



### Editor's Note

The two leading articles address research in areas that are of key importance to the IMF's work even as they present daunting challenges in obtaining strong and conclusive results. *Early Warning Systems* (EWS) seek to predict currency crises, though there is a debate on whether this is at all possible in efficient markets. Indeed, the adage "If you are so smart, why ain't you rich?" might cast doubt on the success of these efforts. Yet, EWS seem to have some predictive power, and many investment banks now use them, presumably for a good reason. *Assessing IMF Program Effectiveness* involves major methodological difficulties. If you are sitting in your doctor's waiting room today, the people you see there are more likely to visit the doctor again next month than are those who are feeling well today. The name of the game here is finding proper counterfactuals or good instruments because economics, unlike medicine, cannot rely on controlled experiments. The results of this research are not yet clear-cut, or fully convincing, despite admirable efforts by many researchers. This *Bulletin* typically focuses on research conducted by IMF staff, but a balanced assessment in this case warrants giving equal attention to research done outside the IMF.

—Paolo Mauro

### Research Summaries

## Early Warning Systems

Abdul Abiad



*Following the crises of the 1990s, the IMF has placed greater emphasis on strengthening its crisis prevention capabilities. One aspect of this work involves developing early warning systems that assess crisis vulnerability, which supplement in-depth country analyses and permit cross-country comparisons. Recent IMF research on the subject has focused on identifying potential indicators of vulnerability, finding the most objective way to synthesize the information from these indicators, and assessing their predictive performance.*

Crisis prevention is one of the core responsibilities of the IMF. As such, detecting incipient vulnerabilities plays a central role in IMF work, and much research has been devoted to this task in recent years. (continued on page 2)

## Assessing IMF Program Effectiveness

Rodney Ramcharan



*Economic adjustment programs supported by the IMF provide member countries with financing and policy advice to help them resolve both short-term balance of payments difficulties and longer term structural impediments to growth. Given the importance of these adjustment programs, a voluminous literature has evolved to assess their effectiveness. This research summary selectively surveys some of the empirical approaches used to evaluate IMF program effectiveness.*

IMF-supported programs are probably the institution's most visible activity and affect a wide range of countries. Over the last decade, with the decline in communism and the deepening of economic crises in many emerging market economies, some 90 countries have become involved in various IMF-supported economic adjustment programs. (continued on page 5)

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## Early Warning Systems

(continued from page 1)

This article focuses on the development of early warning systems to detect currency crises.<sup>1</sup>

The building blocks of an early warning system consist of a set of vulnerability indicators. Although a large number of indicators are suggested by economic theory—any variable that influences the trade-off between defending the currency or letting it float is a potential candidate—the set of variables is usually constrained by data availability; it is from this set that indicators are selected, based on their predictive ability. Following the Mexican crisis in December 1994, several studies, including Frankel and Rose (1996), Kaminsky, Lizondo, and Reinhart (1998), and Sachs, Tornell, and Velasco (1996), have sought to identify the macroeconomic variables that tend to behave “abnormally” in the run-up to a crisis.<sup>2</sup> The variables identified as useful have varied somewhat from study to study, owing to differences in crisis definitions, data sets, and methodologies. However, a small set of indicators—real-exchange-rate overvaluation, reserve adequacy (relative to short-term debt or broad money), domestic credit growth, current account, export growth, and reserves growth—perform well in most studies.

The Asian crisis and the ensuing interest in balance sheets and institutional factors have led researchers to look beyond the standard macroeconomic indicators for signs of vulnerability. Using firm-level data on corporate balance sheets, Mulder, Perrelli, and Rocha (2002) suggest that high leverage and short maturity structures increase both the likelihood and the depth of crises, and that shareholder rights’ protection also significantly affects crisis probabilities. Bussière and Mulder (1999b) document potential interactions between economic and political factors: when reserves are low and fundamentals are weak, political instability worsens crisis severity. Rossi (1999) suggests that countries with a less open capital account, stronger bank supervision, and weaker depositor safety are less prone to currency crashes.

