues which can be examined using the integrated food policy analysis model. For this presentation we have focused on three issues which, in our judgment, are most pressing and crucial for South Asia and for the more affluent regions of the world which are potential sources of assistance.

(1) First, we have examined the possibilities that self-sufficiency can be achieved without significant outside aid, during the period from 1975 through 2020.

Our conclusion is that self-sufficiency is technically possible if a program of birth control can be implemented which would gradually reduce

crude birth rates from the present 42/1000 per year to 24/1000 by the year 2010. We doubt that any less than thirty five years will be necessary to achieve this objective; possibly this estimate is optimistic. Thirty more years will elapse before an equilibrium is reached.

Without outside assistance, however, the cost of this policy will be a severe increase in starvation, due to protein deficiency, during the period from 1987 to 2025.

Moreover, if policies are implemented within the region to relieve this starvation, by importing food or shifting investment to the agricultural sector, the resultant general economic decline will lead to starvation after 2020 with no real hope of attaining self-sufficiency.

(2) The second issue we have examined is the contribution which could be made by a program of foreign aid to the attainment of self-sufficiency.

From the perspective of potential aid-giving nations of the world, perhaps the most important conclusion to emerge from this analysis is that the period of aid could be finite in duration, if combined with the population control program discussed above.

(3) The third issue we have examined is the capabilities of a single developed region, comprising the United States and Canada, to provide the needed aid, assuming that no additional demands from the rest of the world were made.

### 2. Summary of Significant Results Based on Scenario Analysis

Our presentation of scenarios has been divided into two sections. In this section a summary of results from eight scenarios which appear to be of particular significance. The purpose of this is to define the magnitude of the problem and the scope of possible solutions without overwhelming the reader with the mass of detail which this type of analysis can generate. In Section 4, a complete set of detailed results from fifteen runs will be found. These will be helpful for analyzing the performance in particular strata or answering questions raised by the summary.

The first four scenarios summarized in this section assess the extent of the food supply prolem in South Asia and the capabilities of the region to help itself, without outside intervention. (Figure 3-16) &

First, we have projected historical trends in the region, to explore the extent of the potential starvation problem;

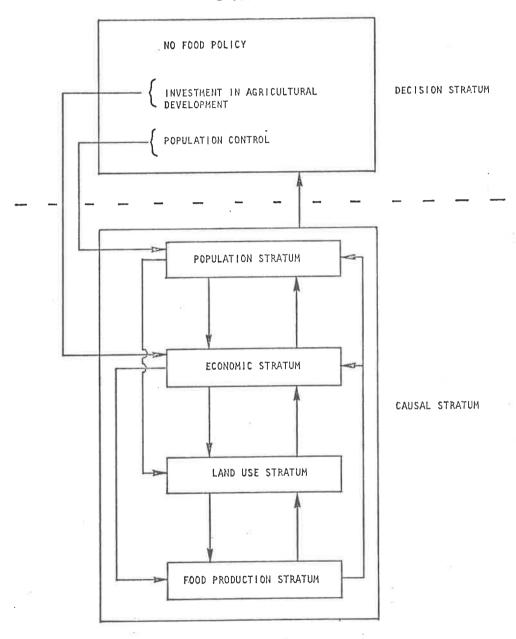
second, we have implemented a policy of agrarian development by shifting investment to the agricultural sector;

third, a population policy has been implemented to gradually limit births and achieve a state of equilibrium and

finally, the population and agrarian development policies have been cominged.

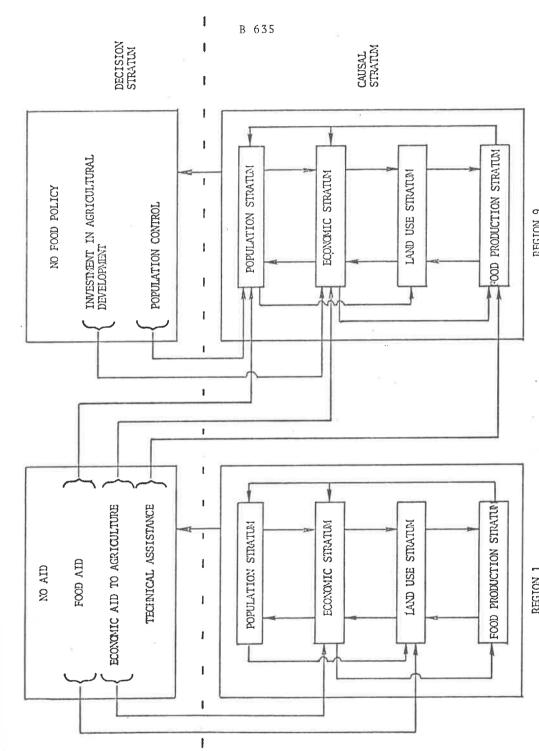
In the second four scenarios, the capabilities of one region, North

America to provide needed assistance to South Asia are assessed. (Figure 3-2).



Integrated Food Policy Analysis Model: Regional Policies

Figure 3-1.



REGION 1 Figure 3-2. Integrated Food Policy Analysis Model - Inter-Regional Cooperation

First, an historical trend for the region has been projected.

Second, we have assumed that no population policy is implemented in South Asia and examined the capabilities of North America to meet the resultant food needs.

Third, we have assumed that South Asia does implement a population policy and made an assessment of the capabilities of North America to meet the resultant food needs.

Finally, we have assessed the effects on the North American economy of building agricultural self-sufficiency in South Asia through an investment development assistance program.

Our conclusion is that such a program of aid is technically and economically feasible, but could not be effected without some reduction in the level of economic development, relative to the level which could be attained if such a program were not implemented.

We recognize, of course that there would be severe political problems involved in gaining support for such a program. Our analysis provides no basis at this time for determining whether or not those problems are soluble. However, our judgment is that the necessary program can only be implemented on a global basis, with the cooperation of all the developed food-sufficient nations of the world.

### Scenario 1. Historical Trends

In this scenario, we have assumed that the economic priorities of the last twenty years would prevail. Population control is not given major priority, but a modest policy is implemented over a fifty year period.

In figure 3.3 , the results of this scenario have been projected with the additional assumption that the food needed to meet the growing deficit is available from somewhere and, consequently that no starvation occurs. This allows a realistic picture of the total deficit to be presented. Over a fifty year period, with continued population growth, it would amount to more than 700,000,000 tons of protein. About ten times as much food would be needed to make up that deficit.

A more realistic picture of what would happen, since 70 trillion tons of food aid will not be forthcoming, is presented in figure 3.2. Regional daily per-capita protein supply is insufficient at the outset and falls sharply thereafter. When the supply falls below

the starvation level of 54 kg./day, in about 1985, starvation deaths, especially among children begin to occur with increasing frequency. We estimate that the additional starvation deaths would number about 500,000,000.

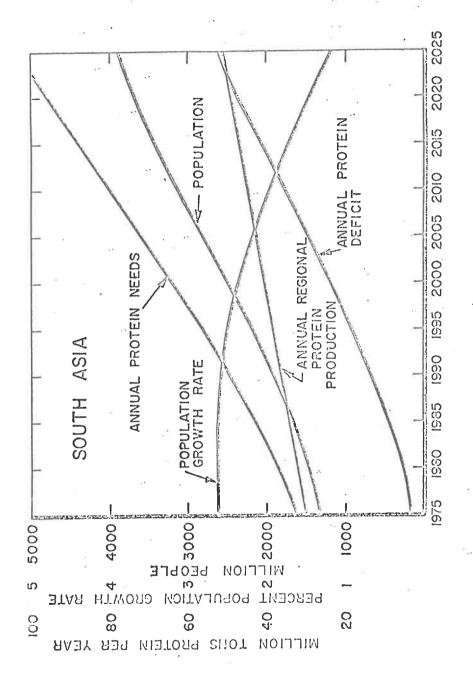


Figure 3-3.

### Scenario 2. Regional Investment in Agricultural Development

In this scenario we have examined the consequences of attempting to make South Asia self-sufficient in food by making it, essentially, an agricultural region. This has been done by shifting investment to the agricultural sector during the period from 1975 to 2005.

Figure 3-6 shows the economic consequences of this policy. Gross regional product drops from about 11 hundred billion dollars to about 5 hundred billion dollars. The principal reason for this is the failure of the industrial sector to develop. During the period from about 1980 to 2025 agricultural output is higher, but the gap is gradually narrowing by the end of the period.

Our indicators of food supply and population show that this policy will postpone the starvation problem but not eliminate it (Figures 3-7, 3-8). Regional supply can keep up with needs until about 1990. After that period there is rapid deterioration with little hope of attaining self-sufficiency.

#### Scenario 3. Population Policy

The results from our first two scenarios clearly indicate that starvation will be a long term problem and that some sort of population policy must be an essential component of any food policy. But it is unrealistic to assume that birth rates can quickly be reduced. Even

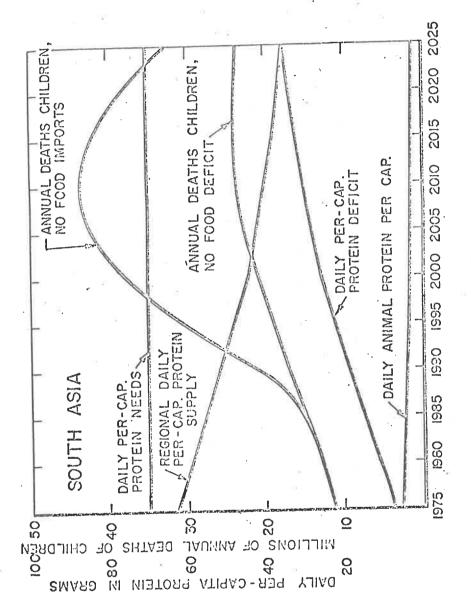


Figure 3-4.

