

**THE CURRENT NATURE OF INTRA-REGIONAL
TRADE IN THE PROPOSED TRIPARTITE FREE
TRADE AREA**

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Abstract

This thesis examines and analyses the current nature of intra-regional trade between member states of the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area in order to contribute to an understanding of the potential for intra-regional trade within the region to increase. Trade Complementarity Indexes were used to determine how well the structures of the three founding blocs' major imports and exports match. The results show that there is a high degree of trade complementarity in the trade of the top 5 major products traded between the regional groups. With the proposed TFTA in place, high trade complementarity could lead to increased trade between the regional groups.

Trade Intensity Indexes were used to determine how intensively the three founding blocs trade with one another. Results from the indexes help determine the extent to which the blocs currently view each other as important trading partners and the implications of this for the proposed TFTA. Results show that EAC and SADC as well as EAC and COMESA viewed each other as significant trading partners while SADC and COMESA did not for the majority of the years from 2001 to 2018. With the TFTA in place, intra-regional trade could be strengthened among the members who currently trade intensively because tariffs between them would be progressively eliminated as required by the TFTA Agreement. Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes were used to gain insights on whether member states have any comparative advantage in their top 5 exports. Results from the indexes were used to determine whether member states have comparative advantage in similar or dissimilar major exports and the implications of this for the proposed TFTA. Results show that member states have revealed comparative advantage in similar products and these products present opportunities for joint-production among member states as well as sectors for product development once the proposed TFTA is in place.

Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes were used to gain insights into the extent of ease of market access into each regional bloc's market. Results from the indexes indicate whether major products imported from each other receive possibly discriminatory or preferential treatment. The results indicate that the majority of the top 5 imports sourced from each region receive preferential treatment. This indicates that there is ease of market access for the top 5 imports sourced from each other and this could promote increased intra-regional trade among member states in these product categories because tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade will be progressively eliminated once the TFTA is in place.

Declaration

Except for references specifically indicated in the text and such help as has been acknowledged, this thesis is wholly my work and has not been submitted to any other university for degree purposes.

Chisengele Chibuta

Signed: *cchibuta*.....

Date: 6th December 2019.....

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and background

Since the dawn of independence for African states in the 1960s, regional economic integration was viewed as one of the possible means by which these states could realise economic growth and development. The proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA) is arguably an important development for the Continent in this regard because its membership represents 50% of all African countries. The TFTA Agreement will establish a Free Trade Area among the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), the East African Community (EAC) and the Southern African Development community (SADC). The Agreement was officially launched by 26 member states of the three regional economic blocs in Egypt on 10th June 2015. The expansion of the EAC to include South Sudan in 2016 saw the total number of member states in the proposed TFTA rise to 27. One area of focus of the proposed TFTA is the promotion of intra-regional trade outlined in Article 4 (b) of the TFTA Agreement, which seeks to create a large single market with free movement of goods and services to promote intra-regional trade, and Article 5 (a) of the Agreement which seeks to progressively eliminate tariffs and non-tariff barriers to trade in goods.

There has been much debate concerning the impact that the proposed TFTA will have. Some analysts believe that the proposed TFTA will increase intra-regional trade, boost economic growth and raise the development prospects of its member states (Aniche, 2014:132). Mold and Mukwaya (2016:2) add that the economic rationale of the Agreement is to provide greater opportunities for economies of scale, greater competition, provide an attractive environment for foreign and domestic investment and to accelerate intra-regional trade.

Other researchers have contested the potential impact of the proposed TFTA. For instance, Afesorgbor and Bergeijk (2014:518) argue that African countries have similar comparative advantages and supply side characteristics, which have resulted in more trade taking place with non-African countries whose economies have different characteristics as compared to trade between African countries. Aniche (2014:134-135) notes that many of the countries in the proposed TFTA have similar economic structures which means that their economies are in competition with one another as opposed to being complementary, which has resulted in low trade between them. Cheluget and Wright (2017:487) state that poor infrastructure across the

three founding blocs, high transaction costs, differing goals of member states and relatively low levels of industrialisation remain as challenges that need to be addressed.

1.2 Research problem

One of the objectives of the proposed TFTA is to promote intra-regional trade among member states as outlined in Article 4 (b) and Article 5 (a) of the TFTA Agreement. However, in view of the contrasting arguments previously mentioned, it can be surmised that there are differing thoughts concerning the impact of the proposed TFTA on intra-regional trade. This is especially understandable given that the TFTA is not yet in place.

An understanding of the current nature of intra-regional trade between the three founding blocs contributes towards developing a clearer picture of what the impact of the proposed TFTA will be on intra-regional trade once it is in place. Examining how well the structures of the three regions' imports and exports currently match gives an indication of how trade may be affected when the proposed TFTA is in place. The extent to which the three regions currently view each other as significant trading partners provides further indication of how trade between them may be impacted once the proposed TFTA is in place and their trading relations are strengthened. An understanding of the extent to which current barriers to trade between the regions are being eliminated would give insights about ease of market access for products once the TFTA is in place. Furthermore, if member states currently have comparative advantages in a wide variety of products which they produce and export it may give insights about the opportunities that exist for intra-regional trade to be promoted once the TFTA is in place.

1.3 Significance of the study

Launched in 2015, the proposed TFTA remains a relatively new development in Africa's economic integration agenda. Therefore, the results from the study on the current nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA will contribute to current and ongoing research regarding the expected impact of the proposed TFTA in promoting intra-regional trade as outlined in Article 4 (b) and Article 5 (a) of the TFTA Agreement.

1.4 Goals of the research

The overarching goal of this research is to examine and analyse the current nature of intra-regional trade between the member states of the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area in the context of Article 4 (b) and Article 5 (a) of the Agreement.

The sub goals of the research are:

- (i) To examine the major exports of proposed TFTA member states and to determine whether they have any comparative advantage in any of these products;
- (ii) To examine and analyse the extent to which the three founding blocs trade intensively with each other as well as the extent to which their trade in the major products traded between them is complementary; and
- (iii) To examine the ease of market access between the three founding blocs as well as the extent to which existing trade barriers between the blocs are being eliminated in the context of Article 5 (a) of the Agreement.

1.5 Hypothesis

Trade theories argue that trade between countries in an economic integration arrangement will increase trade flows among them as barriers to trade between them are progressively eliminated. Economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects if there is already a high proportion of trade taking place between prospective members prior to the formation of a union. Furthermore, there are likely to be beneficial effects where trade between member states is complementary; where members view one another as important trading partners and where there are differences in the products that member states have comparative advantages in. Therefore, it is hypothesised that with the TFTA in place, the level of intra-regional trade as well as the current nature of trade between the member states will improve.

1.6 Chapter outline

Chapter Two of this thesis provides a historical background of economic integration across the African Continent in order to outline the evolution of economic integration in Africa leading up to the signing of the TFTA Agreement. The Chapter also provides an overview of this Agreement and progress on its ratification. Furthermore, the Chapter introduces member states in the proposed TFTA and highlights their respective characteristics with a focus on per capita

income levels; economic size as measured by GDP; economic growth rates; and sectoral composition of GDP. A consideration of these characteristics is important because it reveals the differences between member states and what the implications may be for economic integration within the proposed TFTA. A comparison between the performance of the proposed TFTA and other free trade areas across the globe is not provided because the proposed TFTA is not yet in place.

Chapter Three presents the theoretical frameworks that are relevant for the proposed TFTA, namely, the market integration model and the theory of common markets. The characteristics of both theoretical frameworks are discussed as well as criticisms that have been levied against them. It is important to consider these two frameworks because they present the conditions that need to be in place for economic integration within the proposed TFTA to be a success in promoting trade.

Chapter Four discusses the various trade performance indicators that were used to gain insights into the current nature of intra-regional trade between member states. The current nature of intra-regional trade is examined by the use of trade complementarity indexes, trade intensity indexes, revealed comparative advantage indexes and revealed trade barrier indexes. Trade Complementarity Indexes were used to determine how well the structures of the three founding blocs' major imports and exports match. Trade Intensity Indexes were used to determine how intensively the three founding blocs trade with one another. Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes were used to gain insights on whether TFTA member states have any comparative advantage in their major exports. Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes were used to gain insights into the extent of ease of market access into each regional bloc's market. Considering more than one index gives a broader understanding of trade between member states because the results from the indexes are discussed in a complementary manner. Additionally, the Chapter provides the shortcomings associated with the use of each index.

Chapter Five is an empirical analysis of current intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA. The results from the trade performance indicators are discussed alongside the relevant theoretical frameworks with the aim of drawing out the prospects and potential implications for intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA as well as implications for the Continental Free Trade Area. Chapter Six concludes the thesis and makes recommendations for the way forward. Limitations of the study and opportunities for future research are also discussed.