Several studies (Goldfajn and Valdés, 1997; Berg and others, 1999; Berg, Borensztein, and Pattillo, forthcoming) have

documented the poor performance of exchange rate expectations, credit ratings, bond spreads, and interest differentials in anticipating currency crises. However, recent research has also found that less conventional measures from financial markets might eventually prove useful as early warning indicators. Examining the period preceding the Mexican devaluation of 1994, Becker, Gelos, and Richards (2000) find that despite an alleged peso overvaluation, shares of firms with high net exports outperformed the market. This pattern is consistent with forward-looking stock prices that assigned an increasing probability to a devaluation benefiting exporting firms. Gelos and Borensztein (2003) find that emerging market mutual funds withdrew their money one month prior to the onset of a crisis. Finally, Prati and Sbracia (2002) show that uncertainty regarding fundamentals—as measured by the dispersion of GDP growth forecasts—is associated with speculative attacks and the effect depends on whether the expected fundamentals are “good” or “bad.”

After a set of useful indicators has been identified, the information contained in the indicators needs to be combined in an objective manner. The two workhorse models in the literature are the indicators model of Kaminsky, Lizondo, and Reinhart (1998) and Kaminsky (1999), and limited dependent variable probit/logit models. Berg and Pattillo (1999a) ask whether these models would have predicted the Asian crisis, had they been in place in late 1996. They find that the best models have real, but limited, predictive power.

Subsequent studies have developed alternative strategies in an attempt to improve predictive performance. These include embedding binary indicators, and a piecewise-linear generalization, in a probit model (Berg and Pattillo, 1999b); refining the crisis variable from a binary to a ternary variable (Mathieson and Yao, forthcoming); focusing only on successful speculative attacks (Kumar, Moorthy, and Perraudin, 2002); and addressing model uncertainty issues (Stone and Weeks, 2001). Other studies explore more sophisticated econometric techniques, such as autoregressive conditional hazard models (Zhang, 2001) and regime switching with time-varying probabilities (Abiad, 2003). Some studies depart from a regression-based setting altogether: Osband and Van Rijckeghem (2000) use classification rules to identify safety zones for fundamentals under which currency crashes are unlikely to occur, and Ghosh and Ghosh (2002) use a binary recursive tree technique to explore complex interactions among structural and economic variables. Many of the proposed approaches look promising, and most report some improvement over the

<sup>1</sup>Previous research summaries in the *IMF Research Bulletin* have covered banking crises (Detragiache, 2001) and contagion (Huang, 2000). Some of the models described in this article have also been applied to debt crises (Detragiache and Spilimbergo, 2001) and arrears to the IMF (Oka, 2003).

<sup>2</sup>Other IMF studies identifying macroeconomic indicators include Bussière and Mulder (1999a); Aziz, Caramazza, and Salgado (2000); and Milesi-Ferretti and Razin (2000).

benchmark models. Differing crisis definitions, sample coverage, and forecasting horizons make direct comparison impossible, and a true “horse race” on a single data set is still needed to help identify the strengths and weaknesses of these recent models.

In the end, however, the true test of these models lies in operationalizing them within a comprehensive framework that includes in-depth country vulnerability analyses. This has been done for the indicators and probit models, and their performance has been evaluated by Berg, Borensztein, and Pattillo (forthcoming), who emphasize the importance of out-of-sample forecasting in model evaluation. They find that the IMF’s probit model and the Kaminsky, Lizondo, and Reinhart models have done reasonably well since their operational adoption about four years ago. The March 2002 issue of the IMF’s *Global Financial Stability Report* (Chapter 4) also assesses the performance of early warning systems and lays out possible directions for future work in this area.

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## Books from the IMF

### Japan’s Lost Decade: Policies for Economic Revival

Edited by Tim Callen and Jonathan D. Ostry

It has been 13 years since the bursting of the asset price bubble in Japan, yet the economy remains weighed down by excess capacity and debt, anemic growth, and entrenched deflationary pressures. If Japan’s weak growth continues, this would affect not only its own people but also the world economy generally, given Japan’s importance as a trading partner and supplier of capital.

*Japan’s Lost Decade: Policies for Economic Revival* evaluates the key issues facing the Japanese economy and policymakers. The book argues that an integrated policy strategy—combining decisive bank and corporate restructuring with supportive macroeconomic policies—is needed to lift the economy from its prolonged period of lackluster performance. While welcoming the progress that the Koizumi government has made in addressing the weaknesses in the Japanese economy, the book stresses that the reform strategy is not sufficiently comprehensive and that implementation has been slower and less complete than hoped for.