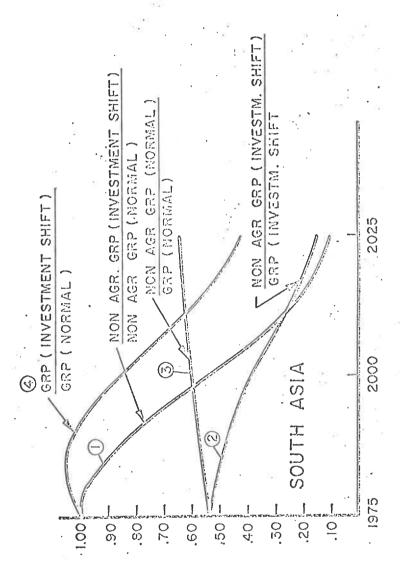
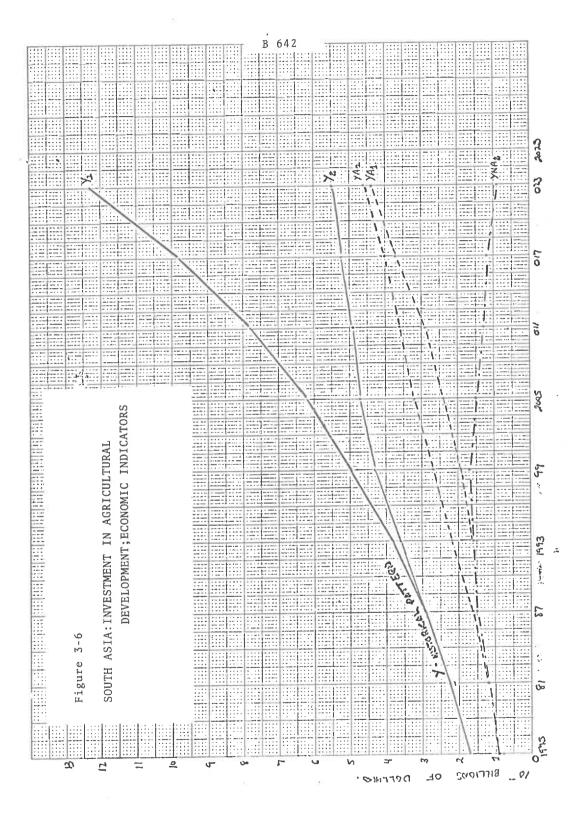
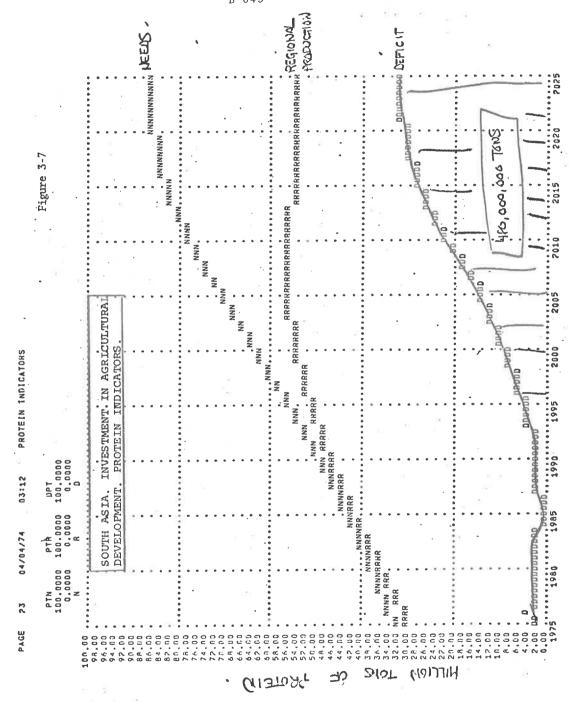


Figure 3-3





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after reduction is achieved, a substantial amount of time - about 30 years - will elapse before we can reasonably expect the population to stabilize.

In the population policy scenario we have implemented a program which gradually reduces crude birth rates from 42 per-thousand to 22 per thousand during a 35 year period from 1975 to 2010. We calculate that this policy would stabilize the population of South Asia at slightly less than 3 billion in about 2040.

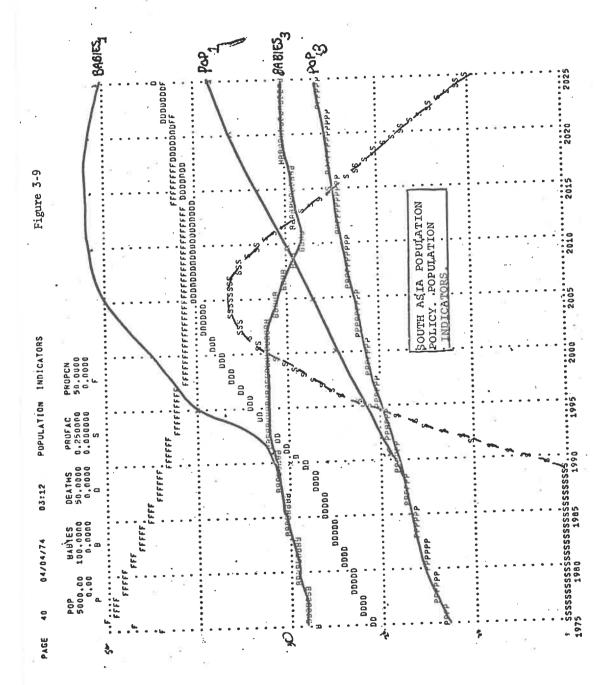
Figure 3-9 shows the effects of the policy on several population indicators.

In Figure 3-10 protein supply and needs per-capita are presented. Protein supplies continue to fall below needs, but the trend is toward self-sufficiency.

#### Scenario 4. Population Policy Combined with Agricultural Development

It is unlikely, however, that a society could continue a program of balanced development in the face of starvation. Instead, it is likely that investment shifts to agriculture would be made. This would alleviate the protein deficit in the short run, but with unfortunate long term consequences, especially increasing protein deficits after 2005 (Figure 3-11). Self-sufficiency could not be attained. The effects on population provide additional evidence that balanced development is essential.

In the second set of scenarios we shift attention to North America and explore the capabilities of that region to meet the needs of South Asia.



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## Scenario S. Historical Trend. Food Production Capabilities

In the first scenario, we have examined the capability of North America to produce increased food without seriously affecting the structure of its economy. This has been done by projecting the historical pattern of investment in agriculture, relative to investment in the rest of the economy. The results show that substantial surplus capacity exists (Figure 3-12).

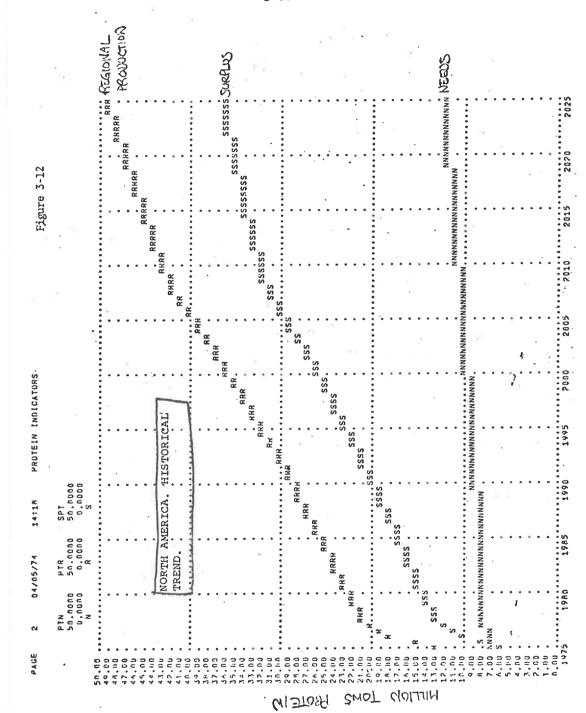
In fact, after 2000 more than double the regional needs could be produced. We recognize that this would not occur in the absence of demand for agricultural products. The more likely pattern would be a continued decrease in the agricultural sector relative to the total economy.

# Scenario 6. No Population Control in Southeast Asia, North America Attempts to Meet The Needs by Reducing Consumption

In the second scenario we have compared the food needs of South Asia, with population unrestricted, and the capabilities of North America.

By exporting all of its surplusses to South Asia, North America could meet the protein deficit until about 1997. After 2008 the entire production of North America would be needed to meet the deficit (Figure 3-13).

This analysis ignores, of course, the physical problems of shipping and distributing more than 200,000,000 tons of food per year.



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Figure 3-14 pictures one of the economic effects of this policy. Consumption would drop by 15 percent in comparison with the historical trend. Most of this would come from food. By 2025, six percent of total GRP would be in food exports.

