MODELLING THE IMPACT OF THE EXOTIC FOREST PEST NECTRIA ON THE NEW ZEALAND FOREST SECTOR AND ITS MAJOR TRADING PARTNERS

JAMES A. TURNER*,

Scion, Private Bag 3020, Rotorua, New Zealand

JOSEPH BUONGIORNO, SHUSHUAI ZHU,

Forest and Wildlife Ecology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706, USA

JEFFREY P. PRESTEMON,

Southern Research Station, U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Research Triangle Park, NC 27709, USA

RUHONG LI,

Forest and Wildlife Ecology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706, USA

and LINDSAY S. BULMAN

Ensis, Private Bag 3020, Rotorua, New Zealand

(Received for publication 19 April 2007; revision 16 October 2007)

ABSTRACT

The possible impact of *Nectria fuckeliana* Booth on the forests and forest industries of New Zealand, a significant exporter of industrial roundwood, was estimated for different scenarios of the spread of the fungal pest and trade measure responses in export markets. An economic model was used to assess the direct effect of the pest and the potential impact of trade bans and phytosanitary regulations to prevent pest arrival in New Zealand's major export markets — China, Japan, and South Korea. Depending on the assumed area affected by *N. fuckeliana*, the net present value of New Zealand's forest sector gross revenue was US\$34 million to US\$612 million lower, due to reduced harvest and log exports, even without foreign trade measures. A possible measure, requiring the debarking of New Zealand log exports, would reduce the present value of New Zealand growers' revenues by US\$1,200 million, even if *N. fuckeliana* were confined to the already

^{*} Corresponding author: james.turner@scionresearch.com

New Zealand Journal of Forestry Science 37(3): 383-411 (2007)

affected area. If China, Japan, and South Korea banned imports of New Zealand logs altogether, and the pest continued to spread at historical rates, the present value of New Zealand growers' revenues would decrease by US\$8,200 million. Estimated losses to growers could be, to varying extents, offset by increased domestic production of processed wood products, under both trade measures. The debarking and import ban policies would increase gross revenues for producers in China and South Korea, but also increase the cost to consumers of wood products.

Keywords: exotic forest pests; international trade; phytosanitary regulations; forest sector model.

BACKGROUND

New Zealand's wood product exports were worth US\$1,551 million at year end February 2006, accounting for 9.2% of all exports by value (Statistics New Zealand 2006). These exports are based on highly productive plantation forests of *Pinus radiata* D. Don and *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco (Brown 1997), which face a significant threat from exotic forest pests, such as Nectria disease caused by the fungus *Nectria fuckeliana*.

More than 400 pest threats known to affect *P. radiata* are currently not present in New Zealand (Flux *et al.* 1993), but the growth of global trade is increasing the risk of unintentional introductions (Tkacz 2002). The severe threat that exotic pests pose to forest ecosystems has led to a variety of measures, such as phytosanitary regulations — fumigation and heat treatments, debarking, visual inspections, phytosanitary certificates — or import bans, to reduce the risk of importing pests (Powell 1997; New Zealand Forest Research Institute 1999; Roberts 1999; Roberts *et al.* 1999).

These trade measures can affect domestic and foreign wood product industries and consumers in numerous ways. There are clear benefits from reducing the risk of damage to forest resources and hence loss of production and exports (Rose 1983; USDA Forest Service 1991; Pimentel *et al.* 2000; Turner *et al.* 2004). However, trade regulations have a cost. Exporting countries may lose access to markets. Importing countries may have to forego cheaper foreign products and raw materials (Roberts *et al.* 1999; Mumford 2002).

The full economic impact of regulations to prevent the importation of exotic pests can be assessed by measuring price and quantity changes for producers and consumers along the wood product value chain from the forest to the end consumer, through various stages of manufacture. At each stage, consumer and producer surplus should be assessed, to the extent possible.

To capture these various effects Roberts *et al.* (1999) suggested an economic framework (1) which is easily understood, (2) is comprehensive enough to represent a range of trade measures, and (3) into which empirical data on trade regulations

and exotic pest impacts can be incorporated for the estimation of trade, production, consumption, and welfare effects. To this list we would add, (4) the ability to represent the temporal effect of exotic pests on forest resources — because forest pests are biological organisms that grow, reproduce, multiply, actively and passively disperse, interact with ecosystems in unpredictable ways, and randomly evolve (Powell 1997) — and (5) the ability to represent complex interactions, through trade, among countries. This is necessary to determine how regulations in a particular country or its trading partners affect their forest sector. It depends on how world prices are affected by the regulation and whether the affected exporter is able to sell in other markets (Roberts *et al.* 1999).

Market equilibrium models have been a fruitful approach for predicting the effects of regulations to reduce the risk of importing exotic pests (Beghin & Bureau 2001). They have the characteristics necessary to fully assess the main impacts, and they have already been applied successfully to policy analysis.

Studies of the economic and trade effects of phytosanitary regulations in the agricultural sector (Roberts *et al.* 1999) commonly conclude that the short- and long-run effects of pests, and policies to reduce the risk of their import, are to lower aggregate wealth and to redistribute it within a country and beyond its borders. In the country imposing the policy consumers pay higher prices, while producers benefit. In the exporting country, producers experience production losses.

Krissoff *et al.* (1997) and Calvin & Krissoff (1998) examined technical regulations imposed on United States apple exports to Japan, South Korea, and Mexico. Sumner & Lee (1997) determined the cost of complying with Asian regulations on vegetable imports from the United States. Orden & Romano (2006) estimated the effect of production losses in the United States avocado industry resulting from the possibility of pest infestation from Mexican imports. They measured the benefits to United States producers of a ban on avocado imports from Mexico, as well as the cost to United States consumers. Roberts *et al.* (1999) assessed the economic effects of easing the United States ban on the importation of avocados from Mexico, distinguishing between regulatory protection, supply-shift, and demand-shift effects.

Paarlberg & Lee (1998) calculated the "optimum tariff" on imports of beef from regions with foot-and-mouth disease. The "optimum tariff" was set to maximise the difference between the consumers' gains from trade and the costs to the domestic industry from the spread of the disease. James & Anderson (1998) assessed the costs and benefits of quarantine restrictions in Australia while explicitly taking into account the probability of contamination.

Past analyses of the impact of exotic pests on the forest sector (Kuchler & Duffy 1984; Holmes 1991; USDA Forest Service 1991; Turner *et al.* 2004) have not considered phytosanitary regulations. Prestemon *et al.* (2006) seem to have made

the only attempt to determine the full costs and benefits of regulations on United States imports of softwood logs from Russia, which potentially carry the Asian gypsy and nun moths. They used the Global Forest Products Model (Buongiorno *et al.* 2003) to simulate different interventions — phytosanitary, direct trade barriers, and detection and control — by the United States and to assess their cost and efficacy, and hence their effect on producers and consumers.

The objective of this study was to predict the potential economic impact of the fungus *Nectria fuckeliana*, which has been found in exotic timber plantations in the South Island of New Zealand (Wang & Thode 2004; Dick *et al.* 2006). Both the direct effect of the pest, in terms of forest loss, and the indirect effect due to trade measures imposed by importers of New Zealand logs were considered. By studying New Zealand we assessed the implications of forest pests and phytosanitary regulations from the perspective of a significant exporter of industrial roundwood, while Prestemon *et al.* (2006) focused on the United States as an importer. The implications in terms of aggregate timber production, prices, consumption, and net trade are, therefore, likely to be very different. Below, we discuss first the economic model, outline the alternative pest spread and policy scenarios, and then describe in detail the results and their implications.

