



**AgEcon** SEARCH  
RESEARCH IN AGRICULTURAL & APPLIED ECONOMICS

*The World's Largest Open Access Agricultural & Applied Economics Digital Library*

**This document is discoverable and free to researchers across the globe due to the work of AgEcon Search.**

**Help ensure our sustainability.**

Give to AgEcon Search

AgEcon Search

<http://ageconsearch.umn.edu>

[aesearch@umn.edu](mailto:aesearch@umn.edu)

*Papers downloaded from **AgEcon Search** may be used for non-commercial purposes and personal study only. No other use, including posting to another Internet site, is permitted without permission from the copyright owner (not AgEcon Search), or as allowed under the provisions of Fair Use, U.S. Copyright Act, Title 17 U.S.C.*

**EPTD DISCUSSION PAPER NO. 80**

**THE ECONOMICS OF INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS UNDER  
IMPERFECT ENFORCEMENT: DEVELOPING COUNTRIES,  
BIOTECHNOLOGY, AND THE TRIPS AGREEMENT**

**Konstantinos Giannakas**

**Environment and Production Technology Division**

**International Food Policy Research Institute**

**2033 K Street, N.W.**

**Washington, D.C. 20006 U.S.A.**

**September 2001**

*EPTD Discussion Papers contain preliminary material and research results, and are circulated prior to a full peer review in order to stimulate discussion and critical comment. It is expected that most Discussion Papers will eventually be published in some other form, and that their content may also be revised.*

## ABSTRACT

This paper develops a model of heterogeneous producers to examine the economic causes of IPR infringement and its consequences for the welfare of the interest groups and the pricing and adoption of a new technology (i.e., a genetically modified seed) in the context of a small open developing economy. Enforcement of IPRs, and pricing and adoption of the new technology are modeled as a sequential game between the government that enforces the IPRs, a foreign innovating firm that prices the new technology, and the developing country's producers who make the production and cheating decisions. Analytical results show that complete deterrence of IPR infringement is not always economically optimal. IPR infringement affects the welfare of the interest groups and has important ramifications for the pricing and adoption of the new technology. The quantitative nature of the results depends critically on the existing labeling regime. The analysis also shows that differences in the level of IPR enforcement provide an alternative justification for (and explanation of) differences in the pricing of the new technology in different countries around the world – a strategy adopted by leading innovators in the sector. Finally, the results suggest that if the penalties for IPR infringement under the TRIPs agreement follow the custom of retaliatory sanctions under the GATT, enforcement of IPRs will remain imperfect and the innovators' ability to obtain value for their biotech traits will still be limited.

KEYWORDS: biotechnology, enforcement, infringement, intellectual property rights,  
TRIPs agreement

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

Research for this paper was made possible, in part, by a grant from the Swedish International Development Agency (Sida).

# **THE ECONOMICS OF INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY RIGHTS UNDER IMPERFECT ENFORCEMENT: DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, BIOTECHNOLOGY, AND THE TRIPS AGREEMENT**

**Konstantinos Giannakas<sup>1</sup>**

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Parallel revolutions in molecular biology and the legal framework that assigns intellectual property rights (IPRs) to plant genetic resources have resulted in the emergence of agricultural biotechnology and the introduction of genetically modified (GM) products into the food system. IPRs create economic incentives for research and development by making the innovator the residual claimant of the benefits associated with the new technology. Whereas IPRs purport to protect intellectual property, full appropriation of the benefits from the innovation is not a given.

When infringement of IPRs (i.e., piracy) is profitable, rational economic agents' compliance with IPR provisions is by no means assured. Costly monitoring and enforcement are required to deter unauthorized (illegal) use of the new technology. Experience from various countries around the world indicates that IPR enforcement is far from being perfect and many successful innovations are subject to piracy (Maskus). This is particularly true in developing countries where there is a growing opposition to the very granting of IPRs for agricultural crops. In addition to the domestic surplus transfers to foreign firms/IPR holders in the form of monopolistic rents, concerns of developing countries include environmental safety and food security (Mansfield; Taylor; Ringo). The result is a widespread violation of innovators' IPRs in

---

<sup>1</sup> Assistant Professor of Agri-Food Industrial Economics & Policy, Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

these countries that has become a major international issue (on the debate on IPRs between industrialized countries (the “North”) and developing countries (the “South”) see Maskus).

The concerns about weak IPR protection resulted in the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property (TRIPs) during the Uruguay Round of GATT negotiations. The TRIPs agreement is administered by the World Trade Organization (WTO) and allows countries whose innovating firms’ IPRs are being violated to retaliate and penalize the violating country/enforcer of IPRs under the GATT. Even though the TRIPs agreement is to come fully into force within the next few years, an agreement on the magnitude of the fines that can be imposed is yet to be reached.

While innovators have been active in lobbying for the effective enforcement of their IPRs, their pricing behavior reveals a preferential treatment of customers that respect their IPRs the least. In many cases the prices charged by multinational firms/IPR holders in markets with lax enforcement of IPRs are significantly lower than the prices charged in markets where IPRs are effectively enforced. In Argentina for instance where 50 to 85% of the RoundUp Ready soybean seeds grown are either seeds purchased from the black market (25 to 50%) or/and seeds saved by the farmer from the previous year’s crop (25 to 35%), the prices charged by the innovating firm (Monsanto) are less than half the prices charged to US soybean producers (US General Accounting Office). This discrepancy has raised concerns by US producers who feel that they are being penalized for being “honest” (Holmberg). One conclusion of this paper is that they are probably right.

Although there is a growing literature on the consequences of IPR introduction for investment in research, the development of improved varieties, the structure of the biotechnology sector, the international trade of products of biotechnology, and the welfare of interest groups

(Just and Hueth; Moschini and Lapan; Lesser; Hayenga; Perrin; Alston and Venner; Fulton and Giannakas), the analysis of IPR infringement by the users of biotechnology is rather heuristic in nature. Studies on IPR enforcement problems have mainly focused on new technology imitation by rival firms (for a review of this literature see Perrin). Despite the incentives for, and the incidence of, IPR infringement by producers, this issue has not been analyzed systematically.

The objective of this paper is to examine the economic causes of IPR infringement by producers and its consequences for the welfare of the interest groups and the pricing and adoption of the new technology. Specifically, this study analyzes the causes and consequences of unauthorized use by producers of a genetically modified seed that is developed and produced by a foreign seed company and is protected by IPRs. The case where producers comply completely with the provisions of IPRs (or, alternatively, the case where IPR enforcement is perfect) is also examined and used as a benchmark for the analysis of the consequences of IPR infringement.

Although the enforcement of innovator's rights is an issue of relevance for most (if not all) areas where IPRs are introduced, this study concentrates on enforcement of IPRs in a developing country. The developing country is a small open economy in the production of both the traditional and GM crops (i.e., the prices of these crops are not affected by domestic production decisions), and enforcement of the seed company's IPRs is the responsibility of the domestic government. The analysis therefore focuses on cases where IPRs granted to the innovating firm in its home country are also valid in the developing country so that IPR infringement (i.e., use of the new technology without paying a royalty fee to the innovator) is illegal. The implications (relevance) of the analysis for the case where the developing country does not recognize IPRs granted elsewhere and/or has not yet had to comply with the TRIPs agreement (in which case IPR infringement is not illegal) are discussed in footnotes 10 and 12.

Note that the paper can be placed in the context of the North/South debate on IPRs, by viewing the innovating firm as a firm from the North (i.e., an industrialized country) and the small open developing economy as a country from the South. While the analysis focuses on the case where the innovator is a foreign firm, the main results regarding the level of IPR protection and the pricing and adoption of the new technology also apply to the case where the innovator is a firm from the developing country (i.e., a domestic firm, see footnote 14).

IPR enforcement, pricing and adoption of the new technology (GM seed) are modeled as a sequential game between a government that is responsible for the enforcement of IPRs, the innovator who prices the GM seed, and the producers who make the production and cheating decisions. The government moves first and determines its IPR enforcement policy knowing exactly how its decisions will affect the (optimizing) behavior of the seed company and producers. Once the audit policy and the penalties for IPR infringement are announced, the innovator decides on the price of the GM seed that it will supply in the domestic market. Finally, after the decisions of the government and the innovator have been carried out, the farmers decide on whether they will adopt the new technology and, if so, whether they will comply with the provisions of IPRs (i.e., pay the fee associated with the use of the GM seed).

To avoid Nash equilibria involving non-credible strategies, the problem is solved using backward induction (Kreps; Gibbons). The problem of the farmers is considered first, the problem of the innovator follows, and the solution of the government's problem determines the (subgame perfect) equilibrium enforcement of IPRs, and the price, quantity, and adoption of the new technology. Different scenarios concerning the enforcement parameters controlled by the government and the labeling regime that is in place with regards to the final GM product are



examined within this framework. Finally, the analysis considers the situation in which IPR enforcement is the innovator's responsibility.

Note that this is an *ex post* analysis of IPR infringement in the sense that domestic enforcement decisions have no effect on the development of this *specific* technology - the innovating seed company has developed the GM seed in question, has been granted IPRs, and its problem is to determine the price of the new technology and the quantity that will supply in the developing country under concern. Also, implicit in this analysis is the assumption that GM seeds used illegally (i.e., seeds bought from the black market and seeds saved by the farmer from the previous year's crop) are perfect substitutes for GM seeds purchased from the innovator - the agronomic characteristics and production potential of GM seeds purchased from the innovating firm are identical to those used illegally.

Other than formally analyzing IPR infringement, a distinct feature of this study is that it relaxes the (conventional) assumption of producer homogeneity. Instead, farmers are postulated to differ in the relative returns they receive from different crops, which in turn stems from differences in such things as geography, education, experience, management skills, degree of specialization etc. Producer heterogeneity in terms of production factors is a key component in the model and is critical in understanding the existence of both traditional and new technologies in the market, as well as the non-compliance with IPR provisions of part (and not all) of the new technology users.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The next section analyzes technology pricing and adoption decisions when enforcement of IPRs is perfect. The economic causes of IPR infringement and its consequences for the welfare of the interests groups and the pricing and adoption of the new technology are examined next. The analysis is then extended to the case

where the final product is not labeled, and the case where enforcement is carried out by the innovating firm. The implications of the analysis for innovator's pricing strategies are discussed before the concluding section of the paper.

## BENCHMARK CASE: PERFECT ENFORCEMENT OF IPRS

### *Producers' Problem*

Consider a producer that is determining whether to produce a unit of a traditional (non-GM) crop or a unit of a new GM crop. Let  $A \in [0, 1]$  denote the attribute that differentiates producers. A producer with attribute  $A$  has the following net returns function:

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_t &= p_t - p_t^s + \mathbf{g}A && \text{If a unit of traditional crop is produced} \\ \mathbf{P}_{gm} &= p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s + \mathbf{f}A && \text{If a unit of GM crop is produced} \end{aligned}$$

The parameters  $p_t$  and  $p_{gm}$  are the farm prices (net of all production costs except for seed) for the traditional crop and the GM crop, respectively;  $p_t^s$  and  $p_{gm}^s$  are the costs of the seed required to produce the traditional and the GM crops, respectively;  $A$  is the differentiating attribute that takes values between zero and one; and  $\mathbf{g}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$  are non-negative return premium factors associated with the production of the traditional and the GM crop, respectively. The traditional crop receives a price premium but is more expensive to produce than its GM counterpart (i.e.,  $p_t > p_{gm}$  and  $p_t^s > p_{gm}^s$ ).<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>2</sup> When the traditional and GM crops are labeled and marketed separately, the farm price differential between the two crops is determined by the consumer demand schedules and the size of segregation costs. *Ceteris paribus*, the higher is the consumer willingness-to-pay for the traditional product versus its GM counterpart, the greater is the price premium received by producers of the traditional crop. On the other hand, the greater are the segregation costs associated with the production of the traditional crop, the lower is the effective farm price of this crop (Giannakas and Fulton).