The book reflects the analysis prepared by the IMF staff working on Japan. Contributors include Tim Callen, Jonathan Ostry, Taimur Baig, Giovanni Dell’Ariccia, Hamid Faruquee, Ben Hunt, Sanjay Kalra, Kenneth Kang, Douglas Laxton, Martin Muhleisen, Takashi Nagaoka, Ramana Ramaswamy, Hossein Samiei, and Warwick McKibbin.

## IMF Staff Papers

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**Sources of Economic Growth in East Asia: A Nonparametric Assessment**  
*Shigeru Iwata, Mohsin S. Khan, and Hiroshi Murao*

**Can Inheritances Alleviate the Fiscal Burden of an Aging Population?**  
*Erik Lueth*

**Population Aging and Global Capital Flows in a Parallel Universe**  
*Robin Brooks*

**The Properties of the Equity Premium and the Risk-Free Rate: An Investigation Across Time and Countries**  
*Fabio Canova and Gianni De Nicolò*

**Resources and Incentives for Reform**  
*Alberto Dalmazzo and Guido de Blasio*

**A Dynamic General Equilibrium Framework of Investment with Financing Constraint**  
*Danyang Xie and Chi-Wa Yuen*

**Refocusing the Fund: A Review of James M. Boughton's *Silent Revolution: The International Monetary Fund, 1979–1989***  
*Peter B. Kenen*

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## Assessing IMF Program Effectiveness (continued from page 1)

However, despite the prevalence of these programs, their effectiveness is still being debated in a number of respects. Why does the performance of many countries that have participated in a series of IMF-supported programs remain relatively weak?<sup>1</sup> How do we know the extent to which these programs work? Can patterns that emerge from past experience help improve program effectiveness in the future?

A large body of empirical research conducted within and outside the IMF has sought to assess IMF program effectiveness (Haque and Khan, 1998), but this research agenda faces three major methodological hurdles. First, IMF programs tend to be remarkably varied across countries, making meaningful cross-country comparisons difficult (Mussa and Savastano, 2000). Second, IMF programs are inherently complex constructs with multiple economic objectives spread over varying time horizons. As a result, the appropriate definition of IMF program effectiveness is not entirely clear. That said, much of the empirical literature has focused on the impact of IMF programs on macroeconomic aggregates such as growth and inflation. Third, neither a country's decision to seek an IMF program nor the IMF's decision to agree to a program is random; thus, selection bias is a challenge to accurate estimation. Hence, because of these methodological difficulties, most of the results are tentative. On the whole, the evidence suggests that IMF programs lower inflation and improve the balance of payments; their impact on growth is less clear.

Issues of selection bias arise because countries "demand" IMF programs in times of economic difficulties. Bird (1996) notes that adopting an IMF-supported program is generally linked to a low level of reserves, increased debt, and an overvalued exchange rate. Hence, comparisons between countries that do not enter into IMF-supported programs and those that do are difficult (Krueger, 1998). An appropriate measure of program effectiveness would compare outcomes under an IMF program with those that would have occurred in the absence of the program—the counterfactual. However, by definition, the counterfactual policy stance, and the resulting macroeconomic outcome, are never observed.

Consequently, researchers have focused on the creation of artificial policy counterfactuals. The generalized evaluation estimator (GEE), pioneered by Goldstein and Montiel (1986) and Khan (1990), is a popular method of constructing these counterfactuals. This approach constructs counterfactual policy stances by using nonprogram data to link annual changes in macroeconomic policies to deviations in lagged macroeconomic outcomes from their target values. The counterfactual policy stance is included among the set of regressors in the main regression. In this way, the impact of an IMF-supported arrangement can be measured, after controlling for the set of policies that would have been observed in the absence of such an arrangement.

<sup>1</sup>See, for example, the recent report by the Independent Evaluation Office (IEO) on the prolonged use of IMF resources (available at [www.imf.org/External/NP/ieo/2002/pu/index.htm](http://www.imf.org/External/NP/ieo/2002/pu/index.htm)).