METHODS AND MATERIALS Economic Model

The impact of *N. fuckeliana* on wood product production, trade, and prices, and on forest resources in New Zealand, its markets, and competitors was predicted from 2002 to 2030 with the Global Forest Products Model (Buongiorno *et al.* 2003). The GFPM has previously been used to forecast forest sector development (Turner, Buongiorno, Maplesden, Zhu, Bates & Li 2006) and to study issues such as the effects of accelerated tariff liberalisation (Zhu *et al.* 2001) and of trade agreements on the New Zealand forest sector (Turner *et al.* 2001), the global impact of waste paper recycling in the United States (Zhu & Buongiorno 2002), effects of illegal logging on the United States forest sector (Seneca Creek 2004), and the impact of the Free Trade Area of the Americas on forest resources (Turner *et al.* 2005).

The GFPM is a dynamic market equilibrium model that integrates wood supply, processing industries, product demand, and trade. Wood producing, consuming, and manufacturing activities are modelled with supply and demand equations, and activity analysis. Countries are linked by trade. Inter-temporal linkages are exogenous, as for changes in techniques of production in pulp and paper, or endogenous, as for shifts in wood supply and changes in forest area and forest stock^{*}.

^{*} The mathematical specification of the GFPM is given in Appendix A. Turner, Buongiorno, Zhu & Li (2006) have provided a complete description of model assumptions. Model assumptions specific to New Zealand are given in Appendix B. Model data are available from the authors upon request.

Forest resources and harvests are represented in the GFPM by equations describing the annual roundwood harvest, and the changes of forest stock and forest area (Turner, Buongiorno & Zhu 2006). The harvest volume is a function of prices, forest stock (endogenous), and gross domestic product per capita (exogenous).

Forest stock evolves according to a growth-drain equation (Brooks 1987):

$$I_{i,t+1} = (1 + g_{it}^a + g_{it}^u)I_{it} - S_{it}$$
^[1]

where S_{it} is the total roundwood harvest in country *i* and year *t*, g_{it}^a is the rate of change in forest stock (I_{it}) due to forest area change (afforestation/deforestation), g_{it}^u is the rate of forest growth on a given area, without harvest and under normal conditions — in particular without exotic forest pests.

The annual relative change of forest area in all countries (except for New Zealand in this study, see below) is a function of income per capita (Y/N), as in the environmental Kuznets curve for forestry (Vincent *et al.* 1997):

$$g_{it}^{a} = \alpha_{0} + \alpha_{1} \left(Y_{it} / N_{it} \right) + \alpha_{2} \left(Y_{it} / N_{it} \right)^{2}$$
^[2]

The annual relative change of forest stock due to growth is an inverse function of forest density – stock per unit area, I/A (Oliver & Larson 1996):

$$g_{it}^{u} = \gamma_0 (I_{it} / A_{it})^{-a}$$
[3]

The effect of an invasive species was represented by reducing this rate of growth of forest stock by various amounts, g_{it}^{u*} , over time, to simulate different rates of pest spread. These changes in forest stock would then affect future harvests and growth via the wood supply equation and Equation [3].

New Zealand's industrial roundwood harvests are almost entirely from plantations; 0.1% of harvests in 2005 were from native forests (NZFOA 2006). Thus, only the planted forest estate was considered in this study. In 2003 New Zealand had 1.83 million ha of planted forest with a volume of 398 million m³ (NZFOA 2005), growing at 18 to 24 m³/ha per year (Brown 1997) — or $g^u = 8.3\%$ per year of the current growing stock. Estimates of new plantings are 30 100 ha in 2002 and 22 100 ha in 2003 (NZFOA 2005). For the projections we assumed a long-run average planting rate of 20 000 ha per year (NZMAF 2000) — equivalent to $g^a = 1.09\%$ per year addition to the plantation estate (Table B.3).

Impacts of Nectria

Nectria fuckeliana is found in New Zealand; it is found in Scandinavia, Northern Europe, and North America generally at latitudes greater than 50°N, although it has been recorded in Oregon and Northern California. In New Zealand the fungus commonly, but not exclusively, enters trees through the pruning stub and this leads to stain and decay within the stem (Dick *et al.* 2006), affecting the most valuable section of the tree, the pruned log (NZFOA 2005).

Nectria may have arrived in New Zealand in the late 1980s or early 1990s, according to anecdotal reports. The first formal collection was made in 1996, and by the end of 2005 targeted surveys had demonstrated that the fungus was present throughout the wood supply regions of Southland and Otago, and occurred in parts of Canterbury (Waimate, Timaru, and Mackenzie territorial authorities). Those regions contain 34 million $m^3 - 8.6\%$ — of New Zealand's total forest stock (NZMAF 2004). Further surveys were carried out in Canterbury in 2006 and 2007. By April 2007, the northernmost find was at Banks Peninsula, approximately 140 km from the nearest known location recorded in April 2004.

Regional incidence surveys carried out in Southland and Otago in 2006 showed 20% of the trees were affected to some extent. Wang & Thode (2004) suggested 4 to 39%. The volume loss per tree could be 5 to 10%, given that 8% of trees were assessed as having medium damage and 5% were assessed as having severe damage, but as Nectria affects the most valuable section of the stem^{*}, we assumed a volume loss of 10%. Taken together, the assumptions imply a reduction in New Zealand's total forest stock of 0.172% ($8.6\% \times 20\% \times 10\%$). The assumed pattern of stock reduction was 0.109% in 2003, reflecting the stock lost from 1990 to 2003, an additional stock reduction of 0.028% in 2004, 0.036% in 2005, and no further reduction from 2006 to 2030.

If Nectria's spread continued at historical rates — approximately 100 km every 2 years — the fungus could affect Southland, Otago, and Canterbury by 2008, and all of the South Island (excluding the West Coast) by 2014. This study also considered the possibility of Nectria establishing itself, by either natural or unnatural means, in the North Island. It was assumed that the disease would arrive in the North Island in 2007 and be completely established by 2011 (Fig. 1). This rate of spread was assumed to be more rapid than in Canterbury and Nelson, due to the more favourable climate in the central North Island and the abundance of suitable host material. The rate of stock reduction under this scenario is shown in Fig. 2.

Log Importer Policy Response

Of the 8.3 million m³ of logs exported by New Zealand in 2002, 20% went to the People's Republic of China, 18% to Japan, and 48% to South Korea (FAO 2005). We assumed that these countries might respond to the spread of Nectria in New Zealand in three ways (G. Hosking, Hosking Forestry, pers. comm.): (1) do nothing, (2) allow imports of debarked roundwood only, or (3) ban all industrial roundwood imports from New Zealand. These represent the range of possible responses. Others include inspections, certification in New Zealand, or fumigation,

^{* 60%} of the tree value is in the pruned log of 27-year-old *P. radiata* grown on a direct sawlog regime (NZFOA 2005)

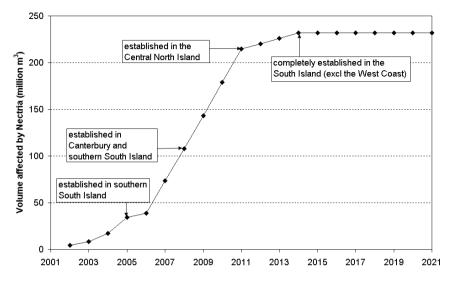


FIG. 1–Assumed volume of New Zealand's plantation forest affected by the spread of Nectria.