Scenario 7. Population Control in Southeast Asia. North America

Attempts to Meet Needs. Aid Affects Investment, Consumption and Government Expenditure Equally.

If the population policy in South Asia were successfully implemented, it would be possible to meet the food needs while self-sufficiency was attained.

The analysis in Figure 3-15 shows that 60 percent of the possible agricultural surplusses or 40 percent of total agricultural production would be required. Consumption would be reduced by about six percent.

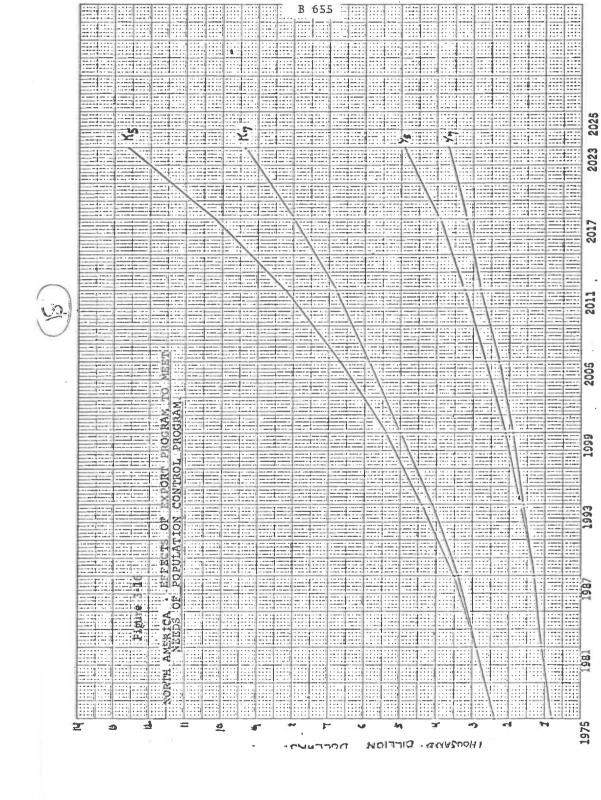
In this scenario we have divided the costs of the aid program equally between government expenditure, investment and consumption The effects are shown in Figure 3-16.

### Scenario 8.

In a final scenario we have examined the possibility of meeting the agricultural investment needs of South Asia. Earlier scenarios showed that self-sufficiency could be attained, largely with self-generated investment in the industrial sector, or that, alternatively, starvation could be avoided for a period of time by shifting investment. If needed investment were supplied from outside sources for agriculture, balanced economic growth would be possible.

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In Figure 3-17 we have pictured what we regard to be the minimum amount needed for this region alone. The total sum is about \$350 billion at 1963 constant dollars. This amount is roughly equivalent to that which would be required for food aid. The aggregate economic effects would be similar to those which have just been examined.

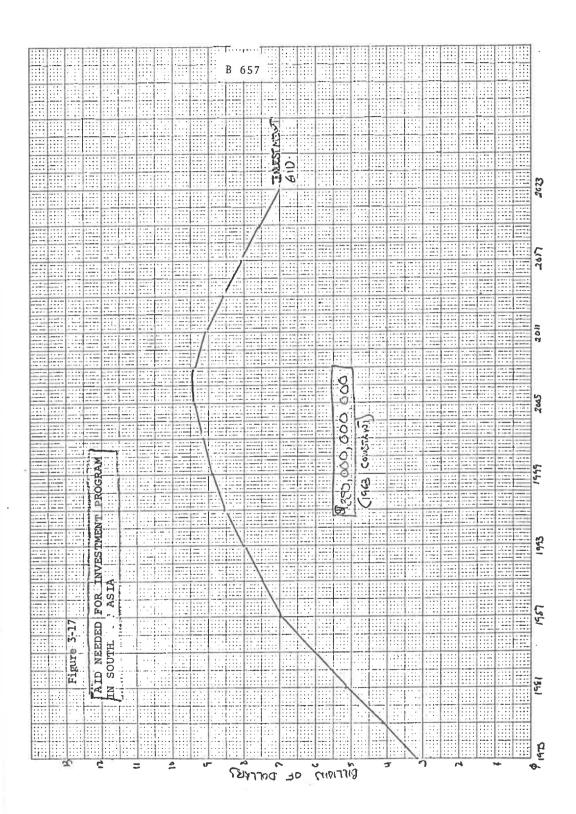
In sum, to avoid starvation in South Asia, the developed world must provide in the neighborhood for 350 to 400 billion dollars (at 1963 values). In current values the amount is about 600 billion. The amount will be roughly equivalent whether food aid or investment aid is chosen; however there are strong arguments, in our judgment, favoring the latter.

A program of this magnitude is within the capabilities of the developed world, but not of a single nation.

### 3. Conclusions

The most significant conclusions from our analysis are the following:

- 1. First, the analysis confirms the existence of a severe, long term world food problem. Here we have presented data only on South Asia, but the situation in Africa is equally grave, though it involves a fewer number of people in absolute numbers.
- 2. Implementation of a population policy must be the top priority objective. Without it, discussions of food policy are, in the long run, meaningless.



- 3. However, in our judgment, the results of the analysis are encouraging. With a population policy which we regard as reasonable, dietary and economic self-sufficiency in South Asia are possible.
- 4. We conclude that the most effective way of achieving this objective is for the developed nations of the world to provide assistance in the form of investment support for the agricultural sector. While some short term commodity aid may be desirable, we do not believe this is a viable solution in the long run.
- 5. Balanced economic development is essential if self-sufficiency is to be achieved over the long term.
- 6. Finally, and most important, the program of aid which we envision must be coordinated and implemented within a global framework. The program of assistance we are proposing must be of a far greater magnitude and for a longer term than anything which has been undertaken to date. But it is technically and economically feasible. Whether it is politically feasible, whether the leaders and peoples of the developed world will support such a program, is yet to be determined.

#### 4. Detailed Scenario Results

Results of the detailed scenario analysis are presented in the IIASA full report. In this paper the following sixteen scenarios are described:

### REGION 9. SOUTH ASIA

- (9-1) Historical pattern. Full reliance on outside aid. No starvation
- (9-2) Shift of investment to the agricultural sector. Fertilizer subsidy program. Full reliance on outside aid. No starvation.
  - (9-3) Historical pattern. No outside aid. Starvation possible.
- (9-4) Shift of investment to the agricultural sector. Fertilizer subsidy program. No outside aid. Starvation possible.
- (9-5) Thirty-five year population control program. Historical pattern. No outside aid. Starvation possible
- (9-6) Population control program. Shift of investment to the agricultural sector. Fertilizer subsidy program.
- (9-7) Population control program. Historical pattern. Full reliance on outside aid. No starvation.
- (9-8) Population control program. Shift of investment to the agricultural sector. Fertilizer subsidy program. Full reliance on outside aid. No starvation.

# REGION 1. NORTH AMERICA

- (1-B) Historical pattern. No aid program.
- (1-1) Scenario (9-1) implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is borne by reducing consumption.
- (1-2) Scenario (9-5) implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is borne by reducing consumption.

- (1-3) Scenario (9-1) implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is borne by reducing investment.
- (1-4) Scenario (9-5) implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is borne by reducing investment.
- (1-5) Scenario (9-1) implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is divided equally between investment, consumption and government expenditures.
- (1-6) Scenario 9-5 implemented. North America provides maximum assistance. Cost is divided between investment, consumption and government expenditures.
- (1-7)North America provides investment development assistance to South Asia.

As seen on the illustrations the output from the first scenario is presented here.

Readers who are unfamiliar with the format of our model output, often have some difficulty in sorting the results of one scenario from another and making any sense out of the voluminous output provided.

Accordingly, a few remarks may be helpful.

Before the data for the first rum in each region is reported, there is a listing of parameters. This contains some, but not all of those used in the model. Some of the parameters which are vector imputs to the food model have been omitted, however. These are provided in the article by Clapham in this series.

A sheet labled parameter, at the top will also begin each subsequent run. However only one or a few parameters will be reported. These are parameters whose values have been altered from the base run.

The notation "time series" will also appear on some of these sheets, followed by a scenario variable name. This indicates that time series data has been read in exogenously for that variable.