To allow for a positive supply of traditional and GM crops, it is assumed that

$$\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} > (p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s) - (p_t - p_t^s) > 0, \text{ while, to retain tractability of the model, the analysis}$$

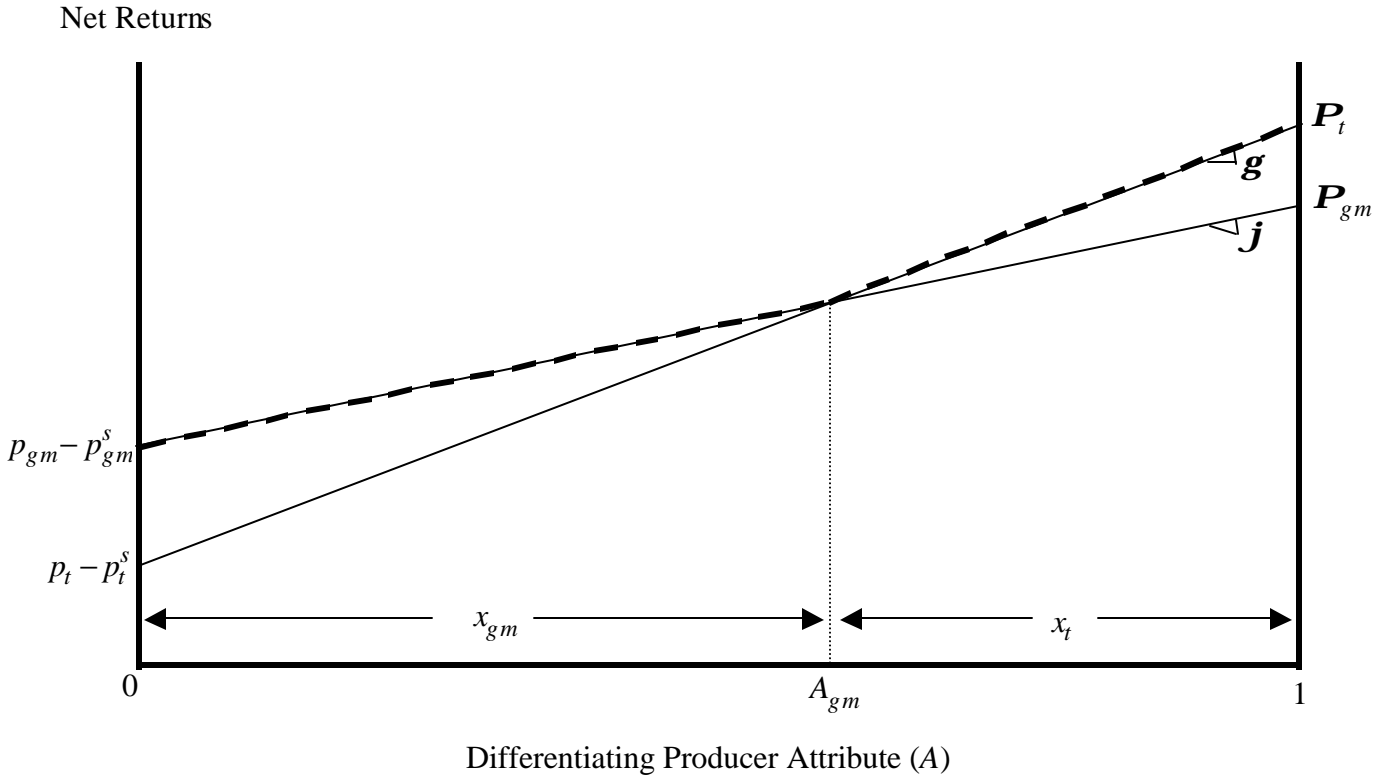
assumes that producers are uniformly distributed between the polar values of  $A$ . The implications of relaxing this assumption to allow a concentration of producers at the ends of the spectrum (i.e., zero and one) are discussed throughout the text (see footnotes 3 and 8).

The production choice of the individual producer is determined by the relationship between the returns from the traditional crop *vis a vis* the returns from the GM crop. Figure 1 illustrates the decisions and welfare of producers. The curve  $\mathbf{P}_t$  depicts the net returns associated with the production of the traditional crop while the curve  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}$  graphs the net returns to the production of the GM crop for different levels of the differentiating attribute  $A$ . The intersection of the two net return curves determines the level of the differentiating attribute that corresponds to the indifferent producer. The producer with characteristic  $A_{gm}$  given by:

$$(2) \quad A_{gm} : \mathbf{P}_{gm} = \mathbf{P}_t \Rightarrow A_{gm} = \frac{(p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s) - (p_t - p_t^s)}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f}}$$

is indifferent between producing a unit of the traditional crop and a unit of the GM crop – the net returns associated with the production of these crops is the same. Producers “located” to the left of  $A_{gm}$  (i.e., producers with  $A \in [0, A_{gm})$ ) find it more profitable to grow the GM crop, while producers “located” to the right of  $A_{gm}$  (i.e., producers with  $A \in (A_{gm}, 1]$ ) find it more profitable to produce the traditional crop. Obviously, the greater is  $A_{gm}$ , the greater is the adoption of the new technology. Aggregate producer welfare is given by the area underneath the effective net returns curve shown as the dashed kinked curve in Figure 1.

**Figure 1. Production Decisions and Welfare under Perfect Enforcement of IPRs**



Since producers have been assumed to be uniformly distributed between 0 and 1, by normalizing the mass of producers at unity,  $A_{gm}$  gives the supply of the GM product,  $x_{gm}$ , i.e.,<sup>3</sup>

$$(3) \quad x_{gm} = \frac{(p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s) - (p_t - p_t^s)}{g - f}$$

<sup>3</sup> The analysis can be easily modified to examine cases where producers are not uniformly distributed with respect to their value of  $A$  but, rather, are concentrated at either end of the continuum. Specifically, when the distribution of producers is continuous (but not uniform), the supply of GM crop depends on its skewness, i.e., the more skewed is the distribution towards 0, the greater is the adoption of the new technology.

Comparative statics results can easily be drawn from this model. More specifically, an increase in the price of the GM product shifts the  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}$  curve upwards and increases  $x_{gm}$  while an increase in the price of the traditional product causes an upward shift of the  $\mathbf{P}_t$  curve that

reduces  $x_{gm}$  (i.e.,  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}}{\partial p_{gm}} > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}}{\partial p_t} < 0$ ). Similarly, an increase in  $p_t^s$  causes a downward

shift of the  $\mathbf{P}_t$  curve that increases  $x_{gm}$  while an increase in  $p_{gm}^s$  shifts the  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}$  curve

downwards and reduces the adoption of the new technology (i.e.,  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}}{\partial p_t^s} > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}}{\partial p_{gm}^s} < 0$ ).

Obviously, if  $p_{gm}^s \geq p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})$  all producers will find it optimal to produce the traditional crop and  $x_{gm} = 0$ .

### *Innovator's Problem*

Consider now the profit-maximizing decisions of the innovating seed company that has developed and supplies the GM seed. The seed company's problem can be seen as the determination of the price of the GM seed,  $p_{gm}^s$ , that maximizes its profits given the producers' demand schedule for GM seed,  $x_{gm}^s$ . Assuming fixed proportions between seed and farm output, the demand for GM seed faced by the seed company is given by equation (3), i.e.,  $x_{gm}^s = x_{gm}$ , and the innovator's problem can be written as:

$$(4) \quad \max_{p_{gm}^s} \mathbf{P} = (p_{gm}^s - m)x_{gm}$$

where  $m$  represents the marginal cost of producing the GM seed. Without loss of generality, it is assumed that sales of the GM seed to the developing economy in question involve operation of the innovating firm at the part of its average cost curve where marginal costs of producing the GM seed are constant.<sup>4</sup>

Solving the innovator's problem shows the standard result that profits are maximized at the price-quantity combination determined by the equality of the marginal revenue and the marginal cost of production. Specifically, the profit-maximizing price of the GM seed equals:

$$(5) \quad p_{gm}^s = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] + m}{2}$$

and the equilibrium quantity of GM seed is given by:

$$(6) \quad x_{gm}^s = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] - m}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} \quad (= x_{gm})$$

Figure 2 depicts the inverse demand  $D_{gm}^s$  faced by the seed company (i.e.,

$$p_{gm}^s = [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] - (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})x_{gm}^s$$

and the determination of the equilibrium price and quantity of GM seed. The profit-maximizing price-quantity combination is determined by the

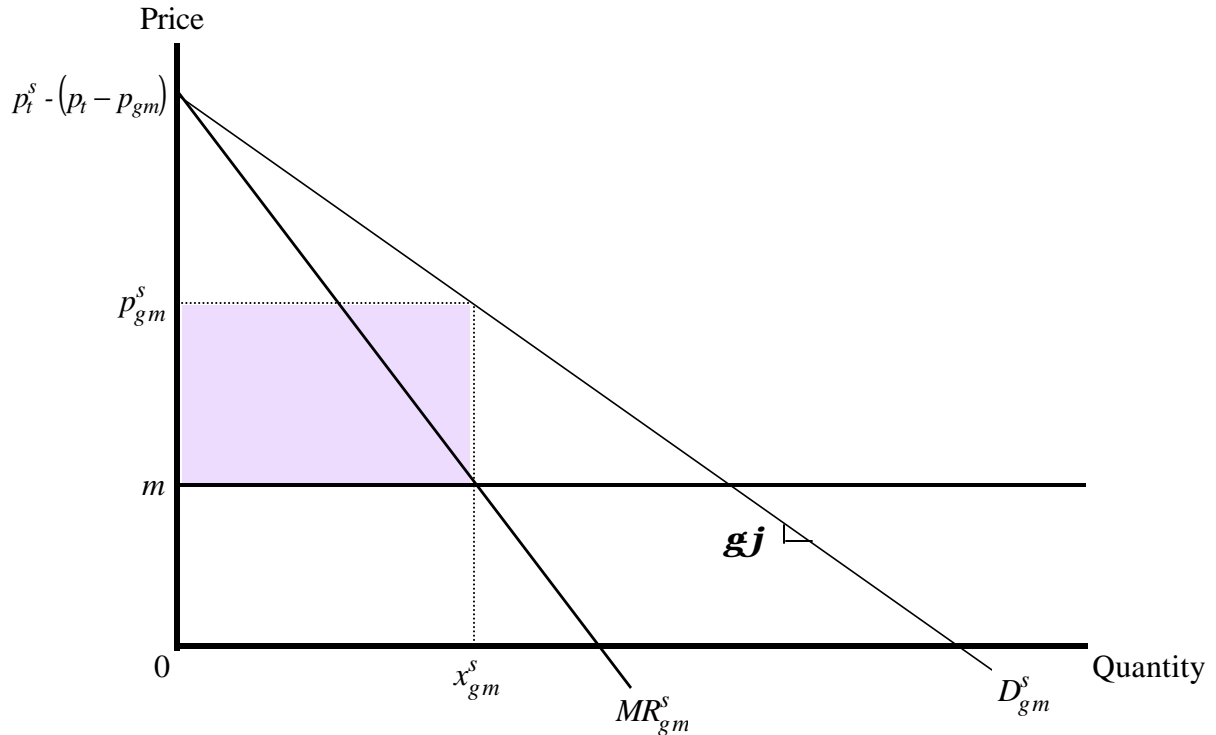
intersection of the marginal revenue,  $MR_{gm}^s$ , and the marginal cost,  $m$ , curves.<sup>5</sup> The shadowed

<sup>4</sup> Note that the marginal cost curve for the production of GM seed is likely to be either constant or decreasing. A non-increasing marginal cost is the outcome of the intellectual property used by the innovating firms (Fulton).