CHAPTER 2: THE PROPOSED TRIPARTITE FREE TRADE AREA AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MEMBER STATES

2.1 Introduction

Interest in regional economic integration is a global occurrence. Several blocs of differing sizes have been formed across the world such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in Asia with 10 member states; the European Union (EU) in Europe with 28 member states; and the Comprehensive and Progressive Agreement for Trans-Pacific Partnership (CPTPP) which currently has a total number of 11 member states from Australasia, Asia, North America and South America. Economic integration has also taken place in Africa and as at 2009, there were 13 regional economic blocs across the continent as shown by Figure 2.1 (in Section 2.5). The proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA) includes 27 member states from North, South, East and Central Africa. This chapter examines the aims and objectives of the TFTA Agreement as well as characteristics of its member states in order to provide a basis for an analysis of the current nature of intra-regional trade between member states of the proposed TFTA which is the overarching goal of this research. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the links between the proposed TFTA and Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) as well as overlapping membership in RECs across the African continent. Given that the proposed TFTA is not yet in place, no comparison is made between its performance and that of other free trade areas around the world.

Section 2.2 presents a brief history of regional economic integration across the African continent in order to establish what has already taken place on the continent up until the signing of the TFTA Agreement. Moreover, considering history will give a better understanding of what has motivated the pursuit of economic integration in Africa. Section 2.3 provides an overview of the TFTA Agreement, its objectives as well as progress made on its negotiations. Section 2.4 considers the links between the TFTA and the CFTA Agreements in order to show how the two Agreements are expected to co-exist in light of overlapping membership. Section 2.5 considers overlapping membership in regional economic communities (RECs) in order to determine possible consequences for TFTA member states as well as possible solutions. Section 2.6 provides basic characteristics of the countries in the proposed TFTA; the economic performance of those countries as well as the sectoral compositions of each economy. Factor

endowments will determine the areas where the various countries have comparative advantages and ultimately what they trade. Section 2.7 concludes the chapter.

2.2 History of regional economic integration in Africa

The first initiative of economic integration can be traced back to the founding of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) in 1963. Article II Section 2b of the OAU Charter states that member states would coordinate and harmonise policy in the field of economics (OAU, 1963:3). However, the Charter did not specify how the coordination and harmonisation of economic policy between members was to be achieved. Matthews (2008:32)¹ argues that the organisation ended up being more about politics than economics because its main role was to resolve domestic and international disputes, rather than pursue economic issues. For example, Munya (1998:556-561) notes that the OAU was called upon to lead the resolution of the Algerian-Moroccan border conflict as well as the Ethiopia-Somalia-Kenya border conflict.

In 1980, the Lagos Plan of Action (LPA) which reaffirmed OAU member states commitment to economic integration was adopted (Shayanowako, 2011:5). By signing the LPA, member states were committing themselves to strengthening existing RECs and establishing others in regions that previously did not have any during the 1980s, as per Paragraph II, B 1 (a) of Annex 1 of the LPA (in Appendix 1, page 75). In addition, they would strengthen continental integration in fields such as agriculture, food, transport and energy; and promote co-ordination and harmonisation between the existing and future groupings for the establishment of the African Common Market as per Paragraph II, B 1 (b) and (c) of Annex 1 of the LPA (in Appendix 1, page 75). Member states were also committing themselves to the establishment of an African Economic Community (AEC) by the year 2000 as per Paragraph II, (A) of Annex 1 of the LPA (in Appendix 1, page 75). However, Cheluget and Wright (2017:483) note that by the year 2000 neither the African Common Market nor the AEC had been established because a new deadline of 2023 was included in the Abuja Treaty. Although it is not clear why the deadline to establish the African Common Market and AEC was not met, perhaps a lack of commitment on the part of member states could be the reason, given the potential loss of national sovereignty associated with deeper levels of integration.

¹ In Marinov (2014:78).

Following the LPA, in 1991 the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community (AEC), also known as the Abuja Treaty, was signed by African Heads of State in Abuja, Nigeria (Hailu, 2014:313). Chapter 2 Article 6 of the Treaty outlined a 6-stage approach to achieve the AEC by 2028, as shown in Table A-1 (in Appendix 1, page 76). The approach is based on the market integration model which calls for a stage by stage process in economic integration beginning with a Free Trade Area and ending with an Economic Union as shown in Section 3.1 (Chapter 3). Several RECs including the East African Community (EAC), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) existed before the Abuja Treaty was signed. Therefore, Chapter 19 Article 88 of the Treaty notes that the AEC is to be established through the coordination, harmonisation and progressive integration of the activities of the all existing RECs (OAU, 1991:71).

It is evident that the LPA and the Abuja Treaty are linked. Although the idea for an African Common market and the AEC first appeared in the LPA, they were carried into the Abuja Treaty. The Treaty was a reaffirmation of commitment by African Heads of State to establish the African Common Market and the AEC in order to economically integrate the continent. Both the LPA and the Abuja Treaty sought to achieve these objectives by harmonising and co-ordinating the activities of existing and future RECs. The deadlines to establish the African Common Market and the AEC in LPA were not met and instead were restated in the Abuja Treaty as shown in Table A-1 (in Appendix 1, page 76).

In 2002, the African Union (AU) replaced the OAU and inaugurated a new vision for the continent. Whereas the OAU supported liberation movements in former African states under colonialism and apartheid, the AU seeks to be the driving force for Africa's development and integration agenda (AU, 2018a). The AU's commitment to economic integration was demonstrated at the AU summit in June 2015 when members began negotiations for the establishment of a Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) aimed at integrating Africa's markets in line with the objectives and principles outlined in the Abuja Treaty (Cheluget and Wright, 2017:481).

Currently, eight RECs are recognised by the AU² as crucial building blocs for the establishment of the AEC (Kayizzi-Mugerwa *et al.*, 2014:1). These RECs have been identified as important

² These are Arab Maghreb Union (UMA), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD), East African Community (EAC), Economic Community of

due to their role in promoting economic integration, peace, stability, development and governance in their respective regions in collaboration with the AU (AU, 2018b; OSAA, 2018). As a result of the multiple RECs across the continent, there is overlapping membership, and this will be discussed further in Section 2.5.

2.3 The Tripartite Free Trade Area Agreement

The TFTA Agreement will establish a Free Trade Area among member states of COMESA, EAC and SADC³. By seeking to harmonise and co-ordinate the activities of these three RECs, the TFTA is acting in accordance with Paragraph II, B 1 (c) of Annex 1 of the LPA (in Appendix 1, page 75) and the Abuja Treaty as per Phase 2 in Table A-1 (in Appendix 1, page 76). However, the proposed TFTA was not established with a view towards growing into an African Common Market or a Continental Customs Union, it will not go beyond a Free Trade Area among member states of its three founding blocs.

The major areas of co-operation are trade in goods and services, infrastructure, cross-border investment, industrial development and movement of business persons (COMESA, EAC & SADC, 2015:1). Therefore, the three main pillars of the TFTA Agreement may be summarised as market integration, infrastructural development and industrial development (Aniche, 2014:130; SADC, 2018a). The overarching objective of the proposed TFTA is to create a large single market which promotes intra-regional trade as well as economic and social development, and which is ultimately for the benefit of people in the Region as per Article 4 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 77). The overarching objective of the proposed TFTA will be fulfilled through the liberalisation of trade in goods and services, co-operation in all trade-related matters and the creation of institutions to govern the proposed TFTA as per Article 5 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 77).

The TFTA initiative was conceived at the first Tripartite Summit between the three blocs on 22nd October 2008 in Uganda. The declaration launching the negotiations for the establishment of the TFTA was signed at the second Tripartite Summit on 12th June 2011 in South Africa. The TFTA Agreement was officially launched on 10th June 2015 at the third Tripartite Summit

Central African States (ECCAS), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) and Southern African Development Community (SADC).

³ There are 27 member states, namely, Angola, Botswana, Burundi, Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Eswatini, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Africa, South Sudan, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

in Egypt. As of 5th December 2019, 22 of the 27 member states had signed the Agreement. Ethiopia, Eritrea, Lesotho, Mozambique and South Sudan are yet to sign and it is unclear why these countries have not done so.

Negotiations for the TFTA were to be REC and/or member state driven and in two phases. The first phase of the TFTA negotiations focused on tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade as per Section 2 (i) of Annex 1 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 78). Although the TFTA Agreement was launched on 10th June 2015 it was without country-specific tariff schedules and rules of origin having been agreed (Aniche, 2014:130; Erasmus, 2015:7; Jovanovic, 2016:305). TFTA members who had not yet completed and shared their tariff offers were urged to do so by December 2018 but this deadline was not met and the completion of negotiations remains pending (COMESA, EAC & SADC, 2018:5). The second phase of the negotiations was to address trade in services and other-related issues such as intellectual property rights as per Section 2 (iii) of Annex 1 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 78). Part 12 Article 45 of the TFTA Agreement states that the second phase of negotiations was expected to be completed 24 months after the Agreement was signed which is June 2017 (COMESA, EAC and SADC, 2015:20). However, on 20th March 2019, Hartzenberg and Erasmus (2019) stated that the second phase of negotiations would no longer take place with the implication that the proposed TFTA will only focus on trade in goods. However, it should be noted that the issues which were to be covered in the second phase of the TFTA negotiations such as trade in services, competition policy and intellectual property rights are covered by Articles 6 and 7 of the CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 80) for which the proposed TFTA members are also members.