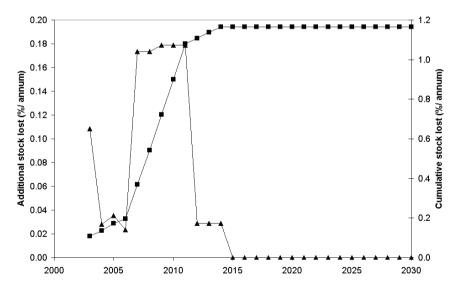


FIG. 2–Annual additional (▲) and cumulative (■) New Zealand forest stock lost due to Nectria spread to all of the South Island (excluding the West Coast) and the North Island.

which, like debarking, add to varying degrees to the cost of freight for New Zealand industrial roundwood.

Each response was analysed under two levels of Nectria invasion — staying confined to its current area, or spreading to all of the South Island (excluding the

West Coast) and the central North Island (Fig. 2). While it is likely that the fungus will spread throughout the North Island, we confined the response analysis to the central North Island on the conservative assumption that the disease would not cause significant damage in other regions due to climatic factors. Each of the six response-spread scenarios was compared with the status quo scenario in which there would be no Nectria in New Zealand and thus no need for a response by China, Japan, and South Korea.

Debarking was estimated to cost US\$4.42/m³, based on costs of NZ\$4.27/m³ to NZ\$6.39/m³ in 1988 New Zealand dollars (W.Blundell & G.Murphy unpubl. data), adjusted to 2005 US dollars using the New Zealand consumer price index and a New Zealand to US dollar exchange rate of 0.55 in 2005. The cost includes log handling, which is 40 to 60% of the total cost. This cost of debarking was modelled as an increase in the level of the industrial roundwood freight cost (Equation A.11) for New Zealand log exports to China, Japan, and South Korea.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

No Response by China, Japan and South Korea

For no policy action by China, Japan, and South Korea, depending on the extent of Nectria spread, New Zealand forest stock was predicted to be 200 000 m³ to 20 million m³ lower in 2030 than without the pest (Table 1). From 2002 to 2030, the average annual harvest was 20 900 m³ to 1.3 million m³ per year lower, 0.1 to 4.5% (Table 2). This reduction in New Zealand harvests led to substantially lower industrial roundwood exports — a 1.4 million m³ per year or 7.0% reduction were Nectria to spread beyond its current extent. There were modest changes in New Zealand's production and net trade (exports minus imports) of all other wood products — less than 4% — with larger reductions for sawnwood, wood-based panels, and wood pulp than for paper products (Table 2).

Total net imports of industrial roundwood by China, Japan, and South Korea were unchanged – less than 1% per year difference (Table 2) – because reduced imports from New Zealand were replaced by imports from Brazil (8% per year increase) and Chile (1% per year increase) (Table 3). New Zealand industrial roundwood exports to China, Japan, and South Korea were barely affected by Nectria at its current extent (Table 4) and, as a result, harvest and stock in China, Japan, and South Korea were unchanged (Tables 1 and 2). However, were Nectria to spread throughout the South Island and central North Island, industrial roundwood exports to Japan and the rest of the world would be lower by 252 000 m³ per year and 1.4 million m³ per year, respectively (Table 4). Log exports to China would remain unchanged, reflecting China's strong demand for wood driven by rapid economic growth and the relatively small increase in the price of New Zealand industrial roundwood (Fig. 3).

	Do nothi	ng	NZ debarks log	g exports	CJK* ban NZ logs		
	(million m ³)	(%)	(million m ³)	(%)	(million m ³)	(%)	
Nectria confined	to current ar	ea					
New Zealand	-0.2	-0.1	41.5	6.0	319.7	46.1	
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-55.4	-0.8	
Japan	0.1	0.0	-0.8	0.0	-1.5	0.0	
South Korea	0.0	0.0	-0.6	-0.2	-25.4	-9.4	
Nectria at maxin	num spread						
New Zealand	-20.4	-2.9	16.4	2.4	253.4	12.5	
China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-55.4	-0.8	
Japan	-0.3	0.0	-1.3	0.0	-1.4	-0.0	
South Korea	0.1	0.0	-0.8	-0.3	-25.4	-9.4	

TABLE 1–Impact of Nectria on forest stock (million m³ and %) in 2030.

* CJK = China, Japan, and South Korea

Unexpectedly, New Zealand's log exports to South Korea were predicted to be slightly higher -5000 m^3 to 219 000 m³ per year, depending on the extent of Nectria spread (Table 4). This was due to the dynamics of the impact of the stock loss on New Zealand industrial roundwood prices, harvests, and log exports. The initial effect was to increase industrial roundwood prices (Fig. 3), reducing demand for New Zealand roundwood exports, and increasing harvests in South Korea. As

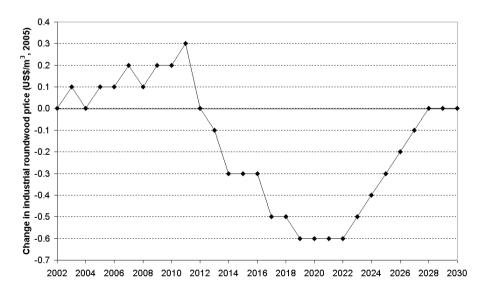


FIG. 3–Change in New Zealand industrial roundwood price (US\$/m³, 2005) due to spread of Nectria through the South Island and central North Island of New Zealand.

TABLE 2–Percenta from 200	TABLE 2–Percentage change of average annual production and net trade volume due to Nectria in New Zealand with three policy responses, from 2002 to 2030.	annual production	1 and net trade v	olume due to Neo	ctria in New Zea	uland with three p	olicy responses,
Product	Country	Do nothing Production Net	hing Net trade	NZ debarks log exports Production Net trade	log exports Net trade	CJK ban NZ logs Production Net tra	NZ logs Net trade
Nectria confined to current area) current area						
Industrial	New Zealand	-0.1	-0.1	-3.9	-14.7	-31.3	-62.3
roundwood	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	-5.8
	Japan	0.0	0.0	0.1	-0.9	0.2	-0.9
	South Korea	0.0	0.1	1.4	-0.7	78.7	-21.8
Sawnwood	New Zealand	-0.1	-0.4	21.5	79.1	32.0	115.3
	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.5	0.0
	Japan	0.0	0.0	-0.2	0.6	-0.4	0.0
	South Korea	0.0	0.0	-0.3	0.3	-11.4	0.6
Wood-based	New Zealand	-0.2	-0.3	6.9	15.1	14.3	30.4
panels	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-1.6	0.0
	Japan	0.0	0.0	-0.4	0.4	-0.8	0.7
	South Korea	0.2	-0.1	-1.1	0.6	-15.6	2.0
Wood pulp	New Zealand	-0.1	-0.2	43.2	125.4	71.5	186.0
	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.1	0.0
	Japan	0.0	0.0	-0.7	4.1	-0.4	1.7
	South Korea	0.0	0.0	-0.2	0.0	-14.0	-5.3
Paper &	New Zealand	0.0	0.1	1.1	9.7	15.3	129.9
paper board	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.4	0.7
	Japan	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	-0.1	2.0
	South Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-5.8	-30.9