<sup>5</sup> The model can be easily modified to examine the profit-maximizing decisions of a small number of companies that produce very similar GM seed products. Assuming that the seed companies have the same marginal cost of production, the pricing of the GM seed is dependent on the derived demand for GM seed and the degree of market power possessed by the seed companies, i.e.,  $p_{gm}^s = \frac{\mathbf{q}}{1 + \mathbf{q}} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] + \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{q}} m$ . The parameter  $\mathbf{q}$  is the conjectural variations elasticity that allows an examination of various types of strategic interaction among the seed companies. If, for instance, the  $N$  firms compete in quantities (i.e., Cournot-Nash competition),  $\mathbf{q} = 1/N$  and

area in Figure 2 shows the monopolistic rents accruing to the innovator/IPR holder. By substitution of the equilibrium price (equation (5)) for  $p_{gm}^s$  in Figure 1, we obtain the equilibrium  $A_{gm}$  ( $=x_{gm}=x_{gm}^s$ ) and the welfare of producers under perfect enforcement of the innovator's IPRs.<sup>6</sup>

**Figure 2. Production and Pricing of GM Seed under Perfect Enforcement of IPRs**




---

$p_{gm}^s = \frac{(1/N)[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] + m}{1 + (1/N)}$ . If the firms are engaged in price competition and have no capacity constraints,  $\mathbf{q}$

$=0$  and  $p_{gm}^s = m$ . Finally, if the firms collude and act as a monopoly,  $\mathbf{q}=1$  and  $p_{gm}^s = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] + m}{2}$ .

Obviously, the less monopolistic is the seed sector (i.e., the smaller is  $\mathbf{q}$ ), the closer to the perfectly competitive outcome is the equilibrium price-quantity combination and the greater is producer welfare.

<sup>6</sup> Obviously, if the intercept of  $D_{gm}^s$  lies underneath  $m$  the innovator will find it optimal not to supply this market, i.e.,  $x_{gm}^s = 0$ . In this case, the net returns curve  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}$  becomes irrelevant (i.e., farmers have no choice of producing the GM crop), and producer welfare is given by the area underneath the curve  $\mathbf{P}_t$  in Figure 1.

## IMPERFECT ENFORCEMENT OF IPRS

### *Producers' Problem*

Implicit in the previous analysis and results is the assumption that farmers comply completely with the provisions of the innovator's IPRs, i.e., those producing the GM crop pay the price associated with the use of the GM seed,  $p_{gm}^s$ . Given the possibility of purchasing seeds from the black market at a lower price, or/and using GM seeds harvested from the previous year's crop, producers may find it economically optimal to utilize the new technology without paying the fee associated with its use. The possibility of IPR infringement arises from an informational constraint, namely producers' actions cannot be directly observed; they can only be verified through costly auditing.

Assuming producers know with certainty the price of the GM seed, the penalty in case they are caught infringing upon the seed company's IPRs, and the probability of being detected cheating, their decision on whether to cheat can be seen as decision making under uncertainty. Specifically, the individual producer's choice can be viewed as a choice between the profits associated with the production of the traditional or the GM crop with the purchased seed and the expected returns from the production of GM crop with illegally used GM seeds. Assuming neutrality towards risk and normalizing the black market price of the GM seed to zero, the net returns function of the producer with attribute  $A$  becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (7) \quad & \mathbf{P}_t = p_t - p_t^s + \mathbf{g}A && \text{If a unit of traditional crop is produced} \\
 & \mathbf{P}_{gm}^h = p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s + \mathbf{f}A && \text{If a unit of GM crop is produced with purchased seed} \\
 & \mathbf{P}_{gm}^c = p_{gm} + \mathbf{f}A - \mathbf{d}(A)\mathbf{r} && \text{If a unit of GM crop is produced with illegally used seed}
 \end{aligned}$$



where  $\mathbf{d}$  is the probability that illegal use of GM seed will be detected and  $\mathbf{r}$  is the penalty in case of detected cheating.

The detection probability takes values between zero and one and is assumed to be a function of the probability that the producer will be audited (investigated) by IPR enforcers,  $\mathbf{d}_0$ , and farm-specific characteristics that affect the observability of producer's actions and are captured by the differentiating attribute  $A$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{d}_0 A$ .<sup>7</sup> For instance, less efficient producers (i.e., producers with low values of  $A$ ) are often located in secluded areas and/or their land is fragmented into several plots making detection of IPR infringement more difficult than producers with unfragmented land. In addition, "whistle blowing" by third parties (such as neighbors) is probably more likely when successful producers are observed cheating (due to envy for instance). The audit probability  $\mathbf{d}_0$  is assumed to be a function of the resources spent by IPR enforcers in investigating producers,  $\mathbf{F}$ , where  $\mathbf{d}_0$  increases with an increase in  $\mathbf{F}$ , although at a decreasing rate (i.e.,  $\mathbf{d}'_0(\mathbf{F}) \geq 0$ ,  $\mathbf{d}''_0(\mathbf{F}) \leq 0$ ).

**PROPOSITION 1.** *Producers will produce the GM crop with illegally used seed when the price of the GM seed is greater than the expected penalty from cheating.*

*Proof.* Based on the net returns function in equation (7), the producer with characteristic  $A$  will opt to use the GM seed illegally (i.e.,  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^c > \mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$ ) when  $p_{gm}^s > \mathbf{d}(A)\mathbf{r}$ .

---

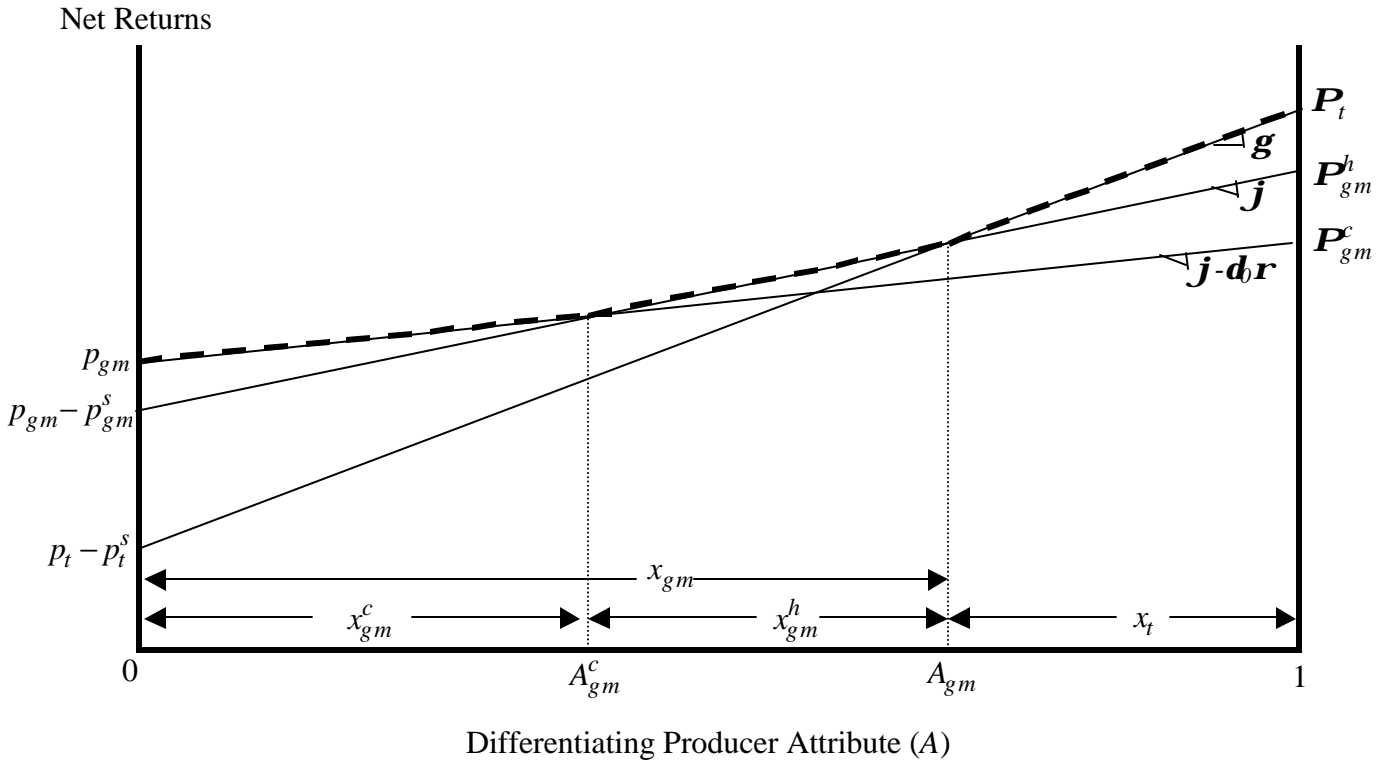
<sup>7</sup> Note that this formulation of  $\delta$  can also capture cases where the technology is such that investigation of producers results in the detection of IPR infringement but different producers face different audit probabilities. In this case,  $\delta$  reflects the likelihood that the producer with attribute  $A$  will be audited, detected, and penalized in case of using the GM seed illegally.

The price of the new technology and the level of enforcement affect the returns to IPR infringement and also the production shares of the crops under consideration. Figure 3 graphs the net returns from the traditional crop,  $P_t$ , the GM crop produced with purchased seeds,  $P_{gm}^h$ , and the GM crop produced with illegally used seed,  $P_{gm}^c$ , for different levels of the

differentiating attribute  $A$  when  $p_{gm}^s < \frac{d_0 r [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{(g - f + d_0 r)}$ . In this case, the  $P_{gm}^h$  curve lies

above the  $P_{gm}^c$  and  $P_t$  curves over some range of  $A$  making the production of the GM crop with purchased seed optimal for some producers.

**Figure 3. Production Decisions and Welfare under Imperfect Enforcement of IPRs**



$$\left( p_{gm}^s < \frac{d_0 r [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{(g - f + d_0 r)} \right)$$

Specifically, the intersection of  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$  and  $\mathbf{P}_t$  in Figure 3 determines the level of the differentiating attribute that corresponds to the producer who is indifferent between producing a unit of the GM crop and a unit of its traditional counterpart,  $A_{gm}$ , i.e.,

$$A_{gm} : \mathbf{P}_{gm}^h = \mathbf{P}_t \Rightarrow A_{gm} = \frac{(p_{gm} - p_{gm}^s) - (p_t - p_t^s)}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f}}$$

Producers with  $A \in [0, A_{gm})$  will prefer to produce the GM crop (either with purchased or illegally used seeds), while producers with  $A \in (A_{gm}, 1]$  will produce the traditional crop.

Given the assumptions about the production and distribution of producers (i.e., unit production and uniform distribution),  $A_{gm}$  also gives the total supply of the GM crop,  $x_{gm}$ . The quantity of the GM crop being produced illegally,  $x_{gm}^c$ , is given by:<sup>8,9</sup>

$$(8) \quad x_{gm}^c = A_{gm}^c : \mathbf{P}_{gm}^c = \mathbf{P}_{gm}^h \Rightarrow x_{gm}^c = \frac{p_{gm}^s}{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}$$

while the supply of GM crop produced with purchased seed,  $x_{gm}^h$ , equals:

$$(9) \quad x_{gm}^h = x_{gm} - x_{gm}^c = \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] - [\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}] p_{gm}^s}{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}$$

---

<sup>8</sup> When the assumption of a uniform distribution of producers is relaxed, the extent of IPR infringement is affected by the skewness of the distribution. Ceteris paribus, the greater is the number of producers with relatively low values of  $A$ , the greater is  $x_{gm}^c$ .