Part 12 Article 39 of the Agreement states that the Agreement shall be ratified by member states in accordance with their national laws and come into force 30 days after at least 14 members have ratified it (COMESA, EAC and SADC, 2015:19). Thus far, only Egypt, Kenya, South Africa and Uganda have ratified this Agreement (COMESA, 2018b; DTI, 2018; TRALAC, 2018a). It remains unclear why other countries have yet to ratify it. However, some countries such as Rwanda, Djibouti, Eswatini and Namibia have ratified the CFTA Agreement but not the TFTA Agreement (TRALAC, 2018b). This suggests that the CFTA could be of higher significance to them.

2.4 Continental Free Trade Area

The Agreement establishing the Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) was presented to African leaders for signature on 21st March 2018 in Kigali, Rwanda (TRALAC, 2018b). The desire for continent-wide economic integration as expressed in the CFTA Agreement is rooted in both the LPA as per Paragraph II, B 2 (b) of Annex 1 of the LPA (in Appendix 1, page 75) and the Abuja Treaty as per Phase 4 in Table A-1 (in Appendix 1, page 76). According to AU (2018d:1) the CFTA aims to integrate Africa's markets in accordance with objectives and principles stated in the Abuja Treaty. Furthermore, it is a foundation for the establishment of a Continental Customs Union as per Article 3 (d) (in Appendix 1, page 81).

The CFTA Agreement has been signed by 54 of the 55 AU member states and 28 of the 55 have ratified it as shown in Table A-2 (in Appendix 1, page 82). The primary objective of CFTA Agreement is to create a single market for goods and services which also allows for the free movement of business and natural persons; which promotes sustainable socio-economic and industrial development; and increases the competitiveness of African economies on the global market as per Article 3 (in Appendix 1, page 81). The objectives of the CFTA Agreement are to be fulfilled through, amongst others, the liberalisation of trade in goods and services; co-operation in matters related to investment, competition, trade and customs; the creation of systems that deal with resolving conflict and institutions to govern the CFTA as per Article 4 of the CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 81). The CFTA has two phases of negotiations. Phase one focuses on trade in goods and services and Phase II focuses on investment, intellectual property rights and competition policy as stated in Article 7 of the Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 80).

There are similarities between the general and specific objectives of the CFTA and those of the proposed TFTA. The overarching objectives of both the proposed TFTA and the CFTA are to create a single market for goods in order to deepen economic integration. Concerning the specific objectives, both Agreements seek to progressively eliminate tariff and non-tariff barriers, liberalise trade in services, co-operate on customs matters and the implementation of trade facilitation measures, co-operate on all trade-related matters and to establish institutions that implement the respective Agreements as shown in Article 5 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 77) and Articles 4 (a), (b), (d), (e), and (g) of the CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 81).

However, the two Agreements also have differences. The TFTA does not seek to go beyond a Free Trade Area between the three regional blocs while the CFTA is the foundation for a continent-wide Customs Union to be established at a later stage. Furthermore, the CFTA Agreement general objectives cover areas that the TFTA Agreement objectives do not directly address such as the free movement of business and natural persons, gender equality, competitiveness of economies, regional value chain development, agricultural development, food security as per Article 3 of CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 81).

The establishment of the TFTA should be viewed as an important stepping stone towards the continent-wide Customs Union envisioned by the CFTA (Cheluget and Wright, 2017:481; Pesce *et al.*, 2015:295). For example, Erasmus (2017:5) suggests that the on-going CFTA negotiations on trade facilitation could be built on the progress made by member states of the proposed TFTA in their negotiations because the same member states are involved in CFTA negotiations. In this way, as noted by COMESA (2018a), the CFTA would build on and benefit from the work being undertaken by the proposed TFTA thereby making quicker progress.

As noted by COMESA, EAC and SADC (2010:1-25) in Annex 4 of the TFTA Agreement and by AU (2018e:3-35) in Annex 2 of the CFTA Agreement, there are clear rules of origin (ROO) which have been agreed on. These are laws that are used to determine the country of origin of goods. ROO will be used to distinguish between those goods that are produced within the TFTA and CFTA respectively which are eligible for preferential tariff treatment and those that have been produced outside the respective Free Trade Areas which will face full import duties when traded. Without agreed ROO between members, non-member countries can bypass trade restrictions in more highly protected member countries (Appleyard and Field, 2017:388-389; TRALAC, 2018c). Annex 4 Articles 3-5 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 83) outline the criteria that must be met for a good to be considered as having originated from the TFTA and Annex 2 Articles 4-9 (in Appendix 1, page 85) outline the same information for goods originating from the CFTA. For both the TFTA and CFTA, goods that do not meet these criteria will not qualify for preferential treatment in the respective regional blocs. Where ROO are clear and enforced, overlapping membership *per se* may not be a problem. The penalties for supplying documents with false information in order to obtain preferential treatment for products are listed in Annex 4 Article 34 of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 84) and Annex 2 Article 37 of the CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 88).

2.5 Overlapping membership

As previously stated in Section 2.2, the multiplicity of RECs across the continent has led to overlapping membership as illustrated in Figure 2.1 below.

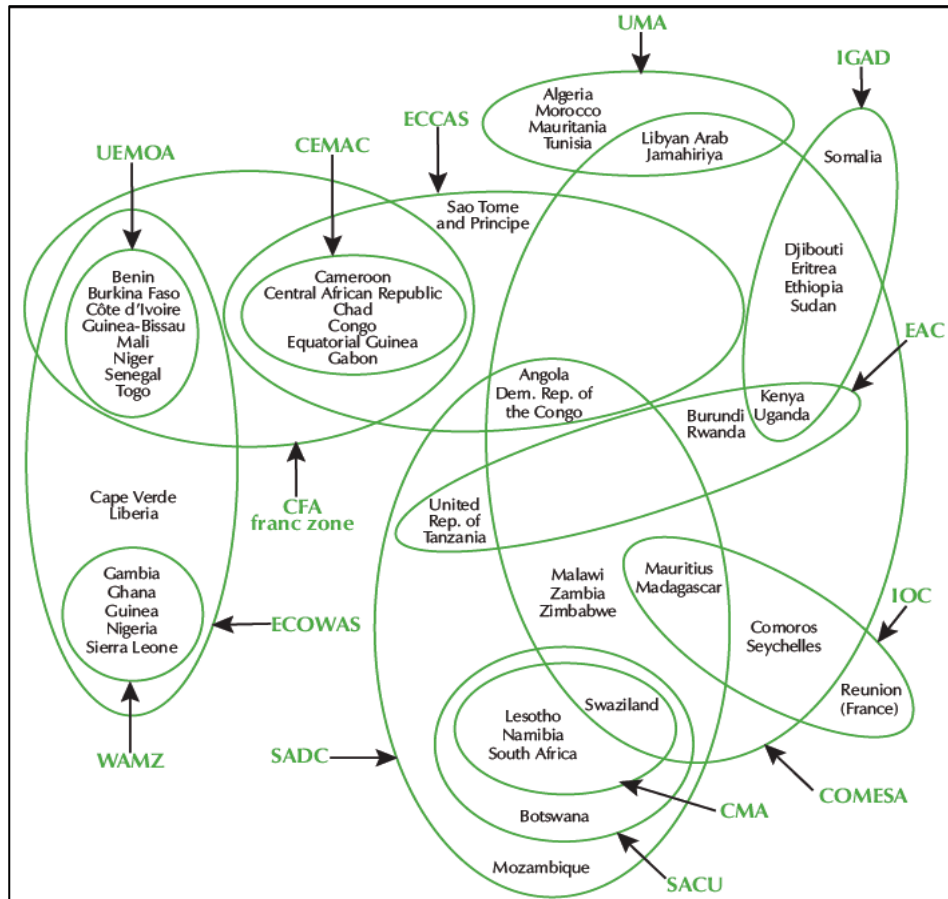
Article 3 (h) of the CFTA Agreement states that it seeks to resolve the challenges of overlapping memberships and accelerate the process of continental integration (in Appendix 1, page 81). However, the TFTA Agreement and other RECs will continue to operate upon ratification of the CFTA Agreement as reflected in Article 8 (2) of the CFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 89). Therefore, the objective of Article 3 (h) of the CFTA Agreement which is to resolve the challenges of overlapping memberships will not be met because the TFTA and other RECs will continue to exist alongside the CFTA.