392

TABLE 2-cont.							
Product	Country	Do nothing Production Net	thing Net trade	NZ debarks log exports Production Net trade	log exports Net trade	CJK ban NZ logs Production Net tra	NZ logs Net trade
Nectria at maximum spread	m spread						
Industrial	New Zealand	-4.5	-7.0	-7.9	-17.8	-31.3	-62.3
roundwood	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	-5.8
	Japan	0.1	0.0	0.2	-0.6	0.2	-0.9
	South Korea	-0.3	0.7	1.9	-0.8	78.7	-21.8
Sawnwood	New Zealand	-0.2	-0.7	15.2	57.4	31.9	115.3
	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.5	0.0
	Japan	0.0	0.0	-0.2	0.5	-0.4	0.9
	South Korea	0.1	-0.1	-0.4	0.4	-11.4	0.6
Wood-based	New Zealand	0.7	1.5	4.8	10.5	14.2	30.3
panels	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-1.6	0.0
	Japan	-0.1	0.1	-0.5	0.4	-0.7	0.7
	South Korea	1.6	-0.9	-1.2	0.6	-15.6	2.0
Wood pulp	New Zealand	1.4	3.8	32.0	94.9	70.5	185.8
	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-2.1	0.0
	Japan	0.1	-0.4	-0.3	1.7	-0.4	1.7
	South Korea	0.1	0.0	-0.2	0.0	-14.0	-5.3
Paper &	New Zealand	0.1	1.0	1.0	8.3	14.1	119.3
paper board	China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-0.5	0.7
	Japan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	-0.1	2.1
	South Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-5.8	-30.9

393

TABLE 3–Percentage change of average annual industrial roundwood net-trade in major countries due to Nectria in New Zealand with three policy responses, from 2002 to 2030

Country/Region	Do nothing	NZ debarks log exports	CJK* ban NZ logs
Nectria confined to curre	nt area		
AFRICA	0.03	1.05	1.71
South Africa	0.02	1.89	3.53
N&C AMERICA	0.04	0.14	2.56
Canada	-0.14	-0.29	-7.97
United States	0.00	0.00	0.01
SOUTH AMERICA	-0.06	2.85	4.63
Brazil	-0.30	6.65	14.57
Chile	-0.03	2.16	2.90
ASIA	0.00	-0.42	-6.58
Malaysia	0.01	0.68	1.13
OCEANIA	-0.02	-7.17	-29.70
Australia	0.01	0.48	0.94
EUROPE	0.03	6.29	9.77
Finland	-0.06	-4.44	-6.13
Russian Federation	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sweden	-0.02	-0.83	-2.08
Nectria at maximum spro	ead		
AFRICA	0.38	1.39	1.74
South Africa	0.59	3.02	3.34
N&C AMERICA	0.01	0.25	2.57
Canada	0.09	-0.89	-7.99
United States	0.00	0.01	0.00
SOUTH AMERICA	2.09	4.05	4.45
Brazil	7.98	10.88	13.49
Chile	1.02	2.92	2.82
ASIA	-0.02	-0.39	-6.57
Malaysia	0.36	0.91	1.11
OCEANIA	-3.28	-8.61	-29.71
Australia	0.25	0.79	0.93
EUROPE	3.30	7.58	9.85
Finland	-1.96	-4.91	-6.18
Russian Federation	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sweden	-2.02	-1.90	-2.15

* CJK = China, Japan, and South Korea

New Zealand harvests decreased, due to reduced demand, the stock loss due to Nectria was partially recovered (Fig. 4). This increased the potential supply of New Zealand industrial roundwood and lowered its price (Fig. 3). At the same

	Do no (10 ³ m ³	e	NZ deb log exp (10^3 m^3)	orts	CJk ban NZ (10 ³ m ³)	-
Nectria confined to cu	rrent area	<u></u>			`	
China	0	0.0	0	0.0	-4710	-86.2
Japan	-5	-0.2	-1521	-49.3	-2476	-86.2
South Korea	5	0.1	-2907	-35.4	-6459	-86.2
Rest of the world	-10	-0.2	1212	18.1	1229	18.4
Nectria at maximum s	pread					
China	0	0.0	0	0.0	-4710	-86.2
Japan	-252	-9.7	-1496	-48.7	-2476	-86.2
South Korea	219	2.3	-2707	-33.2	-6459	-86.2
Rest of the world	-1361	-27.5	278	1.7	1229	18.4

TABLE4-Effect of Nectria on New Zealand average annual exports of industrial roundwood,	
by destination, from 2002 to 2030	

* CJK = China, Japan, and South Korea

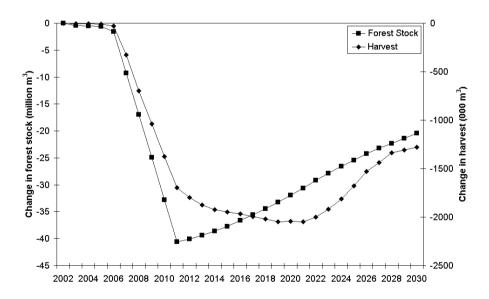


FIG. 4–Change in New Zealand plantation forest stock and industrial roundwood harvests due to spread of Nectria through the South Island and central North Island of New Zealand.

time South Korea's industrial roundwood price increased because of its more expensive domestic harvests. In response, South Korea increased its imports of New Zealand industrial roundwood in the 2020s.

Depending on the extent of Nectria spread, the net present value — at an 8% discount rate — of New Zealand producers' gross revenue* would decrease by US\$34 million to US\$612 million (Table 5). The gross revenue loss to industrial roundwood producers was US\$9 million to US\$746 million (Table 6). Most of the reduction in harvests went to a reduction in industrial roundwood exports. New Zealand consumption of industrial roundwood was unchanged.

Producer revenue in New Zealand's markets increased slightly due to some production moving to these countries. World producer revenue increased as other countries increased their production to replace New Zealand's exports to China, Japan, and South Korea.

measures						
	Do no	othing		ebarks	CJI bon M	•
	D 1		U	xports	ban NZ	0
	Producer		Produce		Producer	-
	(Consumer	S	Consumers	5 (Consumers
Nectria confined to c	urrent area					
New Zealand	-34	4	1,654	-110	-5,100	-985
China	-5	-2	-29	-7	17,321	12,101
Japan	0	1	-415	19	-228	67
South Korea	20	0	75	230	2,195	11,149
World	45	42	-1,197	121	19,118	22,683
Nectria at maximum	spread					
New Zealand	-612	88	239	0	-4,644	-824
China	31	10	21	9	17,317	12,105
Japan	96	47	-113	73	-236	63
South Korea	166	-8	133	311	2,204	11,152
World	1,525	668	962	879	19,604	22,911

TABLE 5–Gains and losses† in different countries due to Nectria and countervailing trade measures

[†] Net present value of producers' revenue and consumers' expenditure, in US\$ million 2005, with an 8% per year discount rate

‡ China, Japan, and South Korea

Debarking of Log Exports Required

The imposition of a debarking requirement by China, Japan, and South Korea further reduced New Zealand harvest and log exports. Lower industrial roundwood prices -4.1% to 4.3% on average between 2002 and 2030, depending on the extent of Nectria spread (Table 7) – contributed to harvests which were 1.2 million m³ to 2.4 million m³ (4–8%) per year lower on average (Table 2).

^{*} Gross revenue is the value of production — quantity produced multiplied by price per unit ignoring changes in the cost of raw material inputs to production.

g trade me							
Do no	thing				K† Z logs		
Droducer					U		
	-			Produce			
C	onsumers	(onsumers		Consumers		
rent area							
-9		-1,202		-8,222			
-12	0	1,087	-49	797	-440		
-10	0	368	-31	482	-47		
-6		1,395		1,618			
0	0	24	-11	408	-119		
oread							
-746		-1,687		-7,979			
-25	-2	669	-42	873	-403		
27	-1	222	-27	523	-226		
38		938		1,647			
2	0	18	-10	384	-108		
	Do nor Producers C rent area -9 -12 -10 -6 0 0 read -746 -25 27 38	Do nothing Producers Consumers rent area -9 -12 0 -10 0 -6 0 0 pread -746 -25 -227 -138	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline Do nothing & NZ de log exproducers & Producers & Producer & Consumers & O \\ \hline rent area & & & & \\ -9 & -1,202 & & \\ -12 & 0 & 1,087 & \\ -10 & 0 & 368 & & \\ -6 & 1,395 & & \\ 0 & 0 & 24 & & \\ \hline oread & & & \\ -746 & -1,687 & & \\ -25 & -2 & 669 & \\ 27 & -1 & 222 & \\ 38 & 938 & \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $		

TABLE 6-Gains and losses* of different sub	sectors in New Zealand due to Nectria and
countervailing trade measures	

* Net present value of producers' revenue and consumers' expenditure, in US\$ million 2005, with an 8% per year discount rate.