<sup>9</sup> While the analysis assumes that illegally used seeds share the same agronomic characteristics with seeds purchased from the innovator, the model can be easily modified to examine the case where the illegally used seeds are of lower quality. If the farmer-saved seeds, for instance, result in reduced yields, the net return to production with these seeds,  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^c$ , falls and so does  $x_{gm}^c$ .

If, on the other hand, the price of the GM seed is such that  $p_{gm}^s \geq \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$ ,

all GM crop producers will find it economically optimal to use GM seeds illegally. The

$\mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$  curve lies underneath  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^c$  and  $\mathbf{P}_t$  curves over all values of  $A$  (not shown in Figure 3)

and there is no supply of GM crop produced with purchased seeds, i.e.,  $x_{gm}^h = 0$ . In this case, the supply of GM crop equals:

$$(10) \quad x_{gm}^c = x_{gm} = A_{gm}^c : \mathbf{P}_{gm}^c = \mathbf{P}_t \Rightarrow x_{gm}^c = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}$$

### *Innovator's Problem*

When enforcement of IPRs is exogenous to the innovator, the problem of the innovating firm can be seen as the determination of the price of the new technology (GM seed) that maximizes its profits given the level of IPR enforcement determined by the domestic government and the best response function of the producers (i.e., the demand for GM seed).

Assuming fixed proportions between seed and farm output, the demand for GM seed is given by equation (9) (i.e.,  $x_{gm}^s = x_{gm}^h$ ), and the problem of the seed company can be written as:

$$(11) \quad \begin{aligned} \max_{p_{gm}^s} \quad & \mathbf{p} = (p_{gm}^s - m)x_{gm}^s \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x_{gm}^s \geq 0 \Rightarrow p_{gm}^s \leq \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} \end{aligned}$$

The Lagrangean of the innovator's problem is:

$$L = (p_{gm}^s - m) \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] - [\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}] p_{gm}^s}{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} + \mathbf{I} \left[ \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} - p_{gm}^s \right]$$

while the Kuhn-Tucker conditions for a maximum are:

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L} p_{gm}^s} \leq 0, \quad p_{gm}^s \geq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L} p_{gm}^s} p_{gm}^s = 0$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L} \mathbf{I}} \geq 0, \quad \mathbf{I} \geq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L} \mathbf{I}} \mathbf{I} = 0$$

Solving the optimality conditions for  $p_{gm}^s$  shows that, for a given marginal cost of producing the GM seed and given prices of the traditional seed, the GM crop and the traditional crop, the innovator's pricing decisions depend on the level of IPR enforcement/IPR protection by the domestic government,  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}$ . Specifically, if  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} \geq \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$ , the intercept of the derived demand for GM seed faced by the innovator is greater than or equal to the marginal cost of production and the optimal price-quantity combination is determined by equating marginal revenues with marginal costs of producing the GM seed. Mathematically, the optimal  $p_{gm}^s$  is:

$$(12) \quad p_{gm}^s = \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] + m}{2} + \frac{m}{2}$$

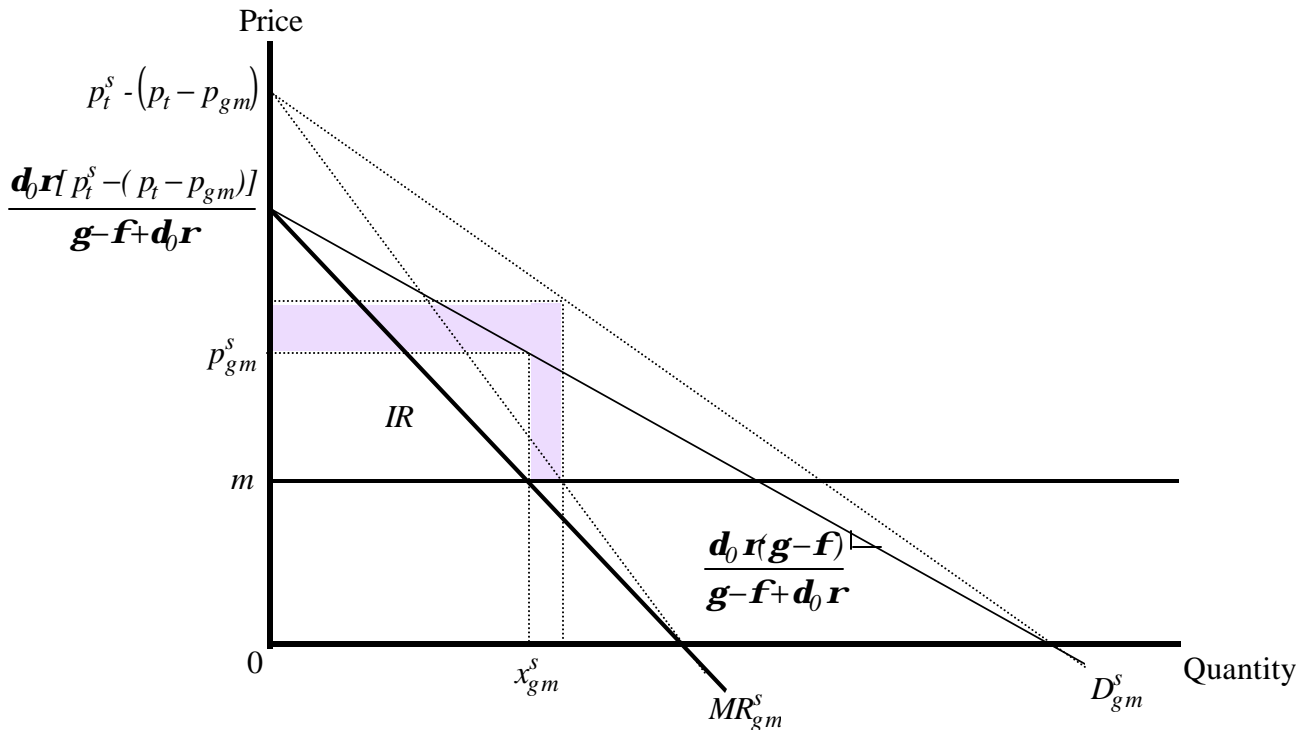
and the equilibrium quantity supplied by the innovator is given by:

$$(13) \quad x_{gm}^s = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} - \frac{m}{2\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} = \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m] - (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{2\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}$$

Figure 4 graphs the determination of the equilibrium  $p_{gm}^s$  and  $x_{gm}^s$  when the level of enforcement is such that  $d_0 r > \frac{(g-f)m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$ . Recall that, under fixed proportions between seed and farm output,  $x_{gm}^s$  also gives the quantity of the GM crop produced with purchased seed,  $x_{gm}^h$ , while substituting the optimal  $p_{gm}^s$  into equation (8) gives the equilibrium quantity of GM crop that is produced with illegally used seed, i.e.,

$$(14) \quad x_{gm}^c = \frac{d_0 r [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) + m] + (g-f)m}{2d_0 r(g-f + d_0 r)}$$

**Figure 4. Production and Pricing of GM Seed and Innovator's Welfare Losses under Imperfect Enforcement of IPRs**



$$(\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} > \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m})$$

When, on the other hand,  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} < \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$ , the intercept of the derived demand for

GM seed lies underneath the marginal cost of production and the profit-maximizing seed

company will find it optimal to exit this market i.e.,  $x_{gm}^s = 0$ . In this case,  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$  in equation (7)

becomes irrelevant (i.e., farmers have no choice of producing GM crop with purchased seed),

and all GM crop is produced with illegally used seed, i.e.,

$$(15) \quad x_{gm}^c = x_{gm} = A_{gm}^c : \mathbf{P}_{gm}^c = \mathbf{P}_t \Rightarrow x_{gm}^c = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}$$

Based on these results we can determine the consequences of imperfect IPR enforcement for the price and quantity of the GM seed, the adoption of the new technology, and the welfare of the interest groups. Specifically,

**PROPOSITION 2.** *IPR infringement reduces the price of the new technology and the quantity supplied by the innovator.*

*Proof.* Written in inverse form, the demand curve for the GM seed under imperfect IPR enforcement (i.e., equation (9)) is:

$$(16) \quad p_{gm}^s = \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} \left\{ [p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})] - (\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})x_{gm}^s \right\} \left( = \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} (p_{gm}^s)^{pe} \right)$$

where  $(p_{gm}^s)^{pe}$  is the inverse form of the demand for GM seed under perfect enforcement of IPRs (equation (3)). Since  $\mathbf{g} > \mathbf{f}$ ,  $\frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}} < 1$  which implies that IPR infringement reduces the demand faced by the innovator. Graphically, cheating causes a counter-clockwise rotation of the derived demand for seed through the point at which the demand curve meets the horizontal axis (Figure 4). Since IPR infringement reduces both the intercept and the slope of the demand for GM seed, it reduces the profit maximizing price-quantity combination of the new technology. Specifically, comparing the equilibrium prices under perfect and imperfect enforcement of IPRs (equations (5) and (12), respectively) shows that IPR infringement reduces the price charged by the innovator by  $\frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$ . Similarly, the equilibrium supply of GM seed under

imperfect IPR enforcement (equation (13)) is reduced relative to the quantity supplied under perfect enforcement (equation (6)) by  $\frac{m}{2\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}$  (or, by  $\frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}$  when

$\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} < \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$  and the innovator finds it optimal to exit this market).

Note that these results are consistent with empirical evidence showing that weak protection of IPRs reduces imports in developing countries and distorts trade (Maskus and Penubarti; Smith).

**PROPOSITION 3.** *IPR infringement increases the adoption of the new technology by producers.*

*Proof.* Aggregating the quantities of GM crop produced with purchased seed (equation (13)) and illegally used seed (equation (14)) shows that the total quantity of GM crop produced under



imperfect enforcement of IPRs exceeds the quantity produced in the “perfect IPR enforcement”

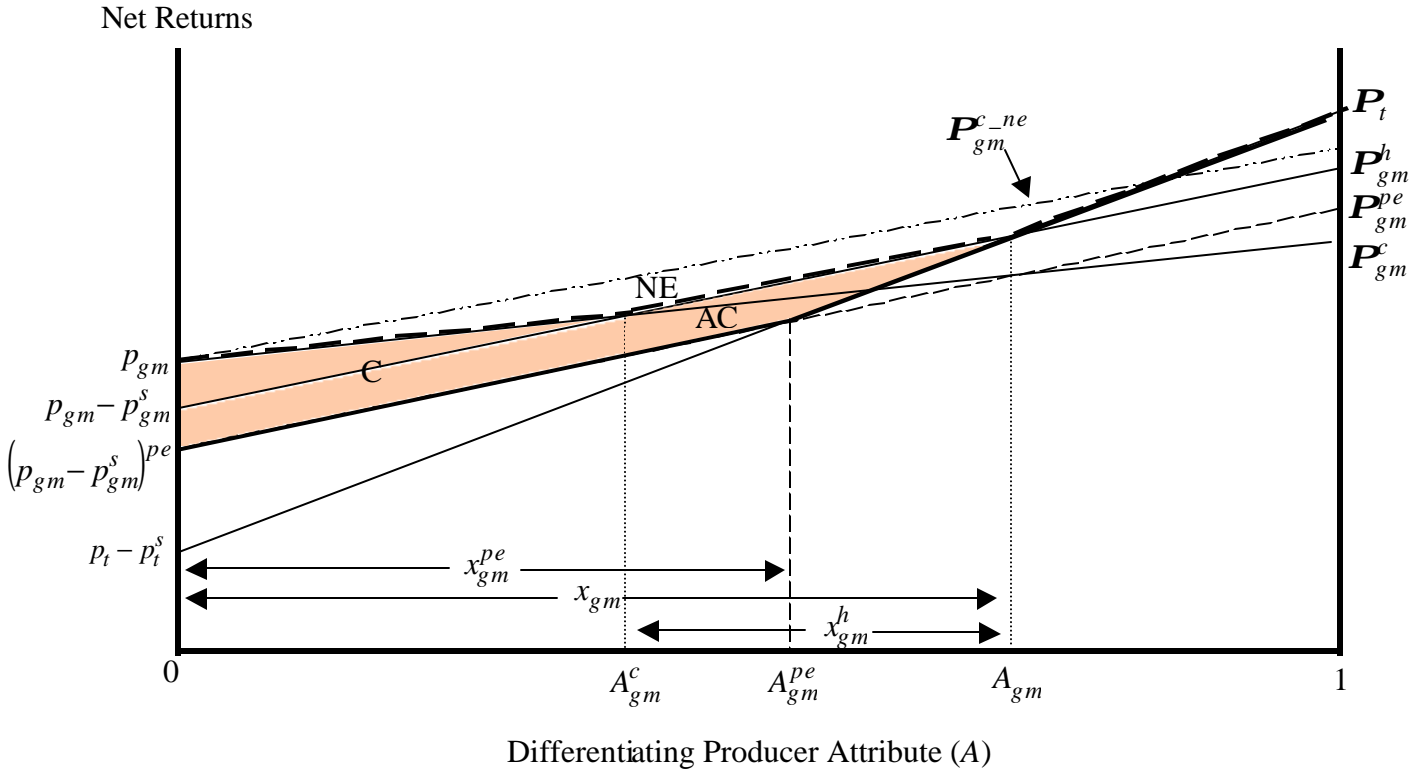
case (equation (6)) by  $\frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$  (compare  $x_{gm}$  with  $x_{gm}^{pe}$  in Figure 5 where the