The problem presented by overlapping membership is related to the RECs being at different levels of regional economic integration. The different levels of economic integration necessitate different requirements with regards to trade policy. The proposed TFTA, CFTA, COMESA and SADC are Free Trade Areas which means that each of these regional groups remove tariffs on fellow member countries products while maintaining independence in determining tariffs with non-members. The EAC is a Customs Union which means that all the members of the group remove tariffs on each other's products and adopt common external tariffs with non-members. For example, Kenya is a member of COMESA, the proposed TFTA and the CFTA which are all Free Trade Areas, and this means that Kenya maintains freedom in establishing tariffs and barriers to trade with non-members. However, Kenya is also a member of the EAC which is a Customs Union and that means Kenya must adhere to the groups common external tariff with non-members. This is an example how Kenya will have to adhere to the differing requirements of these economic integration initiatives.

Overlapping membership in regional integration initiatives across the continent has consequences such as conflicting economic objectives, duplication of effort and costly membership fees (Geda and Kebret, 2008:374; Hartzenberg, 2011:18; Tuluy, 2016:347). Further constraints to the implementation of economic integration initiatives include; inadequate physical infrastructure which leads to high costs and reduced competitiveness, lack of political will due to perceived loss of national sovereignty, lack of institutional capacity for regional integration and poor private sector participation (Geda and Kebret, 2008:374, 380; Lehloenyana and Mpya, 2016:91-95; Saville and White, 2015:7; Tuluy, 2016:341,347). Mengistu

(2015:423) notes other challenges associated with overlapping membership such as harmonising the different agendas of these initiatives into a country's national policies and programmes and the burden of attending various summits and meetings.

Figure 2.1: Overlapping membership in regional economic blocs in Africa as at 2009⁴



Source: UNCTAD (2009:12).

Notes: UEMOA= West African Economic and Monetary Union,
WAMZ= West African Monetary Zone (Liberia has since joined)
ECOWAS= Economic Community of West African States
CEMAC= Economic Community of West African States
ECCAS= Economic Community of Central African States (Burundi and Rwanda have since joined)
UMA= Arab Maghreb Union
IGAD= Intergovernmental Authority on Development (South Sudan has since joined)
EAC= East African Community (South Sudan has since joined)
IOC= Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission
CMA= Common Monetary Union, SACU= Southern African Customs Union
COMESA= Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (Egypt, Somalia and Tunisia have since joined; Angola has since left)
SADC= Southern African Development Community (Comoros and Seychelles have since joined)
Swaziland has since become Eswatini.

⁴ There have been changes in the membership of the regional economic blocs since 2009. Such changes are indicated in the notes below Figure 2.1. UNCTAD (2009) was the most recent resource that I could find to illustrate the overlapping memberships in regional economic blocs across Africa.

Ajumbo and Briggs (2015) suggest that provided the CFTA is signed and ratified by all member states, the AU could be best placed to bring together all the RECs to coordinate their activities and establish the Continental Customs Union. It could do this through the AU commission, part of whose function is to coordinate and harmonise the programmes and policies of the Union with those of the RECs (AU, 2018a). This would be in accordance with the Abuja Treaty which seeks to promote the harmonisation and co-ordination of the activities of RECs as per Phase 4 as shown in Table A-1 (in Appendix 1, page 76).

Care must be taken in trying to maintain the balance between retaining existing RECs and creating a single trading area across the continent. Erasmus (2017:5) suggests that the TFTA and CFTA Agreements will eventually need to be combined into one. UNECA (2017:56) further states that if this does not take place, the CFTA could merely be an addition to existing trade agreements and miss the opportunity to simplify trade across the continent. Therefore, challenges caused by overlapping membership would persist.

2.6 Basic characteristics of TFTA member states

Table A-3 (in Appendix 1, page 90) shows that the proposed TFTA will cover an area of 16 722 451 square kilometres with a combined population of approximately 726 million people. The country with the largest population is Ethiopia with 104 957 438 people while the smallest is Seychelles with 95 843 people. Table A-3 (in Appendix 1, page 90) also reflects the Human Development Index (HDI)⁵ for each country as well as the various Human Development Categories that each member state falls into. Of the 26 countries, 17 are in the Low Human Development category; Libya, Mauritius and Seychelles are the only countries which are in the High Human Development category and the rest of the countries fall into the Medium Human Development category. The different Human Development Categories amongst the member states necessitate differing developmental objectives to improve living standards in the respective countries and regional blocs. For example, EAC (2019) notes that a development goal of the EAC is “to reduce incidence of HIV infection in the East African region in order to secure sustained socio-economic development in the EAC region”. The relevance of this development goal is reflected by the fact that Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda are all in the low HDI category, while only Kenya is in the medium HDI category.

⁵ The Human Development Index is a summary measure of achievements in three areas of human development: a long and healthy life, access to knowledge and a decent standard of living.

The TFTA countries have different per capita income levels; Seychelles is the only country in the region that falls in the high-income economy category and the country with the lowest per capita income is Burundi. Of the 26 TFTA member states, 10 are considered low-income economies with an income of \$995 or less per capita. There appears to be a link between a country's income per capita level and their HDI. The countries which are in the medium to high-income level are also in the medium to high HDI category. For cases such as Angola, a high-income per capita level has not resulted in a high HDI. This suggests that the wealth of the country may not be trickling down to poorer people in the country. They are essentially failing to provide adequate healthcare facilities, better education or a decent living standard for the majority of their citizens. If low income per capita levels persist, the citizens of these countries will not be able to fully reap the benefits of the larger market that the TFTA seeks to provide.

Table A-3 (in Appendix 1, page 90) shows that the TFTA countries differ in terms of their economic size, as measured by nominal GDP. The combined GDP of the region in 2017 was close to US\$ 1.3 trillion. It has been noted that if the TFTA were a single economy it would be the 13th largest economy in the world (Cheluget and Wright, 2017:492; Luke and Mabuza, 2015:4). According to GDP in 2017, South Africa is the largest economy and the smallest is Seychelles. It has been suggested that larger economies stand to benefit more from the TFTA in comparison to smaller economies because they have more developed industrial bases and a more diversified export base to meet the import needs of smaller economies (Kalenga, 2013:7; Marinov, 2016:88). However, this does not mean that smaller economies will not benefit from the TFTA. For example, SAIIA (2015) suggests that smaller member states could provide inputs for the products and services produced by the larger member states and thus become a part of a regional value chain.

Table A-4 (in Appendix 1, page 92) reflects the growth performance of the various countries and it is evident that the economies have grown at different rates over the period 2000-2017. Comoros, Egypt, Eswatini, Kenya, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia are the only countries with positive growth rates over the entire period. The small size of countries like Comoros, Eswatini, Lesotho and Mauritius did not inhibit economic growth. 2010 and 2012 are the only years in which every country recorded positive growth rates. The largest economy according to GDP, South Africa, has an average growth rate of 2.9 percent for the period. Its highest recorded growth of 5.6 percent was in 2006. The

average growth rates of the next four largest economies in the proposed TFTA (according GDP) are Egypt, with an average growth rate of 4.2 percent; Angola with 7.9 percent; Sudan with 5.2 percent and Ethiopia with 9.0 percent. For the year ended 2017, Libya had the highest growth rate (26.7 percent) while Namibia had the smallest (-0.8 percent).

Article 4 (a) of the TFTA Agreement (in Appendix 1, page 77) states that one of the objectives of the Agreement is to promote economic and social development of the region. The implication of sustained economic growth could see at least two benefits realised. Firstly, sustained growth could stimulate job creation, lower unemployment rates and thereby decrease disparities in income. Secondly, increased income could help curb high levels of poverty found across the continent. In this way both economic and social development would be promoted in line with Article 4 (a) of the TFTA Agreement.

Table A-5 (in Appendix 1, page 93) shows the sectoral composition of GDP for each country. The sector with the most significant contribution is highlighted in yellow and for several countries it can generally be observed that the primary industry is the most important. This is because of the significant contribution to GDP that the agricultural and mining sectors make. Ofa *et al.* (2012:24) suggest that the implication of this dependence on the primary industry is a similarity in export structures across countries with a focus on low value-added, poorly differentiated exports. The contribution of the manufacturing sector to GDP, highlighted in red, is small (less than 10%) for most countries except for Democratic Republic of Congo (20.8%), Egypt (16.7%), Eswatini (33.2%) Lesotho (17.4%), Mauritius (13.3%) and South Africa (13.2%). The implication of a small manufacturing sector for the proposed TFTA is that there will be low trade in finished goods, again limiting the scope for intra-regional trade. In terms of services, highlighted by green, the most significant contribution to GDP is by the finance, real estate and business services sector. The following are the contributions of the sector in various countries: Botswana (15.3%), Comoros (20.5%), Egypt (15.2%), Eritrea (27.8%), Eswatini (13.9%), Kenya (14.9%), Lesotho (14.4%), Malawi (14.1%), Mauritius (25.7%), Namibia (15.2%), Rwanda (20.2%), Seychelles (26.4%), South Africa (20.2%) and Uganda (12.8%). This suggests that the sector is of growing importance in these countries. The implication of a well-developed financial sector for the proposed TFTA will be an increased ability to handle the large volume of transactions associated with increased trade between countries. Otchere *et al.* (2017:1) add that financial sector development also results in other benefits such as liquidity provision and risk management.