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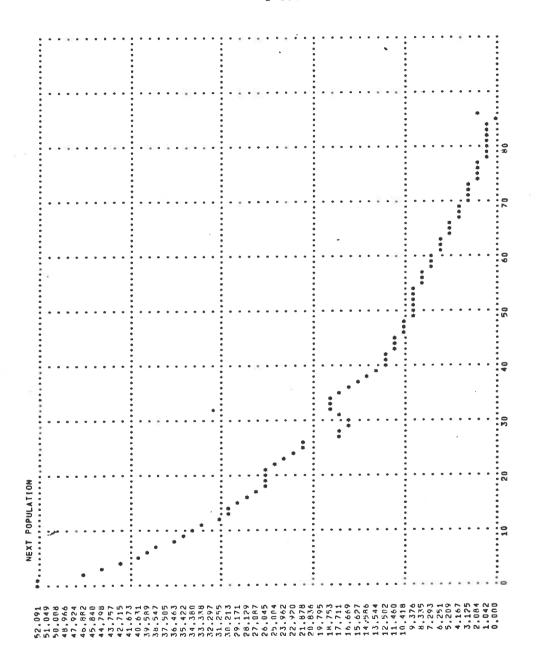
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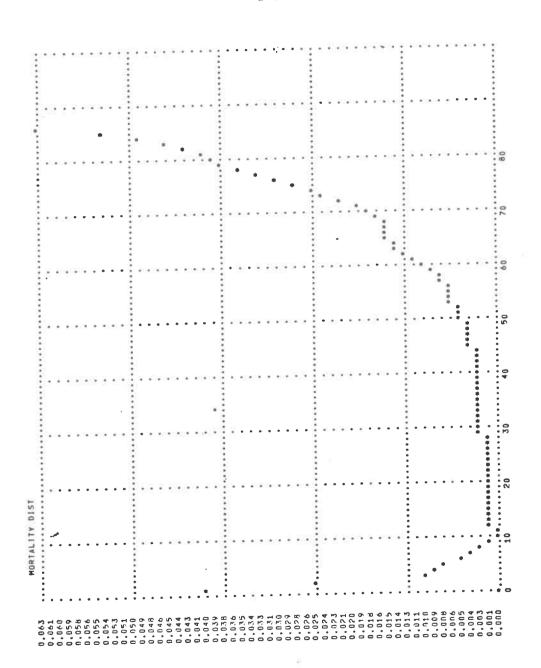
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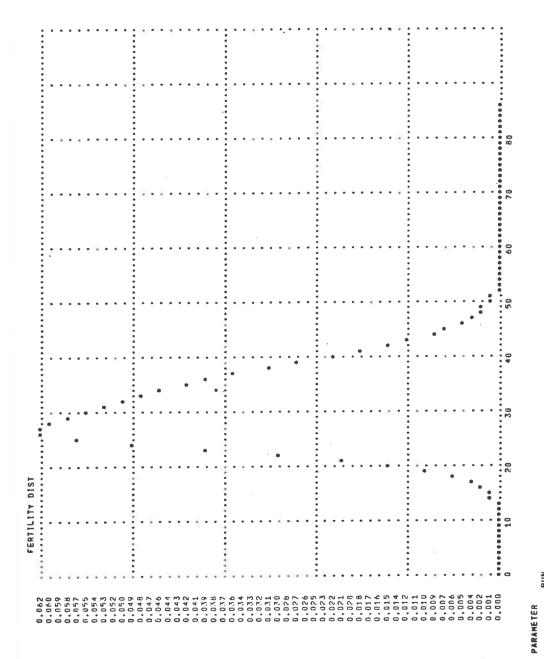
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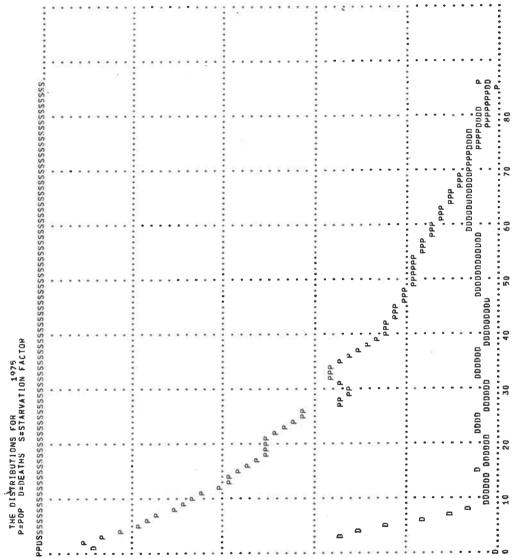
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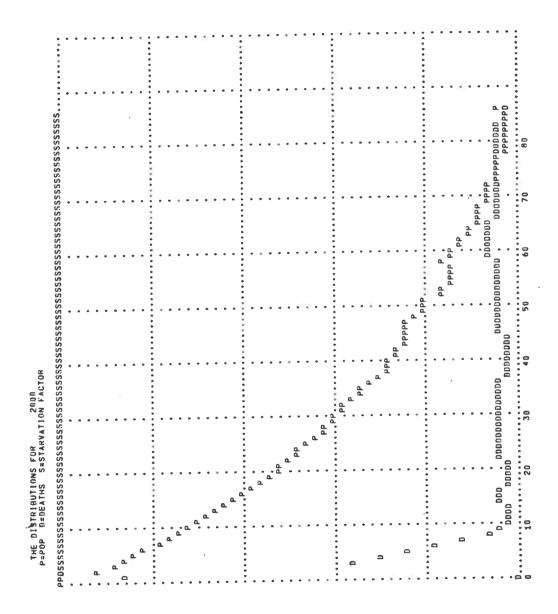
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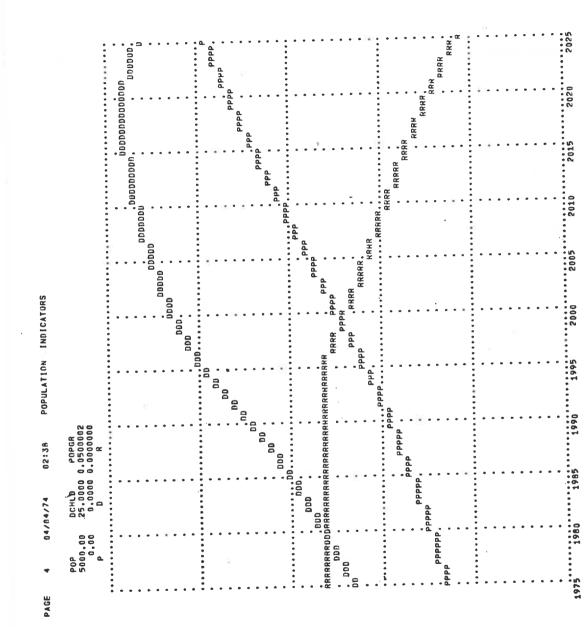
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1975	1307,50	55,190	21,4111	2,95447	2.80493	0.0422106	0,0163755	0.0258355	11,6345	170.76	80,559
1976	1341,16	56,742	21,9736	2,95447	2,80493	0,0423079	0,0163841	0.0259237	11,9482	178.39	A3,260
1977	1375,88	58,299	22,5518	2,95447	2,80493	0.0423727	0.0163908	0.0259814	12,2725	187,58	87.246
1978	1411,66	59.846	23,1445	2.95447	2,80493	0,0423937	0,0163951	0,0259981	12,6060	197,05	91,303
1979	1449.72	61,366	23,7461	2,95447	2,80493	0.0423737	0,0163970	0,0259767	12,9465	206.46	95,041
1980	1485,78	62.879	24,3569	2.95447	2. GD445.5	0.0423203	0.0163937	0.0254271	13.7840	225,41	100 180
1431	1561 53	65.080	25 6006	2 45447	2.80493	0.0422010	0.0163736	0.1175K284	13.9695	235.99	105.947
1983	1603.78	67.633	26.2373	2.95447	2,80493		0,0163593		14,3176	246.61	109.838
1944	1645.06	69,361	26,8887	2.95447	2,80493		0.0163450		14.6772	257.64	113,847
1985	1687,47	71,182	~27,5557	2,95447	2.80493		0,0163298		15.0496	269.10	118,643
1986	1731,00	73,048	28,2437	2,95447	2.80493	0,0422230	0.0163164	0.0259866	15,4387	261.00	122,544
1987	1775.78	75,084	28,9551	2.95447	2,80493	0,0422821	0,0163054	0.0259767	15,8459	293,35	176.901
1988	1821,81	77,168	29,6904	2.95447	2,80493	0.0423574	0.0162969	0.0260606	16.2715	306.17	131,406
1989	1860.34	79.344	30,4526	2,95447	2.80493	0.0424452	0.0162907	0.0261545	16,7153	319,48	136,168
1990	1918,83	265.18	31,7437	2,9744/	2.80493		1,0162892	0.0767470	17.17.6	2000,000	141.040
1941	2000 03	86.246	32. H370	2 05.42	2 B0493	0.0426950	0.0162840	0.0764106	17,6230 1H 1475	362.53	151 473
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1994	2128.06	91.063	34.6240	2.95447	2,88493	0.0427923	0.0162706	0.0265217	19.1660	393,98	162,566
1995	2184,25	93,551	35,5176	2.95447	2,80493	0.0428295	0.0162606	0,0265684	19,6934	410,59	148,391
1996	2242,19	94,553	36,3457	2,90704	2,80493	0,0421696	0,0162101	0,0259600	20,1460	427,83	174,418
1997	23110,25	95,541		2.85956	2.80493		0,0161242	0.0254111	20,5059	445.71	180,652
1998	2358,69	96,512		2,81207	2.811493		0,0140522	0.0248861	20,8325	464,75	187,086
1000	2417.13	97.465	ו לייו	2.76459	2.80493	_	0.0159378	0.0243850	21,1299	483,48	193,742
2000	2476,00	98,391	39,2227	2,71710	2.80493		0.0158410	0.0238967	21,4014	503.42	200.621
2001	2535,13	142.60	39,9160	2.66962	2.61493	0.0391626	5647610.0	0.02341/9	VICA. 15	V(1 - P / C	240 040
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2004	2713.44	101,695	41.9668	2.52716	2.80493			0.0220122	22,3184	590.AU	210.500
2002	2773,06	102,410			2,80493			_	22,5190	614.67	238,596
2006	2432,63	103,082	4		2,80493				22,7109	639.41	246.969
2002	2892,31	103,709	4	2,38470	2,80493	_		_	22,8896	665,05	255,609
2008	2951,88	104.307	44,6709	2,33722	2,80493			_	23,0571	691.61	264.551
2009	3011.44	104.865	45,3648	2.24973	2.80493	0.0348775	0.011010	5467410.0	26 4570	01.41/	201 202
2019	3130 31	105.84	46 748R	2.19476	2.80493				25,4893	777. 22	293,141
2012	3189,31	106,318	47,5381	2,14728	2,80493			_	23,6118	807,83	303,305
2013	324 A. NU	106.697	•	2,09979	2,80493				23,7251	839,53	313,845
2014	3304,25	107,018	•	2,05231	2,80493				25.8262	872,38	324.641
2015	3364,19	107.258		2,00482	2.80493		_		23,9150	906.38	347 404
2016	3421,63	107,303		1,95734	2.80443		_	_	23.4868	Pr. 140	160.140
2017	3478,38	107,408	51,7334	1.98945	2,80443		0.014/20	0.0101010	24.540	4015 24	471 545
2013	3554,70	106 977	52 6123	1,00037	2 H 1 4 9 3	0.00000000			24.0703	1054.94	384.367
2020	3644.06	106.400	53,2734	1.76740	2.80493		_		24,0410	1095.41	397,508
2021	3697.13	105.811	53,9141	1,71994	2,81493	0			23,9756	1137,31	411,063
2022	3748,94	-		1,67245	2.80493		_		23,8726	1180,69	425.070
2023	3799,19	-		1.62497	2.80493	0	_		23,7310	1225.59	439.516
2024	3847,63	•		1.57748	2.80493				23,5479	1277,06	474.430
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1976	40.479	237.83	7.24	05.133	178.39	0.133011	0.0000000000000000000000000000000000000	0.033518	0.0000000
1977	41.597	250.83		100.336	87.5	13633		0.047879	051512
1978		264.35	91,303	105.744	97.0	13958		0.0464	.05045A
1979		278,53		111,416	06.4	.14	0.0536385	0.040944	.047756
1980	45,523	293,40	98,545	117,361	15.9	÷	.053370	03686	.045768
1981	r:	308,93	Œ	123,574	25.7	7	.052029	.036884	.045611
1424		341 03	100.94/	20	V. 4	-:		0.0368824	042534
1984	52.229	350.44	113.867	143.777	257.64	1 3	51223	036684	0447
1985	1 2	¢	116.033	. 0	69.1	: -:	0.050725	.03658	.04446R
1986	- 40	٠.	122,344	158.06			0.050241	,036528	,04423
19R7	58,348	100	126,801	166.5	293,35	0.165195	0.04975	.036430	.04395
1988	_	36.9	131,406	174.77	306,17	۲.	0.049323	.036305	.043703
1989	CUI	458.27		183,31	319,48	.17	0.04881	03	,04345
1990	65,469	460,48		192,19	333,29	۲,	0.048468	.036145	043727
1961	970.89	503.59		201,43	347,63	7	0.04808	.036186	. 04304B
1001	71.019	552 56		221.	30,000	VC4V110	0.04/6/51	0.0350.0	27.50
*00*		2000		24 44	202 002	e u	2000	0.036904	104040
1005		A05 A8		242 41	440 50		5 0	0.035	C4.250
1006	R3 027	64.00		746.14	427.83	001	· =	0.03272	5 6
1997		662.64		265.06	445.71	10.5		0.035744	041799
1998	89.967	16.269		277	464,25	0.196827	0	0.035613	
1999	93,660	724,34		289.74	83.	0.200124	0,045.46	0.035569	0
2000	97,506	757,00			0	0.203323	0	0.035495	_
2001	101,510	790.92			24.	0.206734	0.0	0,035	o
2002	105.678	A26,16			٠. ت.	0.210278	0.04	0.035363	0
2000	110,014	200.000			20	0.213940	0.04	0.035240	= 0
2002	119,275	940.16	238.508	376.070	614.67	0.221657	• •	0.03717	0.0403033
2006	124,090	981.09			4	0.225731	0.043542	0.03508	0.04
2002	129,156	1023,58			665,05	o	0.043309	0	0.04
2008	134,418	167.6	264,531		691,61	ė	0.045085	0.034904	0.03
2000	139,897	4	273,766		719,16	Ē	0.042860	0.034904	0.039R1B
2010	145.563	160,9	283,297		747.67	_ (	0.042651	0.034801	0.039662
7011	151.45/	1710.19	202 305	4 1	22.111	= 0	0.84848	0.034747	= 0
2007		3 10	248 8 805	100° 500	10/403 870 87	6.4	0 042040	<b>5</b> 5	0.00000
2014	70.	. 173	374.641	547.734	872.38	0.263855	0.041846	0.034531	0.039112
2015	177.348	٠,		570.547	906.38		0.041648	0.034440	0.038974
2016	4	485	347,391	7.7	941,59	275	476	0,0344	0.038866
2017	÷			75	978,08	,28114	,041297	0,034352	0,038739
2018	199,418	610	371,648		1015,84	8740	0.041123	0,034298	0.038612
2019	207,328	1676.41	384,367		1054,94	29387	0.040042	0.03	0.03848
2020	ď.	1744,75	97.50	5	1095,41	30060	0.040777	0.03416A	0.03837
2021	n 1	5	- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	<b>∵</b> ,	1137.31	3076	0.0406	0.03	0.03875
2022	252,636	1869,00	9	195,641	5 4	415.	0404040		÷ •
\$ 5000 4000	64.40	٦,	7.7	5 4		?"	100000	0.0	0.03003
2008		9 4		7 6		D.	100010	0.0000	
	i.	,	•	2	1			20000	101000