superscript  $pe$  stands for perfect IPR enforcement). When  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} < \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$  IPR

infringement increases the total GM crop production by

$$\frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) + m] - \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m]}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$$

**Figure 5. Production and Welfare Consequences of IPR Infringement**



$$(\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} > \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m})$$

Following Propositions 2 and 3 we can determine the welfare effects of IPR infringement for the innovating firm and producers. Specifically,

**PROPOSITION 4.** *Imperfect IPR enforcement reduces the rents accruing to the innovator.*

*Proof.* The reduced (derived) demand for the new technology (GM seed) faced by the innovator and the consequent reduced equilibrium price and quantity of GM seed when producers use GM seed illegally, cause innovator welfare to fall. The decrease in monopolistic rents accruing to the

innovator equals  $\mathbf{Dp} = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]^2}{4(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})} - \frac{m^2}{4\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}}$  and is shown by the shaded area in Figure 4.

Obviously, when  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} < \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$  no GM seed is supplied and the entire

monopolistic rent under perfect IPR enforcement goes unrealized - IPR infringement reduces

then innovator rents by  $\mathbf{Dp} = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m]^2}{4(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}$ .

Regarding the consequences of imperfect IPR enforcement for producers,

**PROPOSITION 5.** *IPR infringement increases the welfare of producers. It increases the welfare of producers that use the GM seed illegally and also the welfare of domestic producers that purchase the GM seed.*

*Proof.* Imperfect enforcement of IPRs increases the welfare of producers that use the GM seed illegally by the shadowed area C in Figure 5. At the same time, IPR infringement creates a positive externality for producers that purchase the GM seed they use, through its effect on the price of the seed. Graphically, the reduction in  $p_{gm}^s$  when cheating occurs shifts the  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$  curve

upwards which increases producer welfare by the hatched area AC in Figure 5. Obviously, when

$d_0 r < \frac{(g-f)m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$ , the curve  $P_{gm}^h$  becomes ineffective and the relevant net returns

curve associated with the production of the GM crop is shown as  $P_{gm}^{c-ne}$  in Figure 5. In this

case, producer welfare gains from cheating are given by areas C+AC+NE in Figure 5.<sup>10</sup>

### *Government's Problem and Optimal Enforcement of IPRs*

The analysis in the previous sections indicates that the pricing of the new technology and the amount of cheating depend on the level of IPR protection. This part of the paper determines the optimal decisions of the government that is responsible for the enforcement of IPRs.

The problem of the government is to determine the degree to which the innovator's IPRs are enforced, knowing exactly how its decisions will affect the behavior and welfare of the seed company and producers. The degree to which IPRs are enforced is determined by the detection probability and per unit penalty parameters. Penalties on detected illegal use of GM seeds are often set elsewhere in the legal system. With penalties being exogenous, the only avenue policy makers have for influencing the agents' behavior is through the choice of audit probability  $d_0$ .

Specifically, the problem of the government can be seen as the determination of the audit probability that maximizes the country's welfare subject to a "minimum innovator rent" (*MIR*) constraint requiring that innovator rents do not fall below some minimum level,  $\bar{IR}$ , i.e.,

---

<sup>10</sup> While the analysis assumes that use of farmer-saved seeds is illegal, this might not necessarily be the case. When farmers are allowed to use seed harvested from the previous year's crop (e.g., case of Argentina), the analysis can be seen as applying to use of GM seed purchased from the black market. The implications of farmers' ability to legally use farmer-saved GM seeds are quite straightforward. Obviously, GM crop producers with access to saved seed will find it optimal to use it. Legal use of farmer-saved seeds increases producer surplus and the adoption of new technology while reducing the demand faced by the seed company, the price and quantity of the GM seed supplied in the developing country, and the rents accruing to the innovator.

$$(17) \quad \begin{aligned} \max_{\mathbf{d}_0} \quad & W = PS - TC \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & IR \geq \overline{IR} (\geq 0) \end{aligned}$$

The parameters  $PS$ ,  $TC$ , and  $IR$  stand for producer surplus, taxpayer costs, and innovator rents, respectively. Consumer surplus is not included in the objective function of the government since, in the small open economy case, domestic enforcement and production decisions have no effect on the price of the final (GM or traditional) product.

Taxpayer costs are given by the costs associated with IPR enforcement,  $F(\mathbf{d}_0)$ , adjusted to account for the distortionary costs of taxation, i.e.,  $TC = (1+d)F(\mathbf{d}_0)$  (Fullerton; Ballard and Fullerton). Regarding producer surplus and innovator rents, they depend on the level of

enforcement. Specifically, when  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} \geq \frac{(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$ , producer surplus is given by:

$$(18) \quad PS = p_t - p_t^s + \frac{\mathbf{g}}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}(B-m)^2 + 2(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})(2B^2 - B + m)}{8(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})} + \frac{(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})m^2}{8\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$$

and innovator rents equal:

$$(19) \quad IR = \frac{[\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}(B-m) - (\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})m]^2}{4\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$$

where  $B = p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})$ . If, on the other hand,  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} < \frac{(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}$   $PS$  increases to

$$(20) \quad PS = p_t - p_t^s + \frac{\mathbf{g}}{2} + \frac{B^2}{2(\mathbf{g}-\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}$$

while innovator rents fall to zero (i.e.,  $IR = 0$ ).

The Lagrangean of the government's problem is  $L = PS - TC + \mathbf{I}(IR - \overline{IR})$  while the Kuhn-Tucker conditions for a maximum are:

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L}d_0} \leq 0, \quad d_0 \geq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L}d_0} d_0 = 0$$

$$\frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L}\mathbf{I}} \geq 0, \quad \mathbf{I} \geq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\mathcal{L}}{\mathcal{L}\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{I} = 0$$

PROPOSITION 6. *The optimal enforcement of IPRs will be such that the MIR constraint always binds, i.e., the optimal audit probability will be such that innovator rents are equal to  $\overline{IR}$ .*

*Proof.* Solving the optimality conditions for  $d_0$  shows that, for any minimum desirable surplus transfer to the innovator, domestic welfare is maximized when:

$$(21) \quad d_0 : IR = \overline{IR}$$

The reasoning of this result is as follows. Since  $d_0$  decreases domestic welfare (by decreasing producer surplus,  $\frac{\partial PS}{\partial d_0} < 0$ , and increasing the resource costs of IPR enforcement,

$\frac{\partial F(d_0)}{\partial d_0} > 0$ ), while increasing innovator rents,  $\frac{\partial IR}{\partial d_0} > 0$ , domestic welfare is maximized when

enforcement is such that the surplus transfer to the innovator is minimized, i.e.,  $IR = \overline{IR}$ .<sup>11</sup>

---

<sup>11</sup> An alternative formulation of the government's objective function could include  $IR$  as a direct argument. Specifically, the problem of the government can also be modeled as  $\max_{d_0} W = kIR + \mathbf{q}PS - TC$  where  $\mathbf{q}$  and  $k$  are the weights placed by the government on  $PS$  and  $IR$ , respectively. Since enforcement decreases producer welfare while increasing both the welfare of the innovator and the enforcement costs, the optimal level of audits is

The same result also holds when penalties for IPR infringement are endogenous to the government, i.e., when the government has control over both  $\mathbf{d}_0$  and  $\mathbf{r}$ ; enforcement is set so that  $IR = \overline{IR}$ . However, when the determination of fines is costless (i.e., when the cost associated with setting fines is negligible), the desired level of IPR enforcement can be achieved at (almost) zero cost. Specifically, since both audits and penalties are inversely related to the amount of GM crop produced with illegally used seed (i.e.,  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}^c}{\partial \mathbf{d}_0} < 0$  and  $\frac{\partial x_{gm}^c}{\partial \mathbf{r}} < 0$ ), the government can substitute costly audits with costless fines; it can set  $\mathbf{d}_0$  arbitrarily close to zero and increase penalties to the level at which the desired level of IPR enforcement is achieved, i.e.,

$$(22) \quad \mathbf{d}_0 \cong 0, \quad \mathbf{r}: IR = \overline{IR}$$

Obviously, since innovator rents depend on IPR enforcement, the lower is  $\overline{IR}$ , the weaker is IPR protection, and the more extensive is IPR infringement in the developing country.

**PROPOSITION 7.** *When the government does not consider the effect of its choices on innovator rents but, instead, is merely concerned with maximizing domestic welfare, its optimal choice is to completely allow unauthorized use of the GM seed.*

*Proof.* Substituting  $\overline{IR} = 0$  into equation (17) shows that domestic welfare is maximized when:

$$(23) \quad \mathbf{d}_0 = \mathbf{r} = 0$$

---

determined by the relative weight placed by the government on the welfare of the interest groups and the size of enforcement costs,  $\mathbf{y}$ ; i.e.,  $\mathbf{d}_0(k, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{y})$ . In this case, for given market conditions, the greater is the weight placed by the government on *PS*, or/and the greater is the size of enforcement costs, or/and the lower is the weight placed on innovator rents, the lower is the level of enforcement.