## Visiting Scholars at the IMF, January–March 2003

- Michael Bordo**; Rutgers University  
**Roberto Chang**; Rutgers University  
**Vittorio Corbo**; Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Chile  
**Javier Gómez**; Banco de la República, Colombia  
**David Hummels**; Purdue University  
**Jean Imbs**; London Business School, United Kingdom  
**Bernadette Kamgnia**; University of Yaoundé, Cameroon  
**Graciela Kaminsky**; The George Washington University  
**Yevgeniya Kornienko**; National Bank of Ukraine, Ukraine  
**Peter Maina**; University of Nairobi, Kenya  
**Nephil Maskay**; Nepal Rastra (Central) Bank, Nepal  
**Benjamin Ndong**; Université Gaston Berger de Saint Louis, Senegal  
**Marco Pagano**; Università di Salerno, Italy  
**Ila Patnaik**; Indian Council for Research in International Economic Relations, India  
**Mark Taylor**; Warwick University, United Kingdom  
**Carlos Végh**; University of California at Los Angeles  
**Rafael Wouters**; National Bank of Belgium, Belgium

With differing degrees of significance, the point estimates from the GEE and the other approaches that attempt to control for the counterfactual suggest that IMF programs improve the current account balance and lower inflation (Khan, 1990; Conway, 1994; Killick, Malik, and Manuel, 1995). Some of these studies also suggest a positive impact of IMF programs on economic growth (Bagci and Perraudin, 1997; Knight and Santaella, 1997), but there is no consensus on the precise timing of this growth effect. Bulir and Moon (2003) use a similar approach to study the impact of IMF programs on fiscal adjustment, finding little significant impact on the fiscal balance. Mody and Saravia (2003) examine whether IMF programs help to catalyze capital flows. The authors report evidence of a catalytic effect when a country is in an intermediate, vulnerable zone before plunging irretrievably into a crisis; at the other extreme, programs in “tranquil” periods can also send unfavorable signals to markets, hurting rather than helping countries. In addition to differing sample periods, a key source of the disagreement across these studies is their specification of the policy counterfactual as there is little theoretical basis to guide the selection of the variables used to determine policymakers’ reaction functions.

Instead of relying on counterfactuals, another strand of empirical research uses instrumental variables methods or Heckman two-step estimation procedures to address sample selection issues. Barro and Lee (2002) and Easterly (2002) find mixed results on economic growth and poverty reduction while making the heroic assumption that political or institutional variables, such as a country’s alignment with major shareholders at the IMF, are only related to economic growth through their influence on the IMF’s lending decision. Przeworski and Vreeland (2000) find that program participation lowers growth while countries remain under a program. Chen and Thomas (2003) explore differences between programs that were successfully completed and those that ended prematurely: they find that completed programs are marginally associated with a higher subsequent growth rate, whereas programs that end prematurely are associated with a lower growth rate.

The implications of the current empirical approaches for IMF program design remain limited. For instance, the finding that IMF programs improve the balance of payments says little about whether this impact is optimal; given the trade-offs between aggregate demand and the external position, could the average improvement in the external position have been achieved with a smaller reduction in aggregate demand? Such questions are at the center of program design and are a vital area of future research. Recent

work by Baqir, Ramcharan, and Sahay (2003) begins to analyze the nature of trade-offs among the program objectives. Preliminary results suggest that narrowing the gap between the current account target and its actual value reduces economic growth relative to its projected value.

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## IMF Research Bulletin

### Coming in September 2003

- Sovereign Bonds and Public Debt Management
- Trade
- Country Study: Sweden



## New IMF Study on Globalization

### The Effects of Financial Globalization on Developing Countries: Some Empirical Evidence

Eswar Prasad, Kenneth Rogoff, Shang-Jin Wei, and M. Ayhan Kose

A new IMF study on the effects of financial globalization on developing countries provides a candid, systematic, and critical review of recent evidence on this complex subject. The following main findings are based on a review of the literature and new empirical evidence.