† China, Japan, and South Korea

Japan's and China's industrial roundwood harvests were almost unchanged, but South Korea's yearly harvest was 14 800 m³ to 20 400 m³ (1.4–1.9%) higher (Table 2), in accord with a 1.2–1.6% average increase in the price of industrial roundwood. The reduction in New Zealand's harvest offset the loss of forest stock due to Nectria, so that by 2030 New Zealand's forest stock was 41.5 million m³ (6%) higher (Table 1), with Nectria confined to its current extent. Were Nectria to spread throughout the South Island and central North Island the increase in New Zealand's forest stock would be less — 16.4 million m³ higher (2%) by 2030.

The extent to which such a gain in forest stock would occur depends on how New Zealand land use changes due to the lower wood price. It is possible that existing plantation forests may be converted to agriculture due to lower returns from land in forestry.

New Zealand industrial roundwood exports to China were unchanged, reflecting China's strong demand for wood. However, New Zealand exports to Japan and South Korea were significantly lower -1.5 million m³ (49%) and 2.8 million m³ (34%) on an average year, respectively (Table 4) - regardless of the extent of Nectria spread. These countries replaced imports from New Zealand, predominantly with imports from other countries, particularly Brazil (7–11% per year) and Chile (2–3% per year) (Table 3).

Product	Do nothing	NZ debarks	CJK*	
	8	log exports	ban NZ logs	
Nectria confined to current a	area			
Industrial roundwood	0.0	-4.3	-30.2	
Sawnwood	0.0	-1.3	-9.7	
Veneer & plywood	0.0	-0.8	-5.5	
Particleboard	0.0	-1.2	-8.8	
Fibreboard	0.0	-0.7	-5.0	
Mechanical pulp	0.0	-0.9	-6.9	
Chemical pulp	0.0	-0.9	-7.5	
Newsprint	0.0	-0.2	-0.6	
Printing & writing paper	0.0	0.0	-0.3	
Other paper and paperboard	0.0	-0.4	-3.1	
Nectria at maximum spread				
Industrial roundwood	-0.3	-4.1	-27.6	
Sawnwood	-0.1	-1.2	-8.8	
Veneer & plywood	-0.1	-0.7	-5.0	
Particleboard	-0.1	-1.2	-8.0	
Fibreboard	0.0	-0.6	-4.6	
Mechanical pulp	-0.1	-0.9	-6.2	
Chemical pulp	-0.1	-0.9	-6.9	
Newsprint	0.1	-0.1	-0.5	
Printing & writing paper	0.0	0.0	-0.3	
Other paper and paperboard	0.0	-0.4	-2.8	

TABLE 7–Percentage change of average prices due to Nectria in New Zealand, with three policies, from 2002 to 2030

* CJK = China, Japan, and South Korea

The reduction in New Zealand roundwood exports to the major markets due to the debarking requirement was partly offset by increased exports to the rest of the world (Table 4), due to increased demand for New Zealand industrial roundwood in these markets because of its lower price (Table 7). With Nectria confined to its current extent, exports to the rest of the world were 1.2 million m³ per year higher (Table 4). However, were Nectria to spread further, the greater reduction in industrial roundwood harvests would limit the growth in exports to the rest of the world to 278 000 m³ per year (Table 4). Overall, New Zealand's industrial roundwood exports were 3.2 million m³ to 3.9 million m³ per year lower, depending on the extent of Nectria spread.

New Zealand production and net-export of processed wood products — particularly sawnwood, wood-based panels, and wood pulp — were higher (Table 2), due to the availability of cheaper industrial roundwood (Table 7). However, this increase would not be as large were Nectria to spread throughout the South Island and central North Island (Table 2), due to the greater reduction in industrial roundwood harvests and less price decline with the greater Nectria spread.

The prices of all New Zealand wood products were slightly lower with this scenario, generally less than 1% from 2002 to 2030, with slightly larger reductions in sawnwood and particleboard prices (Table 7). These lower prices were offset by increased production, so that the present value of gross revenue to New Zealand's manufacturing industries increased (Table 6) — US\$669 million to US\$1,087 million for sawnwood, US\$222 million to US\$368 million for wood-based panels, and US\$938 million to US\$1,395 million for wood pulp, depending on the spread of Nectria. Industrial roundwood producer gross revenue decreased by US\$1,202 million to US\$1,687 million. These changes led to a gross revenue increase for the entire sector of US\$239 million to US\$1,654 million (Table 5). The gain of producers was smaller if Nectria spread widely because the attendant reduction in stock reduced domestic supply by more than the reduction of log exports, so that domestic production and revenues were curtailed.

World producer revenue was lower, as New Zealand production and net exports of processed wood products led to lower prices and production in other countries, especially United States, Brazil, Finland, and Sweden. However, New Zealand's lower production were Nectria to spread further meant that world producer revenue was higher due to less competition from New Zealand exports.

Log Import Ban

A ban on imports of New Zealand logs by China, Japan, and South Korea would have a significant negative impact on the New Zealand forest sector, regardless of the extent of Nectria spread.

The loss of exports to China, Japan, and South Korea was partly compensated for by higher exports to the rest of the world, 1.2 million m³ per year (Table 4). Nevertheless, there would be an overall decrease of 12.4 million m³ per year (62%) from 2002 to 2030. The higher exports to other markets were partly due to the lower price of New Zealand industrial roundwood, 28–30% on an average year (Table 7).

As a result of the ban on roundwood imports from New Zealand, domestic harvests would increase in China, Japan, and South Korea (Table 2). Reflecting the importance of New Zealand logs to South Korea (44% of South Korea's log imports in 2002) its annual harvest was 79% higher on average. This resulted in 9% less forest stock in South Korea by 2030 (Table 1). The impact on China's and Japan's harvests was less significant, and the impact on their forest stock was negligible (Table 1), as these countries increase industrial roundwood imports from other countries, particularly Brazil (13–15% per year) and Chile (3% per year) (Table 3).

Lower industrial roundwood prices contributed to New Zealand harvests being $9.1 \text{ million m}^3(31\%)$ lower per year (Table 2). This decrease completely compensated

for the loss of forest stock due to Nectria, so that New Zealand's forest stock was 253 million m^3 to 320 million m^3 (13–46%) higher in 2030, depending on the extent of Nectria (Table 1).

New Zealand production and net exports of processed wood products — particularly sawnwood, wood-based panels, and wood pulp — were higher (Table 2), due to the cheaper industrial roundwood. The prices of all New Zealand wood products were lower, generally 5–10% between 2002 and 2030 (Table 7).

The ban on New Zealand log imports by China, Japan, and South Korea resulted in their slightly lower production of sawnwood, wood-based panels, and wood pulp (Table 2). South Korea's industries were the most affected, due their current reliance on New Zealand logs.