When IPR infringement is allowed, domestic producer welfare is maximized (i.e.,

$$PS = p_t - p_t^s + \frac{\mathbf{g}}{2} + \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})]^2}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}), \text{ and enforcement costs are zero. An interesting}$$

implication of this result is that when innovator welfare carries no weight for the domestic government, IPRs will not be enforced even if the innovator wishes to incur the monitoring costs (in which case enforcement is costless for the government). Lack of enforcement also maximizes the production of the GM crop, i.e.,

$$(24) \quad x_{gm} (= x_{gm}^c) = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm})}{\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f}}$$

indicating that zero enforcement will also be the optimal choice of the government that has as objective to maximize the adoption of the new technology.<sup>12</sup>

**PROPOSITION 8.** *When the government wishes to transfer the maximum possible amount of profits to the innovator, IPRs will be perfectly enforced.*

*Proof.* Since the value of  $IR$  is maximized under perfect enforcement of IPRs, the government will deter IPR infringement through the establishment of a *very* tiny probability of a *very* severe

punishment for producers caught cheating. Substituting  $\overline{IR} = \frac{[p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m]^2}{4(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})}$  into the

government's problem shows that the government will find it optimal to set:

---

<sup>12</sup> Note that the equilibrium under  $\mathbf{d}_0 = \mathbf{r} = 0$  will emerge also when the IPRs granted to the innovator in its home country are not valid (i.e., are not protected) in the developing country under concern (e.g., case of patents and plant variety protections that are valid in individual countries only). The reason is that, in such a case, use of the new technology without paying royalty fees to the innovator is not illegal, i.e., the expected loss from IPR infringement is zero.

$$(25) \quad \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} = \infty \quad (\text{with } \lim_{\mathbf{r} \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{d}_0 = 0)$$

Because infringement is completely deterred when innovator rents are valued highly by the government, the production decisions by producers, the pricing of the new technology, and the welfare of the interest groups are those under perfect enforcement of IPRs derived earlier.

Since the optimal amount of enforcement is determined by  $\overline{IR}$ , the question that naturally arises is what are the determinants of the size of the minimum desirable surplus transfer to the innovator.

Factors affecting  $\overline{IR}$  include (but are not limited to): (i) the political influence of the innovating firm in the developing country, (ii) the bilateral relationship with, and the fear of retaliation from, the country of origin of the innovating firm, (iii) the severity of the sanctions in case the developing country is successfully convicted for imperfectly enforcing the innovator's IPRs, (iv) the conjectures of the domestic government regarding the effect of its enforcement policy on the future development of (and domestic access to) new technologies,<sup>13</sup> and (v) the size of the enforcement costs. All these are factors that affect the importance being placed by the government on the welfare of the innovating firm and thus, the size of  $\overline{IR}$ .

Obviously, the greater is the political influence of the innovator, or/and the stronger is the relationship between the developing country and the country of origin of the innovating firm, or/and the greater is the likelihood that imperfect IPR enforcement will be detected and successfully convicted, or/and the greater is the severity of potential retaliatory sanctions, or/and

---

<sup>13</sup> If the government believes that its actions have no effect on innovators' investment decisions (i.e., "too small to count"), it is less likely that IPRs will be enforced. The impact of domestic policy on future development of new technologies depends on the size of the domestic market. The smaller is the domestic market, the smaller is the effect of government's enforcement decisions on *total* innovator rents, and the weaker will be the incentives for IPR protection.



the stronger is the belief of the government that extensive violation of IPRs will adversely affect the future development of new technologies (and domestic producer access to them), or/and the lower are the resource costs associated with IPR enforcement, the greater is  $\bar{I}R$ , and the greater is the level of IPR enforcement in the developing country.<sup>14</sup>

In this context, given the developing countries' vocal opposition to the granting of IPRs for agricultural crops, the lack of an effective mechanism that will monitor IPR enforcement around the world, the lack of an agreement on the penalty associated with IPR violation, the small size of most developing economies, and the significant resource costs of monitoring farmers, the weak IPR protection in these countries should come to no surprise.

## EXTENSIONS OF THE MODEL

### *No Labeling of GM Products*

Consider now the situation where the final (GM or/and traditional) products are not labelled. In this case, the GM crop and its traditional counterpart are marketed together and the price received by producers is the same regardless of which crop is produced – there is no price premium received by producers of the traditional crop i.e.,  $p_t = p_{gm}$  (Giannakas and Fulton).

The lack of a price premium for the traditional crop increases the relative profitability of the GM crop and affects the quantitative nature of the results derived in the previous two sections.

---

<sup>14</sup> Note that it is not actually necessary for the innovator to be a foreign firm for the previous analysis to hold – the main results also apply to the case where the innovator is a firm from the developing country. Specifically, when the innovator is a domestic firm, the optimal level of IPR protection (and, thus, the pricing and adoption of the new technology in this country) is still determined by the political preferences of the government i.e., the minimum desirable transfer to the innovator. However, since surplus is redistributed domestically when the innovator is a firm from the developing country, it can be hypothesized that innovator rents carry a greater weight for the government (and IPR protection is stronger) when the innovator is a domestic firm.

PROPOSITION 9. *When compared to the labeling case, no labeling of GM products increases the demand for GM seed by producers,  $x_{gm}^s$ , the price of the new technology charged by the innovator,  $p_{gm}^s$ , and the adoption of the new technology in the developing country,  $x_{gm}$ , no matter if enforcement of IPRs is perfect or not. When IPR enforcement is imperfect, no labeling increases both the supply of GM crop produced with purchased seed,  $x_{gm}^h$ , and the quantity of GM crop produced with illegally used seed,  $x_{gm}^c$ .*

*Proof.* Substituting zero for  $p_t - p_{gm}$  in equations (5), (6), (12), and (13) results in higher  $x_{gm}^s$ ,  $p_{gm}^s$ , and  $x_{gm}$  under both enforcement scenarios. Specifically, in the benchmark case where enforcement of IPRs is perfect, no labeling of GM products increases  $x_{gm}^s$  (and  $x_{gm}$ ) by

$$\frac{p_t - p_{gm}}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} \text{ and } p_{gm}^s \text{ by } \frac{p_t - p_{gm}}{2}.$$

When enforcement is imperfect, no labeling increases  $x_{gm}^s$

$$\text{and } p_{gm}^s \text{ by } \frac{(p_t - p_{gm})}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} \text{ and } \frac{\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}(p_t - p_{gm})}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}, \text{ respectively. Finally, no labeling results in}$$

increased cheating and increased adoption of the new technology relative to the labeling case

$$\text{(i.e., } x_{gm}^c \text{ and } x_{gm} \text{ increase by } \frac{(p_t - p_{gm})}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})} \text{) and } \frac{[2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f}) + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}](p_t - p_{gm})}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r})}, \text{ respectively).}$$

PROPOSITION 10. *When compared to the labeling case, no labeling of GM products reduces the likelihood that the innovator will exit the market.*

The level of IPR enforcement,  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r}$ , required for the innovator to supply the market (i.e., for

$$x_{gm}^s > 0) \text{ is reduced from } \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m} \text{ under labeling of GM products, to } \frac{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})m}{p_t^s - m} \text{ in}$$

the no labeling case. Since no labeling reduces this critical level of enforcement, it increases the likelihood that a realized level of IPR enforcement will exceed the critical one, and, thus, the likelihood that the innovator will find it optimal to supply this market.

*Enforcement is Endogenous to Innovator*

The previous analysis and results are based on the assumption that enforcement of IPRs is the responsibility of the developing country's government. This part of the paper examines the situation where IPR enforcement is endogenous to the innovating firm. Two scenarios are examined. In the first scenario, the innovating seed company is responsible for auditing the producers but penalties are set in the developing country. In the second scenario, the seed company has control over both audits and the magnitude of fines on detected IPR violators.

**PROPOSITION 11.** *When the innovator is responsible for monitoring the producers and penalties are exogenous, the optimal audit probability depends on the size of the enforcement costs. The greater are the resource costs of enforcing the IPRs, the lower is the optimal enforcement. When enforcement costs are relatively high, exit from the market is the optimal policy of the firm.*

*Proof.* Incorporating monitoring and enforcement costs of the form  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{d}_0) = \mathbf{y}\mathbf{d}_0$  into the innovator's objective function (i.e., equation (11)) and maximizing with respect to  $\mathbf{d}_0$  shows that the optimal audit probability depends on the size of the enforcement costs  $\mathbf{y}$ . Specifically, the optimality conditions indicate that if  $\mathbf{y}$  is less than a critical value

$$\mathbf{y}^+ \left( = \frac{\mathbf{r}(p_{gm}^s - m) \left[ (p_t^s - p_{gm}^s) - (p_t - p_{gm}) \right]^2}{(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})^2 p_{gm}^s} \right), \text{ the optimal audit probability equals}$$

$\mathbf{d}_0 = \sqrt{\frac{(p_{gm}^s - m)p_{gm}^s}{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{r}}}$ . When, on the other hand,  $\mathbf{y}$  is greater than (or equal to)  $\mathbf{y}^+$ , the

innovator will find it optimal to not supply this market (and  $\mathbf{d}_0 = 0$ ). In this case,  $\mathbf{P}_{gm}^h$  in equation (7) becomes irrelevant and all GM crop is produced with illegally used seed.

The situation is different when the innovator controls both  $\mathbf{d}_0$  and  $\mathbf{r}$ :

**PROPOSITION 12.** *When penalties are endogenous to the innovator, cheating is completely deterred through the establishment of enormous fines for producers caught violating the innovator's IPRs. In this case, the production decisions by producers, the pricing of the new technology, and the welfare of the interest groups are those under perfect enforcement of IPRs.*

*Proof.* Solving the problem of the innovating firm with respect to both  $\mathbf{d}_0$  and  $\mathbf{r}$  shows that the

innovator will find it optimal to set  $\mathbf{d}_0 \mathbf{r} = \infty$  (with  $\lim_{\mathbf{r} \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{d}_0 = 0$ ). In this case,  $x_{gm}^c = 0$ ,

$$p_{gm}^s = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) + m}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad x_{gm}^s = \frac{p_t^s - (p_t - p_{gm}) - m}{2(\mathbf{g} - \mathbf{f})} (= x_{gm}^h).$$

Even though the possibility that the foreign innovating firm will be delegated the establishment of (severe) penalties for IPR violators is potentially conceivable, it is not particularly appealing. While innovators can (and do) lobby for increased fines for IPR infringement, the punishment of detected cheaters will most likely lie with the domestic government. In this case, unless the government of the developing country is forced to establish specific fines (which is the ambition of developed countries/members of the TRIPs agreement),

the level of IPR enforcement will still be determined by the minimum desirable surplus transfer to the innovator,  $\overline{IR}$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{r} \cdot IR = \overline{IR} \ \forall \mathbf{d}_0$ ).

Specifically, if the government does not consider the effect of its choices on innovator welfare (i.e., if  $\overline{IR} = 0$ ), IPR infringement will go unpunished (i.e.,  $\mathbf{r} = 0$ ), the innovating firm will exit this market and  $\mathbf{d}_0 = 0$  (from Proposition 11, when  $\mathbf{r} = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{y}^\dagger$  falls to zero and  $\mathbf{d}_0 = 0$ ). On the other hand, if the government desires to maximize innovator rents, it will severely penalize detected IPR violators (i.e.,  $\mathbf{r} = \boldsymbol{\mu}$ ), and IPRs will be perfectly enforced (from Proposition 11, when  $\mathbf{r}$  is  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}^\dagger$  rises to  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  and  $\mathbf{d}_0$  reduces to (almost) zero).

The perfect enforcement of IPRs through the establishment of enormous fines, however, raises the question as to whether large fines for IPR infringement are reasonable. The literature on the economics of crime provides some guidance and evidence on this issue. Specifically, it has been argued that severe punishment for minor law violations (i.e., Becker's "optimal fine" result) is neither costless, credible nor just. The imposition of disproportionate fines would likely offend the public sense of justice; in short, justice requires that the punishment fit the crime (Carr-Hill and Stern; Stern; Stigler; Shavell; Cowell). If producer compliance through the establishment of enormous and costless fines is indeed infeasible, then violation of IPRs will always be an issue and should be incorporated into economic analysis.

## FURTHER CONSEQUENCES OF IPR INFRINGEMENT

The results on the consequences of IPR infringement can help explain differential pricing of new technologies by innovating firms in different markets around the world. Specifically,

PROPOSITION 13. *Different levels of IPR enforcement rationalize different prices for the same technology charged by innovators in different countries around the world.*

*Proof.* It has been shown that the level of IPR enforcement is influenced by the importance being placed by the government/IPR enforcer on innovator rents and influences the demand for the new technology. The lower is enforcement, the greater is IPR infringement, and the lower is the demand for the new technology. The lower is the demand faced by the innovator, the lower is the price that maximizes its profits. Thus, differences in IPR enforcement in different countries result in, *ceteris paribus*, different prices set by the profit-maximizing innovator that can price discriminate.