Similarities in sectoral contributions to GDP indicate that many of the countries in the TFTA have similar economic structures. The implication is that the level of intra-regional trade within the TFTA may be not be as high as expected because the economies of TFTA member states are in competition with one another as opposed to being complementary. Aniche (2014:134-135) suggests that limited complementarity in comparison to competition between Tripartite economies is part of the reason for low trade between them.

2.7 Conclusion

The first initiative of economic integration on the continent was the founding of the OAU in 1963. This was followed by the LPA in 1980 which sought to establish an African Common Market as well as an AEC by 2000. Following this, the Abuja Treaty was signed in 1991 and it outlined a 6-stage approach to achieve the AEC by 2028. The TFTA Agreement, another stepping stone of economic integration on the continent, was launched on 10th June 2015. This was followed by the emergence of the CFTA Agreement which was presented for signature on 21st March 2018. An analysis of the LPA, Abuja Treaty, TFTA Agreement and CFTA Agreement reveals that they are not isolated developments. Beginning with the LPA, they are all concerned with attaining continent-wide economic integration through the harmonisation and co-ordination of the activities of RECs.

The AU, which was founded in 2002, has since become the driving force of economic integration on the continent. It is best placed to deal with the challenges of overlapping membership through the AU Commission. By combining the TFTA and CFTA Agreements, trade across the continent could be simplified.

Members of the proposed TFTA are in different stages with regard to human development according to HDI. The countries are also of different economic sizes (according to GDP) and have grown at different growth rates over the period 2000-2017. This has implications for achieving the objective of promoting economic and social development of the Region as per Article 4 (a) of the TFTA Agreement. Furthermore, this has implications for industrial development which is one of the 3 pillars of the proposed TFTA.

For several countries, the primary industry remains the most important while the manufacturing sector is quite small. Given the similarities in sectoral composition of the economies, the implication for the proposed TFTA may be similar export structures leading to less

opportunities for intra-regional trade. The finance, real estate and business services sector is of growing importance for over half of the TFTA members and the development of this sector will be beneficial for handling increased volumes of trade and transactions.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS RELEVANT FOR ECONOMIC INTEGRATION

3.1 Introduction

Economic integration is an arrangement between different countries for their mutual economic benefit. There are different types of economic integration arrangements, viz. a Free-Trade Area, a Customs Union, a Common Market and an Economic Union. The key characteristics of each type of economic integration arrangement are illustrated in Table A-6 (Appendix 2, page 97). It can be surmised that progressing along the different stages of economic integration involves increasingly giving up national sovereignty in different areas.

The lowest and most common form of economic integration is a Free Trade Area, where member countries progressively eliminate tariffs on each other's products. However, each member country maintains freedom to establish tariffs with non-members. The second stage of economic integration is a Customs Union, which involves adopting a common external tariff with non-member countries in addition to the removal of tariffs between member countries. From a Free Trade Area to a Customs Union, a country gives up sovereignty in determining tariff rates. The third stage of economic integration is a Common Market, which goes beyond a Customs Union by allowing the free movement of factors of production between member states. The move to a Common Market, involves the loss of sovereignty in relation to immigration and capital flows. The fourth and most comprehensive stage of economic integration is an Economic Union, in which monetary and fiscal policies between member states are harmonised and sometimes completely unified. An Economic Union further involves the establishment of supra-national institutions who make decisions that are binding on all members. Examples of such institutions are the European Central Bank which is responsible for monetary policy in the European Union; The European Commission; The European Parliament and The Court of Justice of the European Union. The decisions made by these institutions are binding on all members of the European Union. Sovereignty is lost as member countries give up independence in determining various policies as this responsibility now lies with the supra-national institutions. If an Economic Union adopts a common currency it becomes a Monetary Union. The fifth and most comprehensive stage of economic integration is a Political Union, which goes beyond an Economic Union by including the unification of political institutions between member countries. The loss of sovereignty at this stage is as a

result of giving up self-governance (Appleyard and Field, 2017:388-389; Balassa, 2013:2; Hailu 2014:300-301; Hosny 2013:134; Sapir, 2011:1202).

Economic integration results in differential treatment for members and non-members of the arrangement. The changes in trade patterns may lead to gains and losses for the member states involved. Therefore, to determine whether economic integration is beneficial, its welfare effects need to be considered and this highlights the need to review the relevant theories of economic integration as they outline these effects.

It is necessary to consider the theory of economic integration because the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA) is an economic integration arrangement that establishes a Free Trade Area between the 27 member countries that have signed the Agreement. Therefore, trade theories which discuss economic integration present the relevant frameworks and the essential conditions that need to be in place for economic integration within the TFTA to be successful. The specific theoretical frameworks to be considered are the market integration model and the theory of common markets.

Section 3.2 presents the market integration model as this is the approach to economic integration that the proposed TFTA will take. An understanding of the model will help determine whether the proposed TFTA meets the model's conditions and the outcomes expected. Thereafter, the criticisms of the model and implications for the TFTA will be discussed in order to outline potential problems that the proposed TFTA may face in trying to increase intra-regional trade. Section 3.3 presents the theory of common markets as it discusses issues related to the free movement of factors of production, which has implications for the industrial development pillar of the TFTA. Section 3.4 concludes the chapter.

3.2 The Market Integration Model

The market integration model has been particularly important in Africa. Beginning with the Abuja Treaty in 1991, African economic integration initiatives were based on the market integration model's design. However, there have been varying results from the model's use across the continent.

3.2.1 Introduction

The market integration model has its foundations in neoclassical theory and is based on the following assumptions: perfect competition in factor and commodity markets; factors of production are mobile within countries but not between them; no transport costs; tariffs are the only form of trade restriction; trade is balanced (exports equal imports); prices reflect the opportunity cost of production; resources are fully employed (Osa, 2014:49; Robson, 1998:18).

3.2.2 The model

Jacob Viner (1950) pioneered the study on potential gains and losses from economic integration. The market integration model argues that the gains and losses of economic integration are; the result of its impact on the allocation of resources and international specialisation; the exploitation of scale economies; the terms of trade; the productivity of factors; profit margins; the rate of economic growth and the distribution of income as noted by Devadoss *et al.* (1995:217) and Robson (1998:17). The effects of economic integration are classified as static effects and dynamic effects. The static effects of economic integration are divided into trade creation and trade diversion. Corden (1972) introduced economies of scale into this static framework. The dynamic effects of economic integration are additional welfare effects experienced by participating countries.

3.2.2.1 Static effects

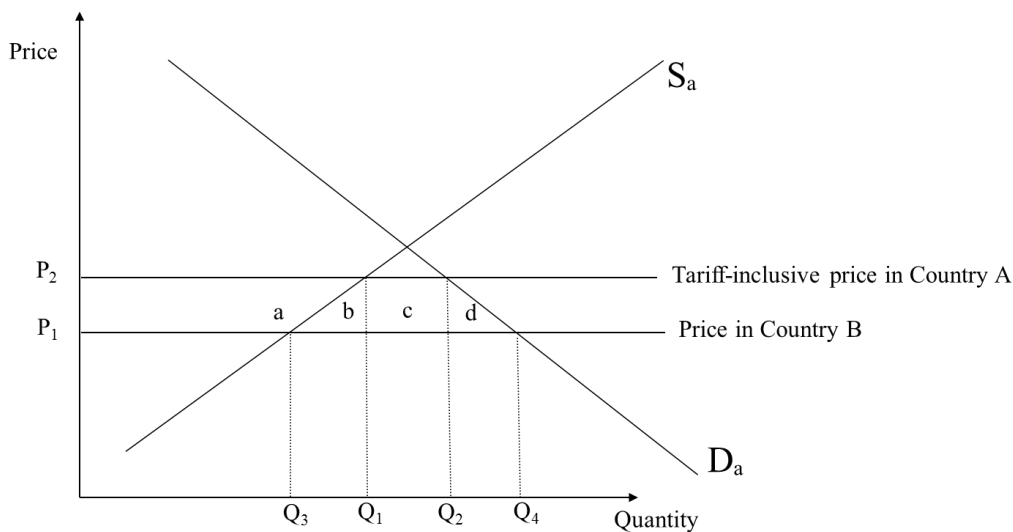
Viner divided the static effects of economic integration into trade creation and trade diversion (Appleyard and Field, 2017:390; Hosny, 2013:135). Appleyard and Field (2017:390) note that static effects occur to members directly on the formation of the economic integration arrangement.