The large reduction in New Zealand harvests and prices decreased the forest growers' net present gross revenue by US\$8,222 million, regardless of the spread of Nectria (Table 6). Increases in gross revenue for New Zealand's other wood product industries — due to increased production — failed to compensate for the loss to the growers, resulting in total gross revenue losses of US\$5,100 million (Table 5).

The imposition of debarking or a ban on log imports from New Zealand generally increased gross revenues for producers in China and South Korea, but also increased consumer expenditures (Table 5). This fits with the general finding that "consumers pay for quarantine in higher prices and that domestic producers benefit" (Mumford 2002). In New Zealand instead, both producer's gross revenue and consumer's expenditures* were lower (Table 5), due to lower wood product prices.

The increase in consumer expenditures in China and South Korea due to the log import ban needs to be weighed against the potential loss to producers that would arise were Nectria to become established. To estimate this potential loss requires estimates of the likelihood of establishment and potential forest loss (Prestemon *et al.* 2006) in these countries.

CONCLUSION

The economic impact of Nectria on the New Zealand forest sector, a significant exporter of industrial roundwood, was studied for a scenario confining the pest to the current area, and another where it spread at historical rates to affect the South Island and central North Island of New Zealand.

If the main importers of New Zealand logs — China, Japan, and South Korea — did nothing and Nectria were confined to the current area, the net present value

^{*} Consumer expenditure is the value of consumption, quantity consumed multiplied by price per unit.

of New Zealand's forest sector gross revenues would be US\$34 million lower over the period 2002 to 2030. Were Nectria to spread throughout the South Island and the central North Island of New Zealand, the gross revenue loss could reach US\$612 million.

Nectria alone would leave New Zealand's production of processed wood products relatively unaffected, regardless of its spread. Most of the change would be in lower industrial roundwood exports because of lower harvests tied to the stock reduction due to Nectria.

Trade measures imposed by the main importers of New Zealand logs in response to the presence of *N. fuckeliana* in New Zealand would have an impact on the New Zealand forest sector well beyond the direct effect of the pest on the volume of growing stock. If debarking of logs or another costly phytosanitary measure was imposed by importers, or if they banned New Zealand logs altogether, New Zealand growers could lose US\$1,202 million to US\$8,222 million, depending on the extent of *N. fuckeliana* spread and on the response of importers. Nevertheless, these losses to growers would be partly, and in some cases more than totally, offset by increased domestic production of processed wood products due to the lower cost of industrial roundwood.

Overall, the predicted changes to forest sector gross revenue varied from a loss of US\$4,644 million for the scenario where Nectria spread throughout the South Island and the central North Island and New Zealand logs were banned by China, Japan, and South Korea, to a gain of US\$1,654 million when Nectria was confined to its current area and China, Japan, and South Korea demanded that logs be debarked.

For producers in New Zealand and consumers in importing countries the best trade measure, in terms of changes in producer revenues and consumer expenditures, is debarking. The imposition of a debarking requirement by New Zealand's export markets would have less impact on the New Zealand total sector, and on forest grower producer revenue, than a ban. Producers in the export markets would benefit more from a ban, in terms of both increased producer revenue and reduced likelihood of forest loss due to establishment of Nectria. Consumers in export markets, however, would be worse off with the imposition of any trade measure.

In interpreting these results it must be remembered that the analysis involves a number of assumptions about disease behaviour and impact that may not necessarily be fulfilled. Currently there is no evidence that Nectria has spread by unnatural means beyond the current infected area, nor that the disease will be vectored on logs. A study is under way at present to determine fungal survival on forest produce and debris. Also, the analysis does not allow for the impact of disease management strategies that are being developed under a research programme currently under way (Dick *et al.* 2006).

Nonetheless, this assessment provides information about the possible long run effects on producers and consumers, considering trade policy responses by New Zealand's principal trading partners. This information will be helpful in deciding how much to spend to manage pest spread. The estimated effects of Nectria — US\$34 million to US\$612 million depending on the extent of the spread, even without reaction from importers of New Zealand logs — suggests that research aimed at reducing Nectria spread and impact, such as tree selection, planting alternative species, or modified silvicultural treatments, could yield significant benefits.

The study findings also contribute to assessment of possible trade measure responses by New Zealand's export markets, by determining the costs and benefits to producers and consumers of wood products in New Zealand and in its export markets China, Japan, and South Korea. To identify the best policy response, however, would require additional technical information on the efficacy of alternative phytosanitary regulations, the likelihood of Nectria establishment, and magnitude of potential forest loss associated with establishment in the export markets.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The research leading to this paper was supported in parts by FRST contract C04X0203, the New Zealand Forest Research Institute Ltd, the ISAT Linkages Fund, the USDA-CSREES NRI grant 2003-35400-13816, the PREISM program of the USDA-ERS, the USDA Forest Service Southern Research Station, and McIntire-Stennis Grant 4879. We thank Gordon Hosking for his help in developing, and providing data for, the Nectria spread and policy scenarios. The paper benefited from very useful comments from Hamish Marshall, the Nectria Focus Group, and six anonymous reviewers. Any remaining errors are our sole responsibility.

REFERENCES

- BEGHIN, J.C.; BUREAU, J-C. 2001: Quantitative policy analysis of sanitary, phytosanitary and technical barriers to trade. *Économie Internationale* 87: 107–130.
- BROOKS, D.J. 1987: Modeling forest dynamics. *In* Kallio, M.; Dykstra, D.P.; Binkley, C.S. (Ed.) "The Global Forest Sector: An Analytical Perspective". John Wiley & Sons, Chichester.
- BROWN, C. 1997: In depth country study New Zealand. Food and Agriculture Organisation, Rome, Asia-Pacific Forestry Sector Outlook Study Working Paper No: APFSOS/WP/05.
- BUONGIORNO, J.; ZHU, S.; ZHANG, D.; TURNER, J.A.; TOMBERLIN, D. 2003: "The Global Forest Products Model: Structure, Estimation and Applications". Academic Press, San Diego. 301 p.
- CALVIN, L.; KRISSOFF, B. 1998: Technical barriers to trade: A case study of phytosanitary barriers and U.S.-Japan apple trade. *Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics* 23(2): 351–366.

- DICK, M.A.; BULMAN, L.S.; CRANE, P.E. 2006: *Nectria fuckeliana* infection of *Pinus radiata* in New Zealand: research approach and interim results. *In* Guyon, J.C. (Comp.) Proceedings of the 53rd Western International Forest Disease Work Conference, Jackson Hole, Wyoming, 26–30 September 2005. U.S.D.A. Forest Service, Intermountain Region, Ogden, UT.
- FLUX, A.A.; GADGIL, P.D.; BAIN, J.; NUTTALL, M.J. 1993: "Forest Health: Forest, Tree and Wood Protection in New Zealand". The Ministry of Forestry, Wellington. 173 p.
- FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION (FAO) 2005: "FAOStat: FAO Statistical Databases", Vol. 2005. Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, Rome.
- HOLMES, T.P. 1991: Price and welfare effects of catastrophic forest damage from southern pine beetle epidemics. *Forest Science* 37: 500–516.
- JAMES, S.; ANDERSON, K. 1998: On the need for more economic assessment of quarantine policies. *Australian Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics* 42(4): 425–444.
- KRISSOFF, B.; CALVIN, L.; GRAY, D. 1997: Barriers to trade in global apple markets. USDA Economic Research Service, Fruit and Tree Nuts Situation and Outlook FTS-280.
- KUCHLER, F.; DUFFY, M. 1984: Control of exotic pests: Forecasting economic impacts. USDA Economic Research Service, Agricultural Economic Report Number 518. 16 p.
- MUMFORD, J.D. 2002: Economic issues related to quarantine in international trade. *European Review of Agricultural Economics* 29(3): 329–348.
- NEW ZEALAND FOREST OWNERS' ASSOCIATION (NZFOA) 2005: "New Zealand Forest Industry Facts and Figures 2004/2005". New Zealand Forest Owners' Association Inc., Wellington.
- ——2006: "New Zealand Forest Industry Facts and Figures 2005/2006". New Zealand Forest Owners' Association Inc., Wellington.
- NEW ZEALAND FOREST RESEARCH INSTITUTE 1999: Study of non-tariff measures in the forest products sector. Report prepared for the APEC Secretariat by the New Zealand Forest Research Institute Ltd, Rotorua.
- NEW ZEALAND MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY (NZMAF) 2000: "National Exotic Forest Description. National and Regional Wood Supply Forecasts 2000". New Zealand Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Wellington.
- ——2004: "National Exotic Forest Description: as at 1 April 2003". Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, Wellington. 55 p.
- OLIVER, C.D.; LARSON, B.C. 1996: "Forest Stand Dynamics". John Wiley & Sons, New York. 544 p.
- ORDEN, D.; ROMANO, E. 2006: Science, opportunity, traceability, persistence and political will: Necessary elements of opening the U.S. market to avocados from Mexico, Pp. 133–150 in Grote, U.; Basu, A.K.; Chau, N.H. (Ed.) "New Frontiers in Environmental and Social Labeling". Springer, New York.
- PAARLBERG, P.; LEE, J. 1998: Import restrictions in the presence of a health risk: An illustration using FMD. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 80(1): 175–183.