	KUNA	6.4425	6,7947	7,1663	7,5525	7,9576	8,3823	2024.0	0 0 10 1	0000	0592.01	10.7480	11.3370	11.040	17.42/1	10,110	15,7273	14,38/7	2078-61	10,7004	16.5276	2000	18,0995	18,4510	10,7974	21 6274	27.02/4	25 60 40	24.6484	25, 7,539	26 8604	28,0208	29,2437	30,5034	31.8110	33,16RO	34.5752	36.0352	37,5498	1121.65	40.7010	****	44. 14.04 44	44 BOAK	47.09.07	14.04.7	17,011	70.4/11/	20.1423	40.000	110/100
	KDA	2,1943	2,2493	2,3109	2.3774	2,4501	7.5290	7,51.58	7,7040	****	2,9014					2000	5,65/0	5,7819	3,933/	4.0923	4.2543	4,4510	4.0174	4.9011	6/60.4	5.7031	5,4107	5 9 5 9 5 5 9 7 0 7	6 1117	4450	6 A227	90.30	7.1749	7,4673	7.7710	H,0864	8,4141	R.7539	9,1054	9,4/24	9,8573	10,7401	10,0340	11,0/04	11,31/0	11.97.54	12,4423	17, 4340	10.4419	13,4072	14,7140
	141.0	1 4327	1.5111	1.5787	1,6587	1,7420	1,4247	1.9075	1,9933	2,0826	2,1752	2,2714	2,5713	2,4/21	2,5828	7,6943	2.8105	2,9309	3.0559	3,1856	3,3202	3,4597	3.6047	3,7548	3,9105	4.0720	4 .2540	90100	#	4 0776	4 4 7 7 3 0	5 3H20	5.5974	5.8206	6.0516	6.2914	6,5347	6.7966	7,0631	7 . 3.590	7,6246	7,9204	N,72/1	7440.0	8.8775	9.7172	9.5642	1926.6	10,307	10.0905	11.1003
	7 141	45048	0.16789	0.17540	0.18430	0,19355	0.20274	0,21193	0.27147	0.23138	0.24167	0,25237	0,26347	0,27499	0.28696	0.29938	0,31226	0,32565	0,33953	0,35394	0.36889	U, 38440	0.40048	0,43717	0,43447	0.45242	0,47103	0.49033	0.070.0	0.75110	0.27.00	0.50704	0 62190	0.64670	0.67238	0,69902	0.72659	0,75516	0.78476	0,41538	0.84711	0.87999	0.91403	0.24930	0,487,0	1.02353	1,06262	1,10312	1,14502	1,18842	1,25551
	041	4 5048	4 6789	1 7540	1.8430	1,9355	2,0273	2,1193	2.2147	2,3138	2,4167	2,5236	2.6346	2,7499	2.8496	2,9938	3,1226	3.2564	3,3953	3,5394	3.6489	3,8440	4.0049	4,1716	4,3447	4.5242	4.7103	4.0033	7,1133	0110.0	とし、こ こ	7,740,	5 2190	6 4440	6.7238	6,9901	7,2660	7,5515	7,8475	8.1538	8,4712	8.799B	9,1404	9.4979	1/48.6	10,2351	10,6262	11,0313	11,4502	11,8840	12,3350
	271	46 220	15.070	117.01	17.795	18,698	19,576	20,463	21,385	22,342	23,335	24.368	25.440	26,553	27,708	24.907	30,152	31,443	32,784	34,176	35.620	37,117	38,670	40,281	41,952	43.685	45,482	47,346	112.64	01.2kU	46,630	5000,00	27.130	60.049	400.00	67,496	70,158	72,916	75,773	78,732	81.797	P4.969	K8.258	91.662	95.186	98.830	102,605	106,516	110.563	114,750	119,086
INVESTHENT		2 7 1 2	0,000%	0 0 0 0	7 6262	9.000	R.3894	8.769B	.9.1646	9.5747	10,0002	10,4431	10.9023	11,3704	11,8745	12,3484	12,9216	13,4251	14.0498	14.6462	15,2649	15,9067	16,5723	17,2627	17,9790	18,7212	19,4917	20.2900	21,1177	21,9766	22,8662	23,7881	24,/45/	27,1344	27.8030	28.9258	30,0069	31,2485	32,4736	33,7412	35,0547	36,4141	37,8232	39,2822	40,7920	42,3535	43,9727	45,6475	47,3818	49,1768	51.0342
02:39		YW T	18.773	110.41	21 715	22.827	23,911	24,995	26.120	27,289	28,502	29,764	31,073	32,433	33,844	35,309	36,828	38,406	40.043	41,743	43,507	45,336	47,232	49,290	51,241	53,357	55,553	57,829	60.188	62,636	65.172	67,799	70.523	13,040	000000	A2 441	B5.693	89,063	92,551	96,166	906.66	103,783	107,801	111.957	116,262	120,713	125,326	130,102	135,043	140,160	145,453
04/04/74		. W	3.183/	3,5376	1000.0	3.8710					4,8335	5.0474	5.7694	5,5000	5,7393	5.9877	6.2454	6,5129	6.7906	7,0790	7,3779	7,6881	8,0100	B, 3435	B,6897	9.1486	9,4209	9,8069	10,2068	10.6218	11,0520	11.4976	11,9595	12,4382	17,4341	13.110	14.5322	15,1033	15,6953	16,3081	16,9429	17,6001	18,2813	18,9863	19,7158	20.4707	21,2529	22,0630	22,9009	23,7686	24.6665
12 04/0		_	21.957	25,179	47.	104.62	27 965	29,233	30,549	31,916	33,336	34.812	36,343	37,933	39,583	41.296	43.073	44.919	46.834	48.822	50,885	53.023	55.242	57,543	59,931	62,405	64,975	67,637	70,395	73,258	76.223	79.297	82,482	85,783	89.203	04 400	1011 225	104 164	108.246	2	116.850	121,383	126,080	130,945	135,977	141,184	146,578	152,164	157,945	163,926	170,121
PAGE			1975	1976	1977	1970	1080	1081	1982	1 E	40.00	0.00	1986	1987	1988	1989	1001	1001	1000	1993	1994	1995	1006	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2002	200A	*****	0100	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025