3.2.2.1.1 Trade creation and welfare

Trade creation takes place when a trade agreement leads to a shift in product origin from a high-cost supplier to a low-cost supplier who is part of the agreement. The shift in product origin from a high-cost to a low-cost member producer represents a movement in the direction of free-trade allocation of resources and leads to gains in national welfare (Appleyard and Field, 2017:390; Guei *et al.*, 2017:3; Pasara and Dunga, 2019:52).

Trade creation gains arise from a producer surplus as well as a consumer surplus. The producer surplus refers to a saving by the home country in the real cost of goods previously produced domestically, as these are now being imported from a partner country more cheaply. The consumer surplus is generated by the substitution of lower-cost for higher-cost goods (Mutambara, 2013b:136). At lower prices, domestic consumers can increase their consumption through the purchase of the cheaper goods (Mutambara, 2013b:136; Wolla and Esenther, 2017:2). The effect of trade creation is illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: Trade creation and welfare



Source: Adapted from Appleyard and Field (2017:390).

Assume Country A produces a good and also imports the good from Country B before the formation of an economic integration arrangement. Country A's demand curve for the good is represented by D_a and its supply curve by S_a . If Country A imposes a tariff on the good, the price of the good domestically will be P_2 . Before integration, Country A consumes Q_2 and the domestic supply is Q_1 . The quantity imported by Country A from Country B is $Q_2 - Q_1$.

When Country A enters into a free trade agreement with Country B, the removal of the tariff will result in the domestic price in Country A dropping from P_2 to P_1 . As a result, the quantity consumed by Country A increases to Q_4 , the quantity supplied by Country A falls to Q_3 . $Q_4 - Q_3$ is the new amount imported by Country A from Country B. It can be seen that $Q_4 - Q_3 > Q_2 - Q_1$. This trade agreement is trade creating because $Q_1 - Q_3$ has shifted from domestic production to

Country B which is a lower-cost producer (production effect). Q_4-Q_2 reflects the increase in Country A's consumption as a result of the fall in price from P_2 to P_1 (consumption effect).

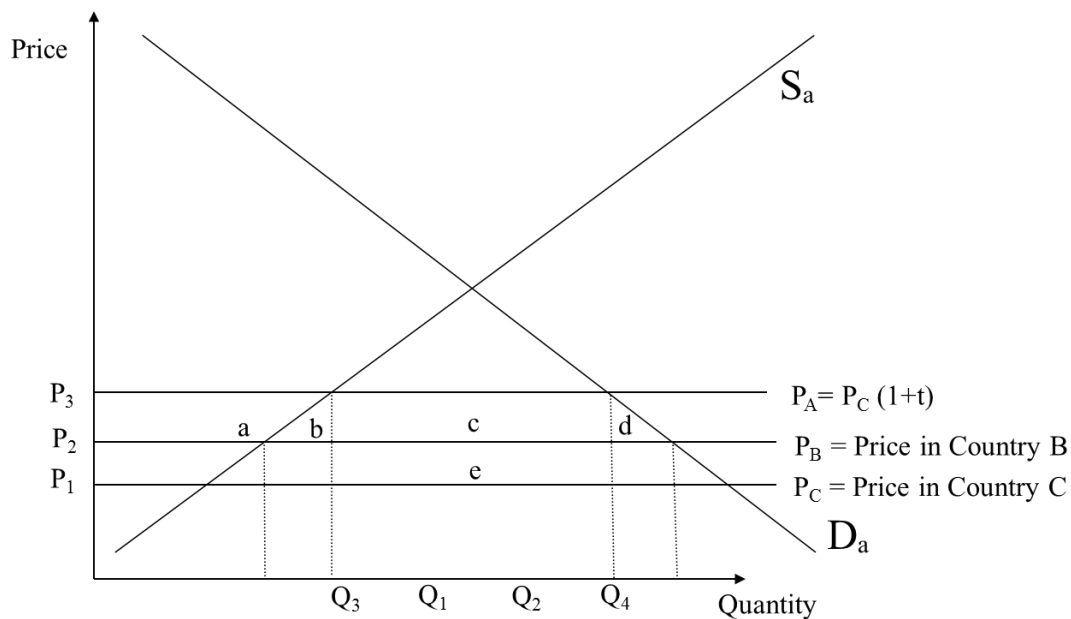
The welfare impact is positive. There is a gain in consumer surplus of areas (**a+b+c+d**). The amount **a** represents the transfer of producer surplus from Country A's suppliers and **c** represents former tariff revenue that now accrues to Country A's consumers. The net gain for Country A is area (**b+d**). Osa (2014:9) notes that the trade creation effect consists of two parts, a production effect which is the substitution of cheaper foreign goods for domestic goods within the union and a consumption effect which is the gain in consumer surplus from cheaper goods.

3.2.2.1.2 Trade diversion and welfare

Trade diversion takes place when there is shift in product origin from a low-cost supplier outside an economic integration arrangement to a high-cost supplier who is part of the agreement. The shift in production represents a movement away from the free-trade allocation of resources and could reduce welfare (Appleyard and Field, 2017:390; Guei *et al.*, 2017:3; Pasara and Dunga, 2019:52). Osa (2014:49) notes that the trade diversion effect consists of two parts, the substitution of high-cost goods from within the union for low-cost goods outside the union, and the loss in consumer surplus that this brings. Trade diversion and its implications on welfare are illustrated in Figure 3.2 below.

Assume there are three countries, Country A is the home country, Country B is a potential partner in a trade agreement and Country C is a non-member. Country A's demand curve for the good is represented by D_a and its supply curve by S_a . The production cost of a good is P_1 in Country C and P_2 in Country B. In this situation, Country A will import from Country C because Country C is the cheaper source. The price of the good is P_3 in Country A because it has a tariff in place on goods from Country C.

Figure 3.2: Trade diversion and welfare



Source: Adapted from Appleyard and Field (2017:395).

If Country A forms a trade agreement with Country B, it will remove the tariff as part of the trade agreement with Country B but maintain it against Country C. The result is that Country A can now purchase the good from Country B at P_2 compared to the previous tariff-inclusive price of P_3 . The national welfare gain is represented by area **(b+d)**, where Area **b** is the production effect and area **d** is the consumption effect. The area represented by **c** is the government revenue given up on the implementation of the trade agreement which is transferred to domestic consumers through a lower price. The loss of this government revenue limits the government's ability to provide public services such as education and health, especially in developing countries as noted by Makochekanwa (2014:191). The area represented by **e** is the cost of diverting trade from a more efficient supplier (Country C) to a less efficient supplier (Country B) i.e. the cost of trade diversion. The net effect of economic integration between Country A and Country B depends on the sum **(b+d-e)**. If **(b+d)** is larger than **e**, then the economic integration arrangement is trade creating. However, if **e** is larger than **(b+d)**, the economic integration arrangement is trade diverting. Viner (1950) concluded that countries would be motivated to form economic integration arrangements if integration was more likely to be trade creating than trade diverting (Hosny, 2013:135).

3.2.2.2 Economies of scale

Corden (1972) conducted a study in which he considered the impact of economies of scale in customs union theory. He noted that on formation of the union, economies of scale could lead to a cost reduction effect. Corden (1972) cited in Peiris *et al.* (2015:55) notes that the average cost per unit of domestic output would reduce because of the increase in domestic output. In addition, Corden (1972:467) and Mutambara (2013b:136) note that the more efficient member state would also stand to gain from increased sales to other union members. The less efficient member states would experience a trade creation gain because their expensive domestic production would be replaced by a cheaper source of supply from the more efficient member state

Furthermore, Corden (1972) noted that the formation of a union could lead to a trade suppression effect. He argued that the high-cost member would cease production and the more efficient member would emerge and begin to produce for the entire union, a process referred to as production reversal. The high-cost member experiences a trade creation gain (production effect + consumption effect). The newly emerged more efficient member state experiences a trade suppression effect as its domestic production would replace the cheaper source from outside the union. This is similar to trade diversion but it is domestic producers in the newly emerged more efficient member country that have replaced the cheaper source and not another member of the union (Corden, 1972:468; Mutambara, 2013b:137).