- In spite of an apparently strong theoretical presumption, it is difficult to detect a strong and robust causal relationship between financial integration and economic growth.
- Contrary to theoretical predictions, in many developing countries, financial integration appears to be associated with *increases* in consumption volatility—both in absolute terms and relative to income volatility.
- There appear to be threshold effects in the relationships between financial integration and growth as well as between financial integration and volatility. A sufficient level of absorptive capacity seems to be required for economies to derive the benefits of financial integration in terms of higher growth and lower volatility. Recent evidence suggests that sound macroeconomic frameworks and institutions—in particular, good governance—have important quantitative and qualitative effects on developing countries' experiences with financial globalization.

This study is forthcoming as IMF Occasional Paper No. 220. It is currently available in full-text format at [www.imf.org/research](http://www.imf.org/research).

## Country Study

## Thailand

Reza Baqir



*Thailand has gradually ascended to the front lines of high-growth Asia in the last few years. The authorities have successfully introduced a new monetary framework based on inflation targeting, maintained exchange rate flexibility,*

*strengthened the external position, and recently embarked on fiscal consolidation. At the same time, accelerating corporate and financial sector reforms has proved challenging and investment growth has remained modest. This article summarizes recent research by IMF staff on postcrisis Thailand.*

In the last four years, growth in Thailand averaged about 4 percent—half the average of the 15 years preceding the 1997 crisis. A key question for policymakers and academics alike is whether Thailand can regenerate the economic momentum of the precrisis years. Griffiths (2000) highlights the role of an investment boom, especially in non-tradable sectors, in driving the growth acceleration of the mid-1990s and sowing some of the seeds of the subsequent instability. As the crisis developed, private investment collapsed—in 1998 it was a third of its 1996 level. Using a growth accounting framework, Jonsson (2001) found that capital accumulation, more than total factor productivity growth, accounted for the high precrisis growth rates. With capital accumulation expected to remain modest in the medium term, he argued that economic growth will need to be driven primarily by higher total factor productivity growth.

Some of the decline in investment and its subsequent sluggish recovery in the postcrisis period reflects the excess capacity from the investment boom of the early 1990s. However, some researchers attributed the decline to a “credit crunch” in the aftermath of the crisis. Greene (2002) finds a strong correlation in the precrisis years between net private capital inflows, bank credit to the private sector, and real private investment and suggests that the sudden reversal of net capital flows during the crisis choked credit and investment. However, using a disequilibrium econometric framework to study the determinants of international capital flows, Mody and Taylor (2002) find that an “international capital crunch” likely lasted only until mid-1998 in Thailand. Schwartz (2000) notes that a slowdown in credit growth is not, by itself, evidence of a credit crunch: it is difficult to make a definitive statement regarding the existence

or extent of a credit crunch, as both supply- and demand-side effects were at play. As it turned out, credit continued to languish, even as the economy began to grow. Baqir and Zanello (2003) examine the causes of “growth without credit” and compare Thailand’s experience to that of other postcrisis countries.

One of the lessons learned from the Asian crisis is that exchange-rate pegs and open capital accounts do not mix well. After the July 2, 1997, devaluation of the baht, Thailand has maintained flexibility in its exchange rate and its regime is currently classified by the IMF as “managed floating with no preannounced path for the exchange rate.” Nevertheless, some observers of the crisis-hit Asian economies have pointed to an apparent lack of exchange rate flexibility after the crisis. Hernandez and Montiel (2001) and Baig (2001) consider the volatility of the exchange rate, reserves, and interest rates before and after the crisis and conclude that Thailand is now floating to a greater extent than it did before, though less than “real floaters.”

With the move to a more flexible exchange rate regime, the Thai authorities have adopted inflation targeting as their monetary policy framework. In an effort to better understand the channels of monetary policy transmission, Baqir (2002) uses vector autoregressions and finds that while changes in the Bank of Thailand’s policy rate are associated with changes in real output with a lag of four to six quarters, the bank-lending channel appears weak. He also finds suggestive evidence of an asset price channel.