From Proposition 13 it follows that:

PROPOSITION 14. *IPR infringement increases the competitiveness of domestic producers that utilize the new technology by placing foreign producers that comply with the provisions of innovator's IPRs at a cost disadvantage.*

*Proof.* Since IPR infringement reduces the price of the new technology in the domestic country, the greater is the extent of IPR violation, the lower is the price of the new technology and the greater is the cost advantage of domestic producers relative to producers in countries where IPRs are more effectively enforced.

Therefore, the effect of IPR infringement on the welfare of producers that comply with the provisions of the innovator's IPRs depends on the market the "honest" producers operate. Infringement of IPRs benefits "honest" producers of the country where IPR enforcement is lax (by reducing the price they pay for the new technology) while placing producers at foreign

countries with increased compliance (reduced cheating) at a cost disadvantage. Reduced enforcement and allowance of IPR infringement can thus be viewed as a strategic choice of governments aiming at providing a competitive edge to domestic users of the new technology.

### **SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The introduction of IPRs is one of the most notable features of agricultural biotechnology. So are growing concerns about the widespread infringement of IPRs in developing countries. This study develops a model of heterogeneous producers to examine the economic causes of IPR infringement and its consequences for the welfare of the interest groups and the pricing and adoption of a new technology (a GM seed) in the context of a small open developing economy. Enforcement of IPRs, and pricing and adoption of the new technology are modeled as a sequential game between the government that enforces the IPRs, a foreign innovating firm that prices the GM seed, and the domestic farmers who make the production and cheating decisions.

Analytical results show that producer compliance with IPR provisions is not the natural outcome of self-interest and complete deterrence of IPR infringement is not always economically optimal. IPR infringement affects the welfare of the interest groups and has important ramifications for the pricing and adoption of the new technology. Specifically, violation of innovator's IPRs reduces the price of the new technology. While the quantity supplied by the innovator falls with IPR infringement, the adoption of the new technology increases when producers use the GM seed illegally. This is true no matter if the final GM (or/and traditional) products are labeled or not. The labeling regime does affect the quantitative nature of the results,

however. In general, when compared to labeling, no labeling increases the price and adoption of the new technology, while reducing the likelihood that the innovator will exit the market.

The reduced price of the new technology under imperfect IPR protection means that while IPR infringement reduces the rents accruing to the innovator/IPR holder, it increases the welfare of all developing country's producers - imperfect IPR enforcement increases the welfare of IPR violators and also the welfare of producers that purchase the GM seed they use.

Since IPR infringement increases the welfare of domestic producers while reducing innovator rents, the level of optimal enforcement is determined by the political preferences of the government. The lower is the importance the developing country's government places on foreign innovator rents, the lower is the level of IPR enforcement, and the lower is innovator's ability to obtain value for its biotech traits.

When the government does not consider the effect of its choices on innovator rents but, instead, is merely concerned with maximizing domestic welfare, its optimal choice is to leave IPR infringement unpunished. This is true even if the innovator incurs enforcement costs. The innovating firm's ability to obtain value for its biotech traits is then eliminated and, as a consequence, the firm exits this market. On the other hand, enforcement will be perfect when innovator welfare is valued highly by the government and/or when the innovating firm controls both audits and penalties for IPR infringement. While the investigation of producers by the innovating firm is possible, the delegation of domestic producers' punishment to a foreign firm is not very likely. When the innovating firm audits producers but penalties are set in the developing country, enforcement of IPRs is effectively determined by the domestic government.

Different governments can be expected to have different attitudes towards innovator rents, and thus, different enforcement policies. Since the price of the new technology falls with



the extent of IPR violation, differences in the level of IPR protection provide an alternative justification for (and explanation of) differences in the pricing of the new technology in different countries around the world – a strategy adopted by leading innovators in the sector.

Consequently, IPR infringement increases the competitiveness of domestic producers that utilize the new technology by placing foreign producers that comply with the provisions of innovator's IPRs at a cost disadvantage. Lax IPR enforcement can thus be used strategically by governments aiming at increasing the competitiveness of their producers in the international arena.

Given the absence of an effective supranational monitoring agency and the lack of an agreement on the penalties associated with IPR violation, the benefits from IPR infringement rationalize the lax enforcement and widespread violation of IPRs in developing countries. In terms of the TRIPs agreement, it seems to be well understood that the outcome of the on going negotiations on the magnitude of fines for IPR infringement will be critical for the future level of protection enjoyed by innovators/IPR holders. What needs to be understood equally well however, is that if IPRs are to be effectively enforced it is necessary for the TRIPs agreement to go beyond the norms of GATT.

Given that developing country's welfare gains from lax IPR enforcement exceed the innovator's losses, if the penalties determined under the TRIPs agreement follow the custom of retaliatory sanctions under the GATT and reflect losses to the innovator, they will be proved insufficient in providing adequate incentives for IPR protection. Unless the WTO manages through the TRIPs agreement to "exceed its limits" and establish an effective enforcement mechanism, enforcement of IPRs will remain imperfect and innovators' ability to obtain value for their biotech traits will still be limited. However, given the lack of a precedent and

developing countries' opposition to IPRs, an agreement on the establishment of fines that would exceed innovator damages will not be easy.

## REFERENCES

- Alston, J.M., and R.J. Venner. 2001. The effects of the U.S. plant variety protection act on wheat genetic improvement. *Research Policy*. Forthcoming.
- Ballard, C.L., and D. Fullerton. 1992. Distortionary taxes and the provision of public goods. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 6(Summer): 117-131.
- Becker, G.S. 1968. Crime and punishment: An economic approach. *Journal of Political Economy*, 76(March/April): 169-217.
- Carr-Hill, R., and N.H. Stern. 1977. Theory and estimation in models of crime and its social control and their relations to concepts of social output. In *The economics of public services*, eds., M.S. Feldstein, and R.P. Inman. London: Macmillan.
- Cowell, F.A. 1990. *Cheating the government: The economics of evasion*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Fullerton, D. 1991. Reconciling recent estimates of the marginal welfare cost of taxation. *American Economic Review*, 81(March): 302-308.
- Fulton, M.E. 1997. The economics of intellectual property rights: Discussion. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 79(December): 1592-1594.
- Fulton, M.E., and K. Giannakas. 2000. *The impact of biotechnology on concentration and structure in the agricultural inputs industry: Discussion paper*. Ottawa, Canada: Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, April.
- Giannakas, K., and M.E. Fulton. 2001. Consumption effects of genetic modification: What if consumers are right?" *Agricultural Economics*. Forthcoming.
- Gibbons, R. 1992. *Game theory for applied economists*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Hayenga, M. 1998. Structural change in the biotech seed and chemical industrial complex." *AgBioForum*, 1: 43-55.
- Holmberg, M. 2000. Cheaper roundup ready seed gives Argentina an advantage. *Successful Farming*, April, p. 9.
- Just, R.E., and D.L. Hueth. 1993. Multimarket exploitation: The case of biotechnology and chemicals. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 75(November): 936-945.
- Kreps, D.M. 1990. *A course in microeconomic theory*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Lesser, W. 1998. Intellectual property rights and concentration in agricultural biotechnology. *AgBioForum*, 1: 56-61.

- Mansfield, E. 1983. The case for and against a uniform worldwide intellectual property rights system. In *Global dimensions of intellectual property rights in science and technology*, ed., M.B. Wallerstem, M.E. Moguee and R.A. Schoen, eds., Washington DC: National Academy Press.
- Maskus, K.E. 2000. *Intellectual property rights in the global economy*. Washington DC: Institute for International Economics.
- Maskus, K.E., and M. Penubarti. 1995. How trade-related are intellectual property rights?" *Journal of International Economics*, 39(November): 227-248.
- Moschini, G., and H. Lapan. 1997. Intellectual property rights and the welfare effects of agricultural R&D. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 79 (November): 1229-1242.
- Perrin, R.K. 1999. Intellectual property rights and developing country agriculture. *Agricultural Economics*, 21(December): 221-229.
- Ringo, F.S. 1994. The trade-related aspects of intellectual property rights agreement in the GATT and legal implications for Sub-Saharan Africa: Prospective policy issues for the World Trade Organization. *Journal of World Trade*, 28: 121-139.
- Shavell, S. 1987. The optimal use of nonmonetary sanctions as a deterrent. *American Economic Review*, 77 (September): 584-592.
- Smith, P.J. 1999. Are weak patent rights a barrier to U.S. exports? *Journal of International Economics*, 48 (June): 151-177.
- Stern, N.H. 1978. On the economic theory of policy towards crime. In *Economic models of criminal behavior*, ed. J.M. Heineke. Amsterdam: North-Holland.
- Stigler, G.J. 1970. The optimum enforcement of laws. *Journal of Political Economy*, 78 (May/June): 526-536.
- Taylor, M.S. 1993. TRIPs, trade and technology transfer. *Canadian Journal of Economics*, 26 (August): 625-637.
- U.S. General Accounting Office. 2000. *Biotechnology: Information on prices of genetically modified seeds in the United States and Argentina*. Washington DC: GAO Report RCED/NSIAD-00-55.

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

### LIST OF EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

- 01 *Sustainable Agricultural Development Strategies in Fragile Lands*, by Sara J. Scherr and Peter B.R. Hazell, June 1994.
  - 02 *Confronting the Environmental Consequences of the Green Revolution in Asia*, by Prabhu L. Pingali and Mark W. Rosegrant, August 1994.
  - 03 *Infrastructure and Technology Constraints to Agricultural Development in the Humid and Subhumid Tropics of Africa*, by Dunstan S.C. Spencer, August 1994.
  - 04 *Water Markets in Pakistan: Participation and Productivity*, by Ruth Meinzen-Dick and Martha Sullins, September 1994.
  - 05 *The Impact of Technical Change in Agriculture on Human Fertility: District-level Evidence From India*, by Stephen A. Vosti, Julie Witcover, and Michael Lipton, October 1994.
  - 06 *Reforming Water Allocation Policy Through Markets in Tradable Water Rights: Lessons from Chile, Mexico, and California*, by Mark W. Rosegrant and Renato Gazri S, October 1994.
  - 07 *Total Factor Productivity and Sources of Long-Term Growth in Indian Agriculture*, by Mark W. Rosegrant and Robert E. Evenson, April 1995.
  - 08 *Farm-Nonfarm Growth Linkages in Zambia*, by Peter B.R. Hazell and Behjat Hoijati, April 1995.
  - 09 *Livestock and Deforestation in Central America in the 1980s and 1990s: A Policy Perspective*, by David Kaimowitz (Interamerican Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture), June 1995.
  - 10 *Effects of the Structural Adjustment Program on Agricultural Production and Resource Use in Egypt*, by Peter B.R. Hazell, Nicostrato Perez, Gamal Siam, and Ibrahim Soliman, August 1995.
  - 11 *Local Organizations for Natural Resource Management: Lessons from Theoretical and Empirical Literature*, by Lise Nordvig Rasmussen and Ruth Meinzen-Dick, August 1995.
  - 12 *Quality-Equivalent and Cost-Adjusted Measurement of International Competitiveness in Japanese Rice Markets*, by Shoichi Ito, Mark W. Rosegrant, and Mercedita C. Agcaoili-Sombilla, August 1995.
-