3.2.2.3 Dynamic Effects

The effects of economic integration on welfare are not limited to static effects because there are also dynamic effects. Schiff and Winters (1998:179) cited in Hosny (2013:139) defined the dynamic effects of economic integration as “anything that affects a country’s rate of growth in the medium term”. Appleyard and Field (2017:398) suggest that the dynamic effects of economic integration are the factors which cause “the economic structure and performance of participating countries to evolve differently than if they had not been integrated”. Some of these effects include:

- i. Increased competition and the possible reduction in monopolistic markets which would be the result of a reduction in trade barriers;

- ii. Large union markets may result in economies of scale being realised in the export and import of certain goods. The economies of scale may be internal to the exporting firm of a member country as it becomes bigger or they may be the result of the lowering of costs of inputs due to economic changes external to the firm;
- iii. Economies of scale could include specialisation in the types of goods produced which may result in increasingly intra-industry trade rather than inter-industry trade;
- iv. Increased foreign and local investment in member countries as a result of access to new and larger markets with less risk and uncertainty;
- v. Increased economic efficiency and higher factor incomes as a result of the ability of both capital and labour to move from areas of surplus to areas of scarcity; and
- vi. Rapid technological progress as technological advancements in one member country can freely flow across borders into another (Allen, 1963:451 cited in Hosny, 2013:139; Appleyard and Field, 2017:398; Balassa, 2013:14; Brada and Mendez, 1988 cited in Hosny, 2013:139; Kahouli and Kadhraoui, 2012:77; Kreinin, 1963:193 cited in Hosny 2013:139; Musonera and Ndagijimana, 2010:138; Mutambara, 2010:42).

3.2.2.4 Conditions for successful economic integration between member countries

The higher the initial level of tariffs between member states is, the more likely economic integration will have beneficial effects because the removal of tariffs will have a greater impact in terms of welfare. If the initial tariffs between members are high, the inefficiencies are greater and the welfare effects from the removal of tariffs will be greater. The area **(b+d)** on Figure 3.1, which represents the net gain in welfare will be larger (Appleyard and Field, 2017:396; Hillmann, 1957:492 cited in Hosny, 2013:144; Marinov, 2015:34; Meade, 1955 cited in Hosny, 2013:144).

Economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects the more elastic supply and demand in the member countries is, because the greater the quantity response by both consumers and producers will be to changes in price. If the price elasticity of demand is high, there will be a significant increase in consumption as a result of the removal of tariffs and the subsequent fall in price. If the price elasticity of supply is high, there will be a significant increase in production as a result of increased demand (Appleyard and Field, 2017:396).

The greater the number of participating countries in an agreement is, the more likely economic integration will be successful because a larger group of countries in an economic integration

arrangement increases the possibility of trade creation and reduces the number of non-member countries from who trade can be diverted. There is a higher chance of including low-cost suppliers if a union is larger. In addition, a greater number of participating countries means a larger number of people who will make up the market (Appleyard and Field, 2017:396; Hine, 1994:244; Hosny, 2013:144; Marinov, 2015:30).

Economic integration is more likely to be successful if prior to the formation of the union, the proportion of trade with prospective partners is higher than the proportion of trade with the rest of the world. In this case, the formation of the union is more likely to produce welfare gains as noted by Hine (1994:244), Hosny (2013:144) and Marinov (2015:34). In addition, economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects the closer the member countries are to one another geographically because transport costs tend to reduce the potential benefits from trade integration. If members are closer to one another, these obstacles become less of a hindrance to trade as noted by Appleyard and Field (2017:398) and Marinov (2015:35). Furthermore, economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects the greater the ease of switching from a higher-cost domestic source to a lower-cost member source because of the larger potential gains as noted by Appleyard and Field (2017:398).

3.2.3 Criticisms of the model and implications for the Tripartite Free Trade Area

It is important to consider criticisms of the market integration model because these will have implications for the proposed TFTA. The criticisms of the model are often based on its assumptions and their lack of applicability in developing countries.

Robson (1968) cited in Musonera and Ndagijimana (2010:138) suggests that the effects of the market integration model are not significant for developing countries. He argues that theory was developed as a result of the experience of European countries and cannot be applied to African economic integration arrangements. The reason for this is that African economies produce very similar products and as such are in competition with one another resulting in limited trade complementarity. Chacha (2013:10) and ECA (2004:41) both cited in Afesorgbor and Bergeijk (2014:518) note that similarities in comparative advantages and supply side characteristics have resulted in African regional trade agreements making only a small contribution to bilateral trade flows. Gibb (2009:712) suggests that there is a lack of economic complementarity between African states and that a lack of tradeable goods is a significant impediment to market integration. It was established in Section 2.6 (Chapter 2) that the most

significant contribution to GDP for member states of the proposed TFTA is the primary industry. Furthermore, the contribution of the manufacturing sector to GDP in member states is less than 10% for all but six countries. These similarities in sectoral contributions to GDP indicate that many of the countries in the proposed TFTA have similar economic structures and therefore limited trade complementarity. The implication for member states is that their economies may remain in competition with each other while the majority of trade continues to take place with non-African countries. Therefore, there may not be a significant increase in intra-regional trade as envisioned by the Agreement.

A further criticism against the model relates to the assumption that tariffs between member states were the reason that trade between them was limited. Biswas (2000:75) notes that the benefits of removing tariffs arise only when tariffs were the major impediment to trade to begin with. It can be argued that there are several factors which have limited trade such as transport costs, inadequate infrastructure, a lack of industrial capacity, complex customs procedures and other non-tariff barriers. Therefore, it is important for member states of the proposed TFTA to determine what non-tariff barriers to trade exist between them. If non-tariff barriers to trade are not dealt with, the removal of tariffs may not lead to an increase in intra-regional trade between member states of the proposed TFTA because it was not the only factor limiting trade.

Musonera and Ndagijimana (2010:139) suggest that the model faces difficulties in developing countries because of the unequal distribution of costs and benefits between member states. This is a contradiction to customs union theory which assumes that each member state should benefit from economic integration on the basis of comparative advantages as noted by Robson (1980) cited in Biswas (2000:75) and Robson (1968) cited in Musonera and Ndagijimana (2010:139). Therefore, it can be argued that the formation of an economic integration arrangement would affect member states differently. For example, member states of the proposed TFTA with more developed industrial bases would be in a better position to meet the import needs of those member states who are less industrialised. The implication for the smaller member states is that their industries may not be able to compete with those from countries such as South Africa.

The market integration model assumes that several prerequisites should be in place for countries to experience welfare gains but the reality is that these are often missing in developing countries. Some of these prerequisites include; the need for integrating member states to be at similar levels of development; adequate structures for transport, services, banking, labour skills and competitiveness as noted by Gibb (2009:713). African states are characterised by low

incomes, low purchasing power and resources are not fully employed as noted by Musonera and Ndagijimana (2010:138) and Rekiso (2017:89). It was established in Section 2.6 (Chapter 2) that TFTA member states are generally characterised by low incomes as 14 out of 26 TFTA member states are either low income or lower-middle income economies. In addition to this, they are also at different levels of development as illustrated by their differing HDI scores. These two examples demonstrate that not all the prerequisites and assumptions for the market integration model exist among member states of the proposed TFTA. These must be addressed if integration among the member states is to be successful and welfare gains experienced.

3.3 The Theory of Common Markets

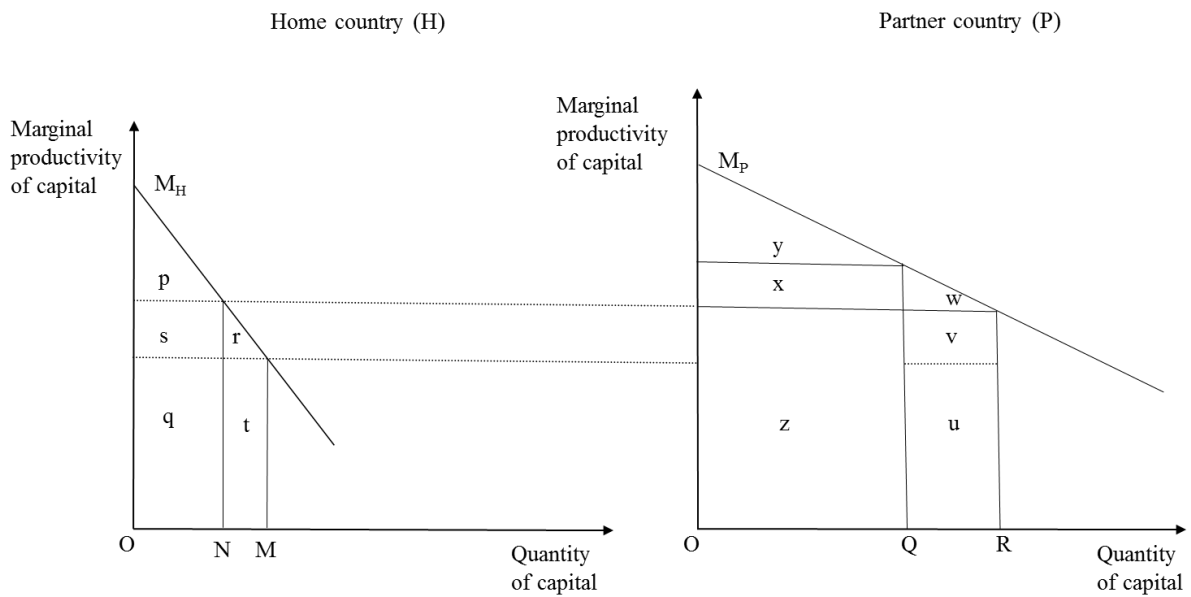
A Common Market is the third stage of economic integration and it allows for factor integration between member states as illustrated by Table A-6 (Appendix 2, page 97). The additional welfare effects associated with the presence of foreign capital in a Common Market are investment creation and investment diversion.