- PIMENTEL, D.; LACH, L.; ZUNIGA, R.; MORRISON, D. 2000: Environmental and economic costs of nonindigenous species in the United States. *Bioscience* 50: 53–65.
- POWELL, M.R. 1997: Science in sanitary and phytosanitary dispute resolution. Resources for the Future, Discussion paper 97-50, Washington, DC.
- PRESTEMON, J.P.; ZHU, S.; TURNER, J.A.; BUONGIORNO, J.; LI, R. 2006: The forest product trade impacts of an invasive species: Modeling structure and intervention tradeoffs. *Agricultural and Resource Economics Review* 35(1): 128–143.
- ROBERTS, D. 1999: Analyzing technical trade barriers in agricultural markets: Challenges and priorities. *Agribusiness* 15(3): 335–354.
- ROBERTS, D.; JOSLING, T.E.; ORDEN, D. 1999: A framework for analyzing technical trade barriers in agricultural markets. USDA Market and Trade Economics Division, Economic Research Service, Technical Bulletin No. 1876.
- ROSE, D.W. 1983: Benefit-cost evaluation of the Douglas-fir tussock moth research and development program. *Journal of Forestry 81*: 228–231.
- SAMUELSON, P.A. 1952: Spatial price equilibrium and linear programming. *American Economic Review* 42(3): 283–303.
- SENECA CREEK ASSOCIATES 2004: "Illegal" Logging and Global Wood Markets: The Competitive Impacts on the U.S. Wood Products Industry. Prepared for American Forest and Paper Association by Seneca Creek Associates and Wood Resources International, Seneca Creek Associates LLC, Poolesville. 163 p.
- STATISTICS NEW ZEALAND 2006: Overseas Merchandise Trade (February 2006) [online], Statistics New Zealand, Wellington. Available: http://www.stats.govt.nz/ products-and-services/info-releases/merch-trade.htm [26 July 2006].
- SUMNER, D.; LEE, H. 1997: Sanitary and phytosanitary trade barriers and empirical trade modeling. Pp. 273–283 in Orden, D.; Roberts, D. (Ed.) "Understanding Technical Barriers to Agricultural Trade", Proceedings of a Conference of the International Agricultural Trade Research Consortium (IATRC), IATRC, St Paul, MN.
- TKACZ, B.M. 2002: Pest risks associated with importing wood to the United States. *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* 24: 111–116.
- TURNER, J.A.; BUONGIORNO, J.; ZHU, S. 2005: Effects of the Free Trade Area of the Americas on forest resources. Agricultural and Resource Economics Review 34/1 (April 2005): 108–114.
- ——2006: An economic model of international wood supply, forest stock, and forest area change. *Scandinavian Journal of Forest Research 21*: 73–86.
- TURNER, J.A.; BULMAN, L.; RICHARDSON, B.; MOORE, J. 2004: A cost-benefit analysis of forest health and biosecurity research. *New Zealand Journal of Forestry Science* 34(3): 324–343.
- TURNER, J.A.; BUONGIORNO, J.; HORGAN, G.P.; MAPLESDEN, F.M. 2001: Liberalisation of forest product trade and the New Zealand forest sector, 2000–2015: A global modelling approach. *New Zealand Journal of Forestry Science 31(3)*: 320–338.
- TURNER, J.; BUONGIORNO, J.; ZHU, S.; LI, R. 2006: Using the global forest products model (GFPM version 2005). Department of Forest Ecology and Management, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Staff Paper Series #56. 41 p.

- TURNER, J.A.; BUONGIORNO, J.; MAPLESDEN, F.; ZHU, S.; BATES, S.; LI, R. 2006: World Wood Industries Outlook: 2005–2030. New Zealand Forest Research Institute Ltd, Forest Research Bulletin No. 230. 84 p.
- USDA FOREST SERVICE 1991: Pest risk assessment of the importation of larch from Siberia and the Soviet Far East. USDA Forest Service Miscellaneous Publication No. 1495.
- VINCENT, J.R.; MOHAMED ALI, R.; OTHMAN, M.S.H. 1997: Forests. Pp. 105–150 in Vincent, J.R.; Mohamed Ali, R. (Ed.) "Environment and Development in a Resource-Rich Economy. Malaysia under the New Economic Policy". Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- WANG, W.; THODE, D. 2004: Nectria and the implications for radiata in Otago and Southland. *New Zealand Tree Grower* 25(3): 12.
- ZHU, S.; BUONGIORNO, J. 2002: International impact of national environmental policies: the case of paper recycling in the United States. *International Forestry Review* 4(2): 133–142.
- ZHU, S.; BUONGIORNO, J.; BROOKS, D. 2001: Effects of accelerated tariff liberalization on the forest products sector: A global modeling approach. *Forest Policy and Economics* 2: 57–78.

Appendix A

GFPM MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION

Spatial Global Equilibrium

(All variables refer to one specific year)

Objective function

The objective function of the Global Forest Products Model follows Samuelson (1952), identifying production, consumption, and trade flows so that producer plus consumer surplus minus transfer costs is a maximum:

(A.1)
$$\max = Z \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \int_{0}^{D_{ik}} P_{ik} (D_{ik}) dD_{ik} - \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \int_{0}^{S_{ik}} P_{ik} (S_{ik}) dS_{ik}$$
$$- \sum_{i} \sum_{k} Y_{ik} m_{ik} (Y_{ik}) - \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \sum_{k} c_{ijk} T_{ijk}$$

where i,j = country, k = product, P = price in U.S. dollars of constant value, D = final product demand, S = raw material supply, Y = quantity manufactured, m = cost of manufacture, T = quantity transported, c = cost of transportation.

End product demand

(A.2)
$$D_{ik} = D^*_{ik} \left(\frac{P_{ik}}{P_{ik,-1}}\right)^{\delta_{ik}}$$

where $D^* =$ current demand at last year's price $P_{-1,\delta} =$ price elasticity of demand (Table B.1). D^* depends on last year's demand, and country GDP growth (A.7).