The sluggish transmission of monetary policy through the banking sector is symptomatic of the ongoing structural problems in the financial and corporate sectors. Haksar (2000, 2001) provides an in-depth look at the restructuring of the financial system in the aftermath of the crisis, subsequent progress, and prospects for further reform. He concludes that while Thai banks have made substantial progress in reducing their vulnerability, balance sheet fragilities remain. Kim and Stone (1999) present a theoretical framework to illustrate how highly leveraged firms can halt investment to avoid bankruptcy when facing a capital inflow cutoff. They provide supporting evidence from Thailand and other Asian countries. In assessing the early progress with resolving corporate sector problems, Endo and Griffiths (2000) note that, compared to other countries, Thailand’s initial approach was private sector

led, market based, and voluntary. Giorgianni (2001) provides detailed information on the design and implementation of the Thai Asset Management Company, which was subsequently set up by the government to accelerate the debt restructuring process, and benchmarks its key design features against international experience. Haksar and Kongsamut (2002) analyze firm-level data for listed companies and find that although debt levels have fallen from their precrisis peaks, particularly for smaller firms, they remain high by international standards, and interest coverage ratios continue to hover just above the break-even point.

Besides the decline in living standards, the crisis has left the Thai taxpayer with a large stock of public debt. Fiscal policy has faced the trade-off of countering the effects of the crisis while containing public debt. Barnett (2000a) finds that the fiscal impulse was mildly expansionary in the precrisis period and turned contractionary in 1997/98 before turning expansionary in 1998/99. In related papers, Barnett (2000b) and Barnett and Haksar (2001) examine public debt dynamics, taking into account the costs of financial sector restructuring, and find key sensitivities to interest rate and GDP growth shocks. Giorgianni (2002) assesses Thailand's fiscal vulnerability, building in estimated contingent liabilities of the government arising from financial sector restructuring. This yields estimates of gross public debt considerably higher than the headline figures.

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# The Global Economy Model (GEM): Q & A

By Douglas Laxton

## **What is the GEM and where did it originate from?**

The Global Economy Model (GEM) is a new multicountry simulation model. When Kenneth Rogoff took over as the director of the Research Department, one of his key priorities was to develop a new macro model for both research and policy analysis, bridging the gap between recent developments in academia and models used by policymaking institutions. The GEM builds on the new open-economy macro (NOEM) literature pioneered by Obstfeld and Rogoff (1995, 1996; see also other references at [www.imf.org/external/np/res/mmod/biblio/multimod.cfm](http://www.imf.org/external/np/res/mmod/biblio/multimod.cfm)). The IMF invited Paolo Pesenti of the New York Fed and National Bureau of Economic Research to lead the project by developing the theoretical structure for the GEM. Last year Paolo Pesenti and I developed the first working version of the GEM and presented it at the Carnegie-Rochester Conference on Public Policy (Laxton and Pesenti, 2003).

## **What are the main strengths of NOEM models such as the GEM?**

These structural models have strong theoretical foundations based on microeconomic theory. Unlike reduced-form models, they are not as prone to the Lucas critique and can therefore be used more reliably for policy analysis. In practice, they are relatively easy to use when addressing issues that interest policymakers. The GEM incorporates nominal rigidities and monopolistic competition in both product and labor markets. This helps distinguish between the relative roles of market inefficiencies and monetary policy in generating inflation persistence. It is thus possible to conduct well-defined experiments to show how changes in structural policies, which influence the degree of competition in markets, may change the degree of inflation persistence, and to trace the implications for the business cycle and the optimal formulation of monetary policy. Bayoumi, Laxton, and Pesenti (2003) show that increases in the degree of competition in labor markets and product markets can significantly reduce inflation persistence, thus making it easier to successfully implement monetary policy.

## **What other GEM-related research and applications are in the works?**

Building on research conducted at the Fed Board, Hunt and Rebucci (2003) have developed a version of the GEM to explore the role of U.S. productivity growth in the 1990s in explaining the deterioration in the U.S. trade balance. They show that multisector models such as the GEM can help us better understand the implications of productivity growth when it is concentrated in the tradables sector. Also, the current versions of the GEM have been calibrated: following work done by Frank Smets of the European Central Bank and Raf Wouters of the National Bank of Belgium, we are now trying to estimate the model using Bayesian methods.

## **What about documentation and code?**

The model is still at an early stage and additional refinements are being introduced. That said, an IMF working paper by Paolo Pesenti will document the theoretical structure of the model. We are also planning to release an IMF occasional paper later in the year that will include applications, solution techniques, and estimation methodology. Ultimately, we plan to make some versions of the model and sample programs available to the public.

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