PAGE	13 04	04/64/74	02:38	AGR I CUL TUR	AGRICULTURAL: PRODUCTION	10N		
	2	UAF	PXPF	9Hd2	<b>СКР</b> Н	GRGP	NGGP	CLGR
1975	3.08	435	14999	37.127	6462	90	5	. 84
1976	7.30	435	15299	35,807	6254	٥.	16	. 6 R
1977	133,559	1.5139	560	36.6R2	S 14	289,133	431.078	0 1
	15.69	682	16234	38,735	6730	. 4	2 2	8.39
œ	1.25	773	1655A	40.015	6935		4	8.39
80	57.01	867	16889	41,324	7142	٣.	6	8.30
œ 5	99.25	966	17227	42.659	7351	ۍ د	66.20	78,39
L O	7,17	100	1/4/1	44.031	7274		200	20.00
1 40 4	20.10	288	18280	46.273	7982	- ~	5 (	2 0
~	39,05	404	18645	48,184	8194		2,05	78.39
ř	96,15	525	19018	49.613	8406		8,57	18,39
<u>a</u>	33,48	651	19398	51,062	8619	Ξ	15.09	78.39
8	11,08	781	19785	52,530	8833		1,64	78.39
	5 C	917	20184	54.020	9047	- '	8	78.39
		200	20000	57 USA	2000	, u	9 4	2000
	44.22	350	21414	58.607	6695		8.21	8,39
×	53,24	517	21843	60.178	9917		4	78.39
×	52.56	683	22279	61,771	0137	-	11,6	78,39
×	72.20	854	22724	63,382	0356	5	88°3°	78.39
6	87,19	n33	23178	65,020	0577	٠.	5.1	78,39
< ;	10.56	7	23643	479,00	/6/0			78,39
( )	13,17	416	24511	CC5, 500	1111		0 4	78.39
5 8	14.61	100	74040	71 781	1674		, ,	70,07
5 5	37.47	934	25588	73.527	1687		2 0	20.30
č	19.61	25	261199	75,299	1911	-	16.0	78.39
5	62.23	49	26620	77,096	2135	-	2.9	78.39
5	75.26	733	,27152	78.914	2360	-	8 6	78.39
ö	88.75	96	27694	80.754	2586		6.7	78.39
5 6	9 6	7.4	7874	H2.621	2011		35.	78.37
5 2	21.0	10	C820C	86 426	2000		2 7	78.37
5	47,37	0.89	29974	88,365	3491	-	5	78.39
0	63,21	396	30573	90,530	3716	ું	51.5	78.39
6	79.67	70.	31184	92,318	3946	Ţ.	58,5	78,39
0 0	96.61	05	31.407	94,332	4174	-	5.5	78,39
5 6	10.00	0.4	20076	1/2*97	0000		200	0.00
5 0	3	70	3375	100.527	4001 446	: ]	y 4	78.30
0	70.29	45	3442	2	51189	: :	0.3.6	78.30
0	90.28	P.4	35115	4	5316		0.0	78.39
0	10.91	25	35817	90	,5546		17.6	78.3
ö	32.23	0.67	36533	109,158	\$775	~	7.40	78,39
0	54.2	1.10	3776	11	,600	ř.	31.8	78.39
0	76.98	1,55	38006	5	6235	m	38.	78,39
0	00.4	26.2	.3076	5	647	ni.	2	78.39
0 6		5	.3954	118.227	6701		53.0	78.3
5		3.01	,4033	120,051	.643	0	1.04	78.3

PAGE	14 04/	04/04/74	02:38	YIFLD			
Đ.							
	AP	PMC		PTFC		9	= :
1975	6998	0.9677	0.15136	0.59074	7.Z.A	7.12	9
1976	7093	0.9701	0,15266	0,59168	620	5,80	254
1977	7297	0,9725	0.15512	0,59535	679	6.68	397
1978	7496	0.9749	0.15832	0.59979	746		559
1979	7693	0.9772	0,16221	0,40505	H22	8, 73	730
1980	7899	0.9795	0.16744	0,61195	914	<u>-                                    </u>	0.4
1981	18107	0,9817	0.17305	0,61911	00.	, a	1 1 1
1982	19317	0.9839	0.1790	0.6264	100		250
1983	18527	0.9861	0,18537	0.6340	307	Ē	777
1984	2014	0000	0.19710	6406	400	-	967
1985	200	000	0.20671	9.65768	500	-	119
1087	937	66.0	0.21461	0,6658	160	5	340
1988	1959	966.0	n.22291	0.6740	1704	ě	3619
1989	39A04	0.9983	0,23164	0.6824	081	'n,	9
1990	10026	1,000	0.24080	0,6908	161	Ėù	1 4
1961	1023	1.004	0.2503	11.6993	50.0	r	2 0
1992	1044	1.007	0.2604	0.7078	700	5 6	2 4
1993	1066	1.011	0.000	0 7256	9 0	-	
1994	7 20 1	1,014	7000	0 7 2 3 7	25.0		113
1007	011	1.01	0.3053	0.7424	26.5	Μ,	0.35
1004	1150	1.024	0.3178	0,7511	275	۲.	057
1998	1175	1.028	0.3309	0,7598	287	٠,	079
3000	1198	1.031	0.3444	0,7686	300	MG I	101
2000	1272	1.034	0.3586	0.7773	312	Ęſ	124
2001	1247	1,038	0,3733	0.7860	374	٠, ۵	140
2002	1273	1.042	0,3887	0.7946	2000	ů٠	101
2003	1300	1,047	4040	0.0000	361		213
0000	1371	1.052	0.4.884	1. P.209	373	٠.	236
9000	3.00	1.056	0.4564	n.8296	386		258
2002	1415	1,060	0.4750	0,8383	398	٠,	281
2008	1446	1,064	0.4944	0,8470	4 1	ċ.	303
5009	1478	1.067	0.5145	0,8557	47.	4 1	2 4
2010	0,151218	1.07184	0.535400	1.654547	3 440010	90.330	2.37189
2011	1740	1000	0 5795	D 8H15	463		394
2013	1 9 1	1.083	0.6029	0,8901	473	3	417
7014	1656	1,087	11.6271	0.8986	486	-	440
2015	1697	1,091	0.6523	0.007	498	ž.	46
2016	1736	1,095	0.6783	0,9157	511		486
2017	1778	1,100	0,7054	0.9242	52		2
201A	11122	1,104	0,7334	n.9327	53	-	2
2019	1868	1.10	0.762	0.9411	4		C 1
2020	191	7.7	267.0	7.44.4	CH		
2021	196	111	1 . 524	764.0	5.00		5
2022	201	71.1	0000	0 074	3		9
2023	60.0	7	0.00	D GRA	4		67
4 M	217	7 -	0.060	1991	6.2		69
C) ()	613	7			•		