Primary product supply

(A.3)
$$S_{ik} = S_{ik}^* \left(\frac{P_{ik}}{P_{ik,-1}} \right)^{\lambda_{ik}}$$

where S^* = current supply at last year's price, λ = price elasticity of supply (Table B.2). S^* depends on last year's supply, and on exogenous or endogenous supply shifters (A.8 and A.9).

For recycled paper, $S_{ik} \le S_{ik}^{U}$, where S^{U} = upper bound on supply, which depends on domestic paper consumption in the previous year (A.10).

Country total wood supply is $S_i = S_{ir} + S_{in} + \theta_i S_{if}$, where r = industrial roundwood, n = other industrial roundwood, f = fuelwood, $\theta =$ fraction of fuelwood that comes from the forest (Table B.3). $S_i \le I_i$ where $I_i =$ forest stock.

Material balance

(A.4)
$$\sum_{j} T_{jik} + S_{ik} + Y_{ik} - D_{ik} - \sum_{n} a_{ikn} Y_{in} - \sum_{j} T_{ijk} = 0$$
 $\forall i, k$

where a_{ikn} = input of product k per unit of product n (Table B.4). The shadow prices of the material balance constraints give the market clearing prices, P.

Trade inertia

 $(A.5) \quad T^L_{ijk} \le T_{ijk} \le T^U_{ijk}$

where the superscripts L and U refer to lower and upper bounds, respectively (see Equation A.12).

Manufacturing cost

Manufacturing is represented by input-output coefficients and a manufacturing cost (Table B.4). The latter is the cost of the inputs not recognised explicitly by the model (labour, energy, capital, etc.):

(A.6)
$$m = m_{ik}^* \left(\frac{Y_{ik}}{Y_{ik,-1}}\right)^{S_{ik}}$$

where m^* = current manufacturing cost at last year's output, s = elasticity of manufacturing cost with respect to output (Table B.4). m^* depends on last year's manufacturing cost.

Market Dynamics

(Unless otherwise indicated, variables and parameters refer to one country, one

commodity, and one year)

Shifts of demand

(A.7) $D^* = D_{-1}(1 + \alpha_y g_y)$

where $g_v = \text{GDP}$ annual growth rate, $\alpha = \text{elasticity}$ (Table B.1).

Shifts of supply

Industrial roundwood and fuelwood:

(A.8) $S^* = S_{-1}(1 + \beta_I g_I + \beta_y, g_y)$ for k = r, n, f

where g_I = rate of change of forest stock (Equation 1), g_y , = GDP per capita annual growth rate, β = elasticity (Table B.2).

Waste paper and other fibre pulp (Table B.2):

(A.9) $S^* = S_{-1}(1 + \beta_y g_y)$

The upper bound on waste paper supply shifts according to:

$$(A.10) S^U = \sum_k r_k D_{k,-1}$$

where r_k is the maximum possible recovery rate for paper of grade k, which may change exogenously over time.

Changes in manufacturing coefficients

The input-output coefficients, the a_{ikn} 's in (A.4), may change exogenously over time, in particular to reflect increasing use of recycled paper in paper manufacturing (Table B.4).

Changes in freight cost and tariff

The transport cost for commodity k from country i to country j in any given year includes the cost of freight, import tariff (applied to the c.i.f. price), and export tariff:

(A.11) $c_{ijk} = f_{ijk} + t^{I}_{jk} (f_{ijk} + P_{ik,-1}) + t^{X}_{jk} P_{ik,-1}$

where c = transport cost, per unit of volume, f = freight cost, per unit of volume, $t^{I} =$ import *ad valorem* tariff (Table B.5), $P_{-1} =$ last year's equilibrium export price, and $t^{X} =$ export *ad valorem* tariff.

Changes in trade inertia bounds

(A.12) $T^{L} = T_{-1}(1 - \varepsilon)$ $T^{U} = T_{-1}(1 + \varepsilon)$

 ε = upper or lower bound on relative change in trade flow (Table B.5).

Appendix B

GFPM PARAMETERS FOR NEW ZEALAND

Product	Price	GDP
Fuelwood	-0.62	-1.50
Other industrial roundwood	-0.05	-0.58
Sawnwood	-0.16	0.32
Veneer and plywood	-0.13	1.20
Particleboard	-0.24	1.25
Fibreboard	-0.52	0.82
Newsprint	-0.05	0.21
Printing and writing paper	-0.15	0.80
Other paper and paperboard	-0.06	0.65

TABLE B.1-Elasticity	of demand	with respect to	price and GDP
TADLE D.I-Elasticity	or ucmanu	i with respect to	price and ODI

TABLE B.2-Elasticity of supply with respect to price, GDP per capita, and forest stock

Product	Price	GDP per capita	Forest stock
Fuelwood	2.00	0.00	1.50
Industrial roundwood	1.39	0.90	1.00
Other industrial roundwood	1.39	0.90	1.00
Other fibre pulp	0.80	1.00	
Waste paper	0.80	1.00	

TABLE B.3–Forest resource data and parameters

Parameter	Unit	Value
Forest stock	(10^6 m^3)	398
Forest stock growth rate	(% per year)	8.30
Forest area	$(10^{3} ha)$	1827
Rate of forest area change	(% per year)	1.09
Fraction of fuelwood from forest	· • • •	1.00

	TABLI	TABLE B.4-Manufacturing parameters	g parameters		
Input product	Manufactured product	Coefficient $(m^3/m^3, m^3/t \text{ or } t/t)$	Change in coefficient (t/t)	Manufacturing cost* (US\$/m ³ or US\$/t)	Output elasticity of manufacturing cost
Industrial roundwood Industrial roundwood Industrial roundwood	Sawnwood Veneer and plywood Particleboard	1.00 1.19 0.80		126.00 317.46 116.20	0.10 0.10 0.10
Industrial roundwood Industrial roundwood	Fibreboard Mechanical pulp	0.72		214.48 209.28	$\begin{array}{c} 0.10\\ 0.10\\ \end{array}$
Industrial roundwood Mechanical pulp	Chemical pulp Newsprint	1.65 0.58	0.000	285.93 177.56	0.10 3.00
Chemical pulp Other fibre pulp Waste paper		0.30 0.00 0.12	-0.002 0.000 0.002		
Mechanical pulp Chemical pulp Other fibre pulp Waste paper	Printing and writing paper	0.24 0.51 0.00 0.16	0.000 -0.001 0.000 0.001	584.35	0.10
Mechanical pulp Chemical pulp Other fibre pulp Waste paper	Other paper and paperboard		0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000	348.69	0.10
* I abour canital enerov	* I abour canital energy and materials exclusive of the cost of wood and fibre input	cost of wood and fil	bre innut		

* Labour, capital, energy, and materials, exclusive of the cost of wood and fibre input.

Product	Ad valorem tariff (%)	Tariff reduction (% per yr)	Freight cost (US\$/m ³ or US\$/t)	Trade bounds (ε)
Industrial roundwood	0.0	0.0	12	0.030
Sawnwood	5.0	0.0	21	0.050
Veneer and plywood	2.0	0.0	16	0.052
Particleboard	5.0	0.0	7	0.069
Fibreboard	5.0	0.0	10	0.060
Chemical pulp	0.0	0.0	32	0.045
Printing and writing paper	7.0	-2.0	46	0.030
Other paper and paperboard	6.0	-1.0	40	0.051

TABLE B.5–Trade parameters*

* The trade bounds (or trade inertia) parameter, ε in Equation A.12 (Appendix A), is a bound on relative change in trade flow for a particular product, and is set at three times the standard error of the mean percentage change of world imports and exports of that product from 1970 to 1997 (Buongiorno *et al.* 2003).