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 13 *Role of Inputs, Institutions, and Technical Innovations in Stimulating Growth in Chinese Agriculture*, by Shenggen Fan and Philip G. Pardey, September 1995.
  - 14 *Investments in African Agricultural Research*, by Philip G. Pardey, Johannes Roseboom, and Nienke Beintema, October 1995.
  - 15 *Role of Terms of Trade in Indian Agricultural Growth: A National and State Level Analysis*, by Peter B.R. Hazell, V.N. Misra, and Behjat Hoijati, December 1995.
  - 16 *Policies and Markets for Non-Timber Tree Products*, by Peter A. Dewees and Sara J. Scherr, March 1996.
  - 17 *Determinants of Farmers' Indigenous Soil and Water Conservation Investments in India's Semi-Arid Tropics*, by John Pender and John Kerr, August 1996.
  - 18 *Summary of a Productive Partnership: The Benefits from U.S. Participation in the CGIAR*, by Philip G. Pardey, Julian M. Alston, Jason E. Christian, and Shenggen Fan, October 1996.
  - 19 *Crop Genetic Resource Policy: Towards a Research Agenda*, by Brian D. Wright, October 1996.
  - 20 *Sustainable Development of Rainfed Agriculture in India*, by John M. Kerr, November 1996.
  - 21 *Impact of Market and Population Pressure on Production, Incomes and Natural Resources in the Dryland Savannas of West Africa: Bioeconomic Modeling at the Village Level*, by Bruno Barbier, November 1996.
  - 22 *Why Do Projections on China's Future Food Supply and Demand Differ?* by Shenggen Fan and Mercedita Agcaoili-Sombilla, March 1997.
  - 23 *Agroecological Aspects of Evaluating Agricultural R&D*, by Stanley Wood and Philip G. Pardey, March 1997.
  - 24 *Population Pressure, Land Tenure, and Tree Resource Management in Uganda*, by Frank Place and Keijiro Otsuka, March 1997.
  - 25 *Should India Invest More in Less-favored Areas?* by Shenggen Fan and Peter Hazell, April 1997.
-

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 26 *Population Pressure and the Microeconomy of Land Management in Hills and Mountains of Developing Countries*, by Scott R. Templeton and Sara J. Scherr, April 1997.
  - 27 *Population Land Tenure and Natural Resource Management: The Case of Customary Land Area in Malawi*, by Frank Place and Keijiro Otsuka, April 1997.
  - 28 *Water Resources Development in Africa: A Review and Synthesis of Issues, Potentials, and Strategies for the Future*, by Mark W. Rosegrant and Nicostrato D. Perez, September 1997.
  - 29 *Financing Agricultural R&D in Rich Countries: What's Happening and Why?* by Julian M. Alston, Philip G. Pardey, and Vincent H. Smith, September 1997.
  - 30 *How Fast Have China's Agricultural Production and Productivity Really Been Growing?* by Shenggen Fan, September 1997.
  - 31 *Does Land Tenure Insecurity Discourage Tree Planting? Evolution of Customary Land Tenure and Agroforestry management in Sumatra*, by Keijiro Otsuka, S. Suyanto, and Thomas P. Tomich, December 1997.
  - 32 *Natural Resource Management in the Hillside of Honduras: Bioeconomic Modeling at the Micro-Watershed Level*, by Bruno Barbier and Gilles Bergeron, January 1998.
  - 33 *Government Spending, Growth, and Poverty: An Analysis of Interlinkages in Rural India*, by Shenggen Fan, Peter Hazell, and Sukhadeo Thorat, March 1998. Revised December 1998.
  - 34 *Coalitions and the Organization of Multiple-Stakeholder Action: A Case Study of Agricultural Research and Extension in Rajasthan, India*, by Ruth Alsop, April 1998.
  - 35 *Dynamics in the Creation and Depreciation of Knowledge and the Returns to Research*, by Julian Alston, Barbara Craig, and Philip Pardey, July, 1998.
  - 36 *Educating Agricultural Researchers: A Review of the Role of African Universities*, by Nienke M. Beintema, Philip G. Pardey, and Johannes Roseboom, August 1998.
  - 37 *The Changing Organizational Basis of African Agricultural Research*, by Johannes Roseboom, Philip G. Pardey, and Nienke M. Beintema, November 1998.
  - 38 *Research Returns Redux: A Meta-Analysis of the Returns to Agricultural R&D*, by Julian M. Alston, Michele C. Marra, Philip G. Pardey, and T.J. Wyatt, November 1998.
-

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 39 *Technological Change, Technical and Allocative Efficiency in Chinese Agriculture: The Case of Rice Production in Jiangsu*, by Shenggen Fan, January 1999.
- 40 *The Substance of Interaction: Design and Policy Implications of NGO-Government Projects in India*, by Ruth Alsop with Ved Arya, January 1999.
- 41 *Strategies for Sustainable Agricultural Development in the East African Highlands*, by John Pender, Frank Place, and Simeon Ehui, April 1999.
- 42 *Cost Aspects of African Agricultural Research*, by Philip G. Pardey, Johannes Roseboom, Nienke M. Beintema, and Connie Chan-Kang, April 1999.
- 43 *Are Returns to Public Investment Lower in Less-favored Rural Areas? An Empirical Analysis of India*, by Shenggen Fan and Peter Hazell, May 1999.
- 44 *Spatial Aspects of the Design and Targeting of Agricultural Development Strategies*, by Stanley Wood, Kate Sebastian, Freddy Nachtergaele, Daniel Nielsen, and Aiguo Dai, May 1999.
- 45 *Pathways of Development in the Hillsides of Honduras: Causes and Implications for Agricultural Production, Poverty, and Sustainable Resource Use*, by John Pender, Sara J. Scherr, and Guadalupe Durón, May 1999.
- 46 *Determinants of Land Use Change: Evidence from a Community Study in Honduras*, by Gilles Bergeron and John Pender, July 1999.
- 47 *Impact on Food Security and Rural Development of Reallocating Water from Agriculture*, by Mark W. Rosegrant and Claudia Ringler, August 1999.
- 48 *Rural Population Growth, Agricultural Change and Natural Resource Management in Developing Countries: A Review of Hypotheses and Some Evidence from Honduras*, by John Pender, August 1999.
- 49 *Organizational Development and Natural Resource Management: Evidence from Central Honduras*, by John Pender and Sara J. Scherr, November 1999.
- 50 *Estimating Crop-Specific Production Technologies in Chinese Agriculture: A Generalized Maximum Entropy Approach*, by Xiaobo Zhang and Shenggen Fan, September 1999.
- 51 *Dynamic Implications of Patenting for Crop Genetic Resources*, by Bonwoo Koo and Brian D. Wright, October 1999.
-



## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 52 *Costing the Ex Situ Conservation of Genetic Resources: Maize and Wheat at CIMMYT*, by Philip G. Pardey, Bonwoo Koo, Brian D. Wright, M. Eric van Dusen, Bent Skovmand, and Suketoshi Taba, October 1999.
- 53 *Past and Future Sources of Growth for China*, by Shenggen Fan, Xiaobo Zhang, and Sherman Robinson, October 1999.
- 54 *The Timing of Evaluation of Genebank Accessions and the Effects of Biotechnology*, by Bonwoo Koo and Brian D. Wright, October 1999.
- 55 *New Approaches to Crop Yield Insurance in Developing Countries*, by Jerry Skees, Peter Hazell, and Mario Miranda, November 1999.
- 56 *Impact of Agricultural Research on Poverty Alleviation: Conceptual Framework with Illustrations from the Literature*, by John Kerr and Shashi Kolavalli, December 1999.
- 57 *Could Futures Markets Help Growers Better Manage Coffee Price Risks in Costa Rica?* by Peter Hazell, January 2000.
- 58 *Industrialization, Urbanization, and Land Use in China*, by Xiaobo Zhang, Tim Mount, and Richard Boisvert, January 2000.
- 59 *Water Rights and Multiple Water Uses: Framework and Application to Kirindi Oya Irrigation System, Sri Lanka*, by Ruth Meinzen-Dick and Margaretha Bakker, March 2000.
- 60 *Community natural Resource Management: The Case of Woodlots in Northern Ethiopia*, by Berhanu Gebremedhin, John Pender and Girmay Tesfaye, April 2000.
- 61 *What Affects Organization and Collective Action for Managing Resources? Evidence from Canal Irrigation Systems in India*, by Ruth Meinzen-Dick, K.V. Raju, and Ashok Gulati, June 2000.
- 62 *The Effects of the U.S. Plant Variety Protection Act on Wheat Genetic Improvement*, by Julian M. Alston and Raymond J. Venner, May 2000.
- 63 *Integrated Economic-Hydrologic Water Modeling at the Basin Scale: The Maipo River Basin*, by M. W. Rosegrant, C. Ringler, D.C. McKinney, X. Cai, A. Keller, and G. Donoso, May 2000.
- 64 *Irrigation and Water Resources in Latin America and the Caribbean: Challenges and Strategies*, by Claudia Ringler, Mark W. Rosegrant, and Michael S. Paisner, June 2000.
-

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 65 *The Role of Trees for Sustainable Management of Less-favored Lands: The Case of Eucalyptus in Ethiopia*, by Pamela Jagger & John Pender, June 2000.
- 66 *Growth and Poverty in Rural China: The Role of Public Investments*, by Shenggen Fan, Linxiu Zhang, and Xiaobo Zhang, June 2000.
- 67 *Small-Scale Farms in the Western Brazilian Amazon: Can They Benefit from Carbon Trade?* by Chantal Carpentier, Steve Vosti, and Julie Witcover, September 2000.
- 68 *An Evaluation of Dryland Watershed Development Projects in India*, by John Kerr, Ganesh Pangare, Vasudha Lokur Pangare, and P.J. George, October 2000.
- 69 *Consumption Effects of Genetic Modification: What If Consumers Are Right?* by Konstantinos Giannakas and Murray Fulton, November 2000.
- 70 *South-North Trade, Intellectual Property Jurisdictions, and Freedom to Operate in Agricultural Research on Staple Crops*, by Eran Binenbaum, Carol Nottenburg, Philip G. Pardey, Brian D. Wright, and Patricia Zambrano, December 2000.
- 71 *Public Investment and Regional Inequality in Rural China*, by Xiaobo Zhang and Shenggen Fan, December 2000.
- 72 *Does Efficient Water Management Matter? Physical and Economic Efficiency of Water Use in the River Basin*, by Ximing Cai, Claudia Ringler, and Mark W. Rosegrant, March 2001.
- 73 *Monitoring Systems for Managing Natural Resources: Economics, Indicators and Environmental Externalities in a Costa Rican Watershed*, by Peter Hazell, Ujjayant Chakravorty, John Dixon, and Rafael Celis, March 2001.
- 74 *Does Guanxi Matter to Nonfarm Employment?* by Xiaobo Zhang and Guo Li, June 2001.
- 75 *The Effect of Environmental Variability on Livestock and Land-Use Management: The Borana Plateau, Southern Ethiopia*, by Nancy McCarthy, Abdul Kamara, and Michael Kirk, July 2001.
- 76 *Market Imperfections and Land Productivity in the Ethiopian Highlands*, by Stein Holden, Bekele Shiferaw, and John Pender, August 2001.
- 77 *Strategies for Sustainable Agricultural Development in the Ethiopian Highlands*, by John Pender, Berhanu Gebremedhin, Samuel Benin, and Simeon Ehui, August 2001.
-

## EPTD DISCUSSION PAPERS

---

- 78 *Managing Ruminant Livestock in Drought-Prone Areas in the Middle East and North Africa: Policy Issues*, by Peter Hazell, Peter Oram, Nabil Chaherli, September 2001.
- 79 *Accessing Other People's Technology: Do Non-Profit Agencies Need It? How To Obtain It*, by Carol Nottenburg, Philip G. Pardey, and Brian D. Wright, September 2001.
-