PAGE	15 04	/04/74	02138	LIVESTOCK	& F1SH	
	, n	7	2	7	ō	-
	8011	12	000	0.016403	90164	1591
76	6.3092	0.27	261.	0.016765	90167	1678
77	7570	2,54	0.03	0.017019	90170	1754
7	2365	4.92	815.	0.017234	90171	1843
7	3356	7.41	675.	0.017425	90174	1935
ac.	3.556	0,03	675.	0.017527	90174	2027
19R1	7,33569	452,7A1	2,479,5	0.01/6344	0.901/64	0.21193
	000		40,0	0.0110.0	77704	277
x a	こう こうしょ	40.0	675	0.01/66/	90179	2416
c a	4.5.9	5.0	675	0.01H112	90181	2523
•	335P	6.45	674	0.018245	90182	2634
α,	3358	2.02	674	0.018384	90184	2749
•	3358	5,75	674	0.018529	90185	2869
Ψ.	3358	6.63	674.	0.018681	91187	2666
0	3358	3,68	674.	0.018839	90186	3122
φ.	3359	7.91	674.	0.019004	00190	3256
<u>5</u>	3359	2,32	673.	0.01917	90191	3395
5 5	3.35	0.0	673,	0.01935	7019	35.59
	200	11.11	5/0/	6.019542	7017	0000
	7.00		00/0	0.019757	00100	400
′ ×	225.5	7.7	5673	0.011995	01130	4174
	345	3.00		0.02037	0000	4344
. ×	3350	96.89	6672	0.020601	90206	4524
=	376	55.01	672	0.02093	90206	4710
=	336	11,39	672	0.071088	90211	4903
Ξ	3761	18.03	5672.	0.02134	90213	5103
Ξ	3360	16.65	5672	0.021610	90216	5310
~	336	52.14	5672,	0.021890	0021	15526
5	3.46	9.0	5672	0.022188	9022	5748
Ξ.	336	77.42	5671	0.02249	9022	5979
=	336	35.5	5671	0.02280	9025	6219
= ;	2.50	5	00/1	0.023134	5707	646/
5 2	23.0		1/90	0.07347	000350	
50	2.5	21 3	674	0.02420	01124	7266
0	3.16	31.1	5671	0.02458	9024	7551
0	3.16	41.4	5671	0.02496	9024	7847
ė	376	52.0	2670	0.02540	6600	. H15
0	336	63.0	5670	0.02583	6052	8471
0	336	74.5	5670	0.02627	9606	879
0	336	86.5	2670	0.02674	9606	.914
•	336	96.91	2670	0.02722	4027	949
0	336	11.7	5670	0.02772	6057	985
0	336	25.1	5670	0.02824	9006	023
a	336	39.0	5670	0.02878	9606	.062
0	336	53.4	5670	0,02935	6206	103
0	.336	90	5670	0.02993	9030	.145
0	.336	5.00	5670	0.03053	9030	188
•	. 330	0.00	7000	0.03110	.9031	533

PAGE	16 04	1/04/74	02:3A	PRICING			
	2	, nas	NSN	>	2		YA
*0.76	0	12 51	37.83	3.2637	4,895	-	80,55
701	47.	33.46	38.94	3.2714	5,029	20	83,26
1477	758	34,93	40.75	3,2794	5,167	뜻	87.24
197R	5.7	36.39	42,58	3.287	5,310	<u></u>	91,30
1979	1,65555	5 37,882	44,415	3.29457	5,4576	7.2869	95.041
1980	968	. 39,31	46.16	3,3057	5,409	201	96.54
1981	392	40.77	47.98	3,315	5,766	ŗ.,	102,17
1982	827	42,30	49.86	3,325	5.928	4	105.9
1983	27.5	43,88	51,81	3,335	460.9	4	109,8
1984	728	45.57	53.83	3,546	6.26	4	113,86
1085	19.6	47.21	55.93	3,357	6,446	4	118.0
1986	167	48,94	5B,0°	3.369	6.63	š.	122.3
1987	116	50.7	60,3	3,381	6,821	_	126,8
1988	29	52.6	62.6	3,394	7,01	õ	131,4
0 80	8	54.5	65.0	3,407	7.22	2	130.1
100	-	56.5	67.5	3,471	7,43	ř	141,0
1001	20	58.6	70.1	3,435	7.64	3	146.1
1000	H 1	60.7	72.7	3.450	7.87	0.4	151,4
1001	8.3	63.0	75.5	3.466	01.9	53	156.9
100	107	45.2	78,3	3,482	A 34	55	162,5
1005	5.5	67.6	81,3	3,498	8.59	81	168.3
1004	513	70.1	84,3	3,516	R. 85	33	174.4
1001	5.81	72.6	87,5	3,535	9.12	36	180,6
1000	645	75,2	90.7	3,552	6.39	.64	187,0
000	711	77.9	94.1	3,571	9.68	.93	143.7
2000	779	40.7	97.6	3,591	86.0	5	200.6
2001	9 4 B	83,6	101,2	3,612	10.29	. 54	207./
2002	920	86.6	104,9	3,633	10,61	B	215,0
2003	993	89.6	108.8	3,655	10,94	11	222.0
2004	0.67	95.8	112,8	3.674	11,28	<u>.</u>	2.062
2005	144	96,1	116,9	3,701	11.64	ž.	2.50.7
90	223	66.5	121,2	3,726	12,01	÷.	240.7
20	303	103.0	125,6	3,751	12,39	ç	255,0
2008	386	106.6	130,1	3.77	12,79	5	402
6	470	110.4	134,8	3,804	13,20	2	2/3.
2010	557	114,2	139.7	833	200	0	202
2011	646	118.	144,	000	14.00		200
2012	7.3	122.	149.5	20.0	1.0		1 1 1
2013	H.3	126.0	155,	200	101		304
2014	65	131.0	160	6,40	10.0	Ų,	445
2015	02	135.	146.	2	- u	•	447
2014	12	140.	1/2.	- 0		1 4	350
2017	22	145.	B/1	2 2	17 7	-	371
2018		ייוינו		1 0			384
2019	4	155.	191	71.4	. 0		397
2020	55	160.	14/	0 10	1		411
2021	99	166.	204	4.61			424
2022	78	3 171.	212.	4 4	2	. נ	
2023	90	3 177.	219.	22.5	9.62	, ,	4 4
2024	• 02	7 183,	227.			4 4	460
2025	,15	189.	234.	4.0.	56.22		

,							
9	4101	KCLDH	010	507		cr.	CLR
432	0.060094	3.327F-0	4.30	2.84503		260.094	706
511	0,041695	5.076F-0	2.4B	53	c.	$\sim$	541
57R	0,031108	8.723F-n	1.80	6	C	_	648
65A	0.023415	1,229E D	1,34	8	CA	C)	.500
742	0.017690	4,620F 0	0.00	9		30	.918
R24	0,017683	4,633F D	0.0	듣	r.	20	.916
907	0.017677	4.646E 0	0.00	5	6.00	20	914
6.0	0.017670	4.659F D	0.0	5	·	30	9
082	0,017664	4.672F 0	0.0	Ξ		ao -	910
175	0.017657	4,685F N	0.0	5	Cu	30	404
271	0,017651	4,698F 0	0.0	5	**	T	907
371	0,017644	4,711F 0	0,0	0		70	. 905
475	0,01763H	4.724F	0.0	5		TO.	903
582	0,017632	4.736E 0	0.0	õ		30	901
200	0.017625	4.750F C	0.0	0		-	994.
816	0.017618	4.763F	0.00	5		- 40	89.
93	0.017612	4.776F	0	3		~	896
3.0	017606	4 789F		5		- 4	BC
, F	017560	A MODE		5 =		-	3
2 5	017592	A HIAF		č			3
9 5	017586	A ASSE				,	HH
4	0.017570	4 HA2F		í	• • •	,	1
2.0	0.01757	4.855F		5 6			88
916	0.01756	4.868F	0.0	=		-	88
0.7	0.01755	4.BAIE	0.0	3		-	88
4,2396	0.0	₹	0.0	0.00000	1,24521	271,875	4.8799
41	0.01754	4.906E	0.0	6		~	. H7
29	0.01754	4,918F	0.0	ō		~	37
761	0,01753	4.930E	0.0	Ξ		~	87
63	0,01752	4.941F	0.0	5		~	87
17	0.01752	4.953E	0.0	ō		~	87
80	0.01751	4.964F	0.0	ō			17
66	0.01751	4,974E	0.0	3	- 1		861
R2	0.01750	4.985F	0.0	0	-	_	86
5	0.01750	4.995E	0.0	0	_	_	99
20	0.01749	5.005E	0.0	C	-		86
53	0.01749	5.015F	0 0	ð			8
7.5	0.01748	5,024E	0.0	$\Rightarrow$	-	_	86
90	0.01748	5.034E	0,0	0	-	-	98
٠. ا	0,01747	5,044E	0.0	_			35
45	0.01/47	5.052F	0.0	0			č.
05	0.01746	5.061F	0.0	9			35
25	0,01746	5.070E	0.0	0		-	ž
5.	0,01746	5.078F	0.0	0			9.5
87	0.01745	5.086F	0.0	0		-	85
7	0.01745	5.0946	0.0	0		_	£5.
56	0.01744	5.101F	0.0	0		_	.85
92	0.01744	5.119E	0.0	0		_	.85
30	0.01744	5.116E	0.0	0			84
69	0.01743	5,122F	0.0	0		-	₽.
10	F 7 7 7 7						

PAGE	18 04/	04/04/74	n2:38	PROTEIN INDICATORS	DICATORS						
	GRGP	NGEP	PTH	РТРСК	DPT	•	PTN	PTAR	PTAPCR	PTPCSN	PTPCDR
1975	282,891	420,344	29,8223	22,8091	3,0299		32,852	2,35492	1.80112	0.987776	0.0624905
1976	283,945	422,164	29,9922	22,3633	3,7408		33,733	2,41681	1.80203	0.889099	0.0617030
1977	289,133	431.078	30.5869	22,2314	4.0568		44,655	2 55.65	1.87899	0.874908	0.0604544
1978	293,453	439,367	31,1489	27, 1039	4,0368	3,4089	36,567	2,57471	1,77789	0.864990	0.0598402
1980	302.117	453.414	32,0107	21,5454	5,5452	3,7322	37,556	2,58313	1,73862	0.852356	0.0570277
1981	305,620	459,781	32,3965	21,2554	6.1710	4.0488	36,567	2,59198	1,70062	0.839996	0.0562342
1982	309,555	466,203	32,7861	20,9702	6.8185	4,3611	39,605	2,60120	1,665/3	0.82/835	0.02/43/2
1983	313,281	472,609	33,1758	20,6860	7.4910	4.6/09	40.000	2,61(190	1.59329	0.803955	0.0550092
1984	317,039	479.070	44 0640	20,4007	8.9128	5 2H17	42.876	2.63159	1,55951	0.792130	0.0551424
1985	321,605	440,047	14 1504	19.8501	9.6653	5.5437	44,025	2,64258	1.52664	0.780457	0,0543833
0.00	308.375	498.570	34,7568	19,5732	10,4512	5,8855	45,209	2,65411	1,49463	0.76RH14	0,0536251
1988	332,164	505,094	35,1563	19,2974	11,2681	6,1851	46.424	2,66614	1,46347	0.757278	0.0524698
1989	335.977	511.648	35,5566	19.0215	12,1223	6.4R49	47,680	2.67845	1.43295	0.742/4	6.0521150
1998	339,797	518.219	35,9600	18,7485	13.0071	6,7815	48.967	2,641/1	1.46556	0.7343/3	0.0213049
1991	343,672	524,875	36,3672	18,4766	13,9282	7,0162	50.290	2 71067	1.3/440		0.0494310
1992	347,547	531,547	36.7773	18.2067	24.00.00	7 6604	51.016	2 73450	1.31897	0	0.0471419
1993	351,430	558,219	37,1862	17,9370	16 9178	7 9497	54.518	2.75000	1,29230		0.0484035
1001	577,036	544.750	37,0000	17 4043	17.0902	8.2363	56.005	2,76611	1,24642		
1943	357,634	55R 301	38 4297	17.1401	19,1069	8,5217	57,538	2,78296	1,24118		
1007	367.086		38,8486	16,8596	20,2275	8,7939	59,077	2.80048	1,21750		
1998	371.016		39,2666	16,6484	21,3623	9,0571	60,630	2.61879	1,19510	_	0.0454173
1999	374,977		39,6914	16,4209	22,4961	9,3071	62,187	2,63783	1,1/40/	0.638242	0.0444000
2000	376,938		40,1143	16.2017	23,6450	9,5498	65,79	0.424.0	1 1 3 5 4 1 /		
2001	382,906	Δ.	40.5400	15,9917	24. HU33	9.7839	250.049	0.070.70 0.000.00	1 11777		_
2002	386,891	w.	40.9678	15,7913	27 1 1 1 1	10.0070	66, 500 64, 509	2.92218	1.10114		
2003	300.833	610.04	41.3769	15 4155	28.3076	10.4326	70,137	2,94562	1,08560	0,596390	
1000	100 100		42.2607	15.2400	29,4858	10,6331	71,746	5.96979	1.07095		
2006	400 000		42.6963	15,0732	30,6646	10,8257	75,361	2,99506	1.05737		
2007	406.945		43,132B	14,9131	31,8501	11,0120	74.982	5.02142	1.04465		0.0408573
200A	410,977	_	43,5713	14,7687	33,0342	11,1912	76.685	3,04877	1.03284	0.568//1	0.0404040
2009	415.031		44.0127	14,6152	34.2197	11.3633	76.232	3.07777	1.0/1/0		
2010	419.078	654,578	44,4541	14,4/61	37.04.00	11.5897	81 492	3.13763	1.002.45		
7011	473,141		44 7447	14.2178	37,7734	11,8438	A3,117	3,16974	0.99388		0
2000	431 266		45,7939	14.0791		11,9912	84,740	3,20346	0.98619	0.540393	0
2013	435,336		46,2422	13,9863		12,1328	86,355	3,23773			0.0554176
2015	439,406		46.6934	_		12.26AB	87,969	3,27380	٠.	_	ο 0
2016	443,500	_	47.1484	_	42,4248	12,3992	89.572	3,51178	0.97//	1.505050	9 6
2017	447,586			-		12,0734	91.104	1 10081	0.000		
2018	451,680	710,656	4 ,	13,5979	44,0070	12.04/1	94.307	3.43286			
2019	455.7.3		CI2C*Uh	13, 1100	,	12.8611	95,850	3.47668			
2020	474, 520			13.3748	47,9199	12,9614	97,367	3,52216			
7071	468 100				Ī	13,0552	98,855	3,56946	0,95213		
2023	472,219	745,984	50,3818	13,2615		13,1414	100.309				~ `
2024	476,336					13,2207	101,721	3,66968		0.499924	0,0367101
2025	480,469				51,7686	13,2930	103,096		24664.0		
;											

PAGE	19 04	4/04/74	02:3A	IMPORT IN	INDICATORS		
	FDMV	<	¥	Ī	=	4	. 00 T 40
97	8.18	0.10154	04790	3832	21.34	6669	3.029
97	, d	0.12421	05797	4638	. 29	7647	740
63	. 51	0.13195	06137	4910	44.	8309	990
	. 91	0.14141	06552	5242	,63	8988	453
97	. 65	0.15419	07098	567P	B.	96P3	936
9	8,	0.17103	07806	6245	. 98	0395	545
E. 1	. 20	0,18796	08507	6806	3.21	1124	171
20	. 73	0,20511	0920A	7367	. 49	1870	А1₩
ac i	4	0.22257	19913	7950	, 82	2634	491
E :	35	0.24024	10617	HAYA	, 20	3417	186
æ c	4 .	1,77834	11333	9067	5,63	4218	912
E q	60.	0.27681	12021	9643	. 17	5039	1,665
C 0	* *	77777	12/07	2770	6.0	700	1,451
		33491	14274	1426	0.0	26.20	1000
~	100	0.35514	15034	2027	5	8522	1.007
0	2	0.37580	15404	2643	45	9446	9.00
ò	1,12	0,39692	16585	3268	3.31	0393	1. R 84
5	6.64	0.41859	17340	3904	. 24	1361	5,881
2	1,64	0,44072	18185	4540	.24	2352	5,917
2	3.03	0,46331	19001	5201	1,32	3367	1.990
2	. 85	0.4864H	19833	5866	3.47	4408	9,106
2	. 9	0.50914	20636	6296	5,71	5472	1.227
2 :	4 C	0.53166	21425	7140	3,03	6562	1,362
5	27.25	1,55360	72184	,7747	. 43	7674	2,496
5 5	15.43	0,5474	72930	8344	2.5	6820	3,645
5 5	20.00	18086.0	73057	9268	2.2	1666	4.401
5 5	7.0	0.01/96	74567	949		1190	7,067
5 6	76,60	45011	7576	0.00		7541/	001,
2002	162.055	0.679184	0.263641	7.10925	76.830	5.40507	20 47 40
5	72,57	0,69874	26989	1591	6.62	6276	0.664
5	13,53	0,71803	.27597	.207H	3,12	7625	1.850
Ξ	94.92	0,73487	.28184	.2548	5.44	9007	3,034
9	06.75	0,7552	.28750	. 3001	58.6	.0422	4,219
5	19.04	0.77328	99999	3440	5.45	.1871	5,407
5 :	21,0	0.79116.	12462.	3467	97,14	3354	5.591
3 6	5 E 7	2,00,00	10000	1074	7 0	1867	
10	72. H	0.84056	31277	5000	000	1004	414
5	87.48	0.85604	31718	5375	1.5	965	27.
5	02.57	0.87101	32135	57.08	17,69	1322	2.424
5	18.13	0,88536	.32526	,6021	22.25	3032	3,560
5	34,15	0.89913	.32894	,6316	26,97	4783	4.682
5	50,61	0.91216	.33235	1659.	31,85	6577	5,786
ä	67.4	n.9244F	,3354	,6A39	36.95	.8413	998.9
0	84.7	0.93600	.33A3C	, 700	42.16	.0293	7,919
6	02.3	0.9466	34083	,726	47.58	.2216	8.947
0 6	20.30	0.95629	34294	.7430	53.19	4187	9,925
Š	56.00	0.4049	7440.	740	77.UI	2020	10.00
3			1			. 927.	1,707