3.3.1 The model

In addition to the removal of tariffs between member states and having common external tariffs with non-members, a Common Market allows for the free movement of factors of production between member states (Appleyard and Field, 2017:389; Hailu, 2014:300; Marinov, 2015:26). The free movement of labour and capital represents a higher level of economic integration and also reduces national sovereignty in immigration and capital flows (Appleyard and Field, (2017:389).

The impact of factor integration between two countries (Country H and Country P) is illustrated by Figure 3.3 below. Prior to the formation of the Common Market, factors are not mobile between countries. The quantity of capital is assumed to be M in Country H and Q in Country P. The rewards of capital are different in the two countries. Profits per unit of capital are equal to its marginal product. Therefore, capital earns a higher reward in Country P given by area $(x+z)$ compared to Country H given by area $(q+t)$.

Figure 3.3: The impact of free intra-regional capital flows



Source: Robson (1998:75).

Notes: M_H and M_P reflect the marginal productivity of capital in the two countries given labour.

When the two countries enter into a Common Market, factors become mobile between them and therefore capital will flow from Country H to Country P in search of higher rewards. An equilibrium is established when marginal productivity of capital in Country H is equal to marginal productivity of capital in Country P. The amount of capital is N in Country H and R in Country P. Domestic product in Country H declines to area $(p+q+s)$ and inward remittances of profit on capital employed in Country P is area $(v+u)$. The national product for Country H will increase by area $(v-r)$. In Country P domestic product increases by area $(u+v+w)$. Outward remittances of profit that belong to Country H are represented by area $(u+v)$. Therefore, national product in Country P increases by w .

3.3.2 Effects of economic integration on foreign direct investment

The effect of foreign direct investment on a country after economic integration will be determined by its impact on the net economic rents earned by foreign enterprises from their use of exclusive assets such as superior technologies, special administrative and entrepreneurial capacities. These assets allow foreign enterprises to produce at lower costs and therefore earn pure or quasi rents (temporary rents). Where foreign capital is present, the analysis of costs and benefits are no longer limited to trade creation and diversion (Robson, 1998:77).

The additional effects to be considered are investment creation and investment diversion. Investment creation is an increase in the volume of foreign direct investment inflows from non-member countries because of trade diversion effects which are brought about by economic integration agreements (Kindleberger, 1966 cited in Tuluze *et al.*, 2016:2; Marszk, 2014:85). Foreign investments replace domestic investments in order to benefit from lower production costs. In addition to this, Balasubramanyam *et al.* (2002:463) note that foreign firms from outside the bloc invest in the region to avoid tariffs on their exports as well as to benefit from the increased market size in the bloc. Kreinin and Plummer (2008:448) note that investment creation is favourable to welfare because it moves production and resource allocation in the direction of increased efficiency.

Investment diversion is the movement of FDI flows within the bloc in response to trade creation effects. Foreign investments that member states would have invested in non-member states are now invested within the bloc because of tariff discrimination (Jovanovic, 2014:132; Marszk, 2014:85). Investment diversion takes place when FDI shifts from a relatively efficient location to an inefficient one (Balasubramanyam *et al.*, 2002:463). Kreinin and Plummer (2008:448) note that investment diversion shifts the world away from its optimal resource allocation because investments that would have been made in a more efficient non-member are invested in the bloc.

3.3.3 Implications of the theory of Common Markets for the TFTA

One of the three pillars of the TFTA Agreement is industrial development. This focus on industrial development is particularly important given that the majority of the TFTA member states have small manufacturing sectors as discussed in Section 2.6 (Chapter 2). Most of the member states depend mostly on the primary industry and there are limited opportunities for intra-regional trade.

The theory of Common Markets has important implications for industrial development because it is concerned with the free movement of factors of production between member states. An increase in factor mobility enables “supply side responsiveness to increasing market opportunities within RECs” as noted by Mabuta (2011:6). With the free movement of labour, capital and technology, the challenge posed by limited supply capacity could be eliminated or minimised. This could result in an increase in the production of goods that meet regional needs and subsequently more intra-regional trade. Furthermore, Hartzenberg *et al.* (2012:286) note

that the formation of the TFTA could result in an increased level of incoming FDI because of the attraction of “increased market size, lower costs of production, greater availability of relevant factors of production and the presence of a larger pool of consumers”.

If there is a tendency for the countries with the strongest growth to attract direct investment and other factors from the integrated area there be negative effects like polarisation (Robson 1998:80). McCarthy (1999:384) states that when developing countries which are at different levels of industrial development form an economic integration arrangement polarisation may be inevitable. The countries which are highly industrialised; have a skilled and entrepreneurial population; and which have developed capital markets will be in a better position to exploit gains from the union as noted by Biswas (2000:75). Therefore, the mobility of factors stimulated by the creation of a Common Market may serve to increase rather than decrease the disparity in incomes between member states. The implication of this for the proposed TFTA is that there may be polarised development in favour of more developed economies such as South Africa or Egypt at the cost of a smaller and less developed economy such as Djibouti. However, Robson (1998:81) notes that it is difficult to determine whether widening disparities are the result of a Common Market or structural factors like rigid production structures that would have produced a similar result regardless of the common market. Crucially, McCarthy (1999:393-394) suggests that the mobility of factors may be the force that leads to growth in smaller and less developed countries and convergence. For example, when a large wage gap develops between the more developed countries and those that are underdeveloped, there will be a point when industry is driven to the low-wage country. The implication of this for the proposed TFTA is that polarised development may not be inevitable, instead there could be a convergence of incomes between member states in the long run.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the market integration model as well as the theory of Common Markets as these are relevant theoretical frameworks for the proposed TFTA. The market integration model focuses on a market-driven approach to integration. The effects of economic integration are the result of its impact on the allocation of resources and international specialisation; the exploitation of scale economies; the terms of trade; the productivity of factors; profit margins; the rate of economic growth and the distribution of income. According to the model, an economic integration initiative which is trade creating is regarded as economically desirable and beneficial to welfare, while one which is trade diverting is regarded as detrimental to

welfare. The market integration model has faced criticisms based on its assumptions and its lack of applicability in African countries.

A Common Market goes beyond a Customs Union by allowing for the free movement of factors of production between member states. This stage of economic integration is concerned with the additional gains and losses that are associated with factor integration. Additional effects are investment creation as well as investment diversion. Where certain countries in the union have a tendency to attract more investment than others, there exists the possibility of polarisation.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the four trade performance indicators that are used in this study to gain insights into the nature of intra-regional trade between member states in the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA). Trade Complementarity Indexes assist in determining how well the structures of the three founding blocs' major imports and exports match. Trade Intensity Indexes indicate the extent to which the three founding blocs view each other as important trading partners. Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes give insights into the product categories or commodity groups in which member states have comparative advantages. Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes give insights into the extent of ease of market access into each regional bloc's market. The various indexes, justifications for their use and the respective shortcomings for each are discussed in the sections below.

4.2 Trade Complementarity Index

Trade Complementarity Indexes (TCI) provide useful information on the prospects for intra-regional trade by showing how well the structure of a country's exports match the import requirements of another country (Bacchetta *et al.*, 2012:30; Mikic and Gilbert, 2009:80; Vahalik, 2014:712; WITS, 2018).

The trade complementarity index is expressed as shown in the equation below:

$$TC_{ij} = 100 [1 - \sum |Y_{ki} - X_{kj}| / 2] \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where:

Y_{ki} is the share of good *k* in all imports of country *i* and

X_{kj} is the share of good *k* in all exports of country *j* (Bacchetta *et al.*, 2012:30; Mikic and Gilbert, 2009:81; Vahalik, 2014:712; WITS, 2018).

The index has the value 0 if there is no overlap at all; it is 100 if imports and exports match perfectly (Bacchetta *et al.*, 2012:30; Mikic and Gilbert, 2009:81; Vahalik, 2014:712; WITS, 2018).

The TCI can be used to determine the extent to which countries are natural trading partners in the sense that one country's imports overlap with another county's exports. For example,

Vahalik (2014) used the index to determine whether the EU and ASEAN, and China and ASEAN were natural trading partners. Furthermore, the index was used to determine whether the EU or China would be in a better position to create a preferential trade area agreement with the ASEAN countries. The results from the index revealed that the EU and ASEAN are more natural trading partners compared to China and ASEAN. The TCI can be calculated from the perspective of each country to a trade agreement. For example, Simşek *et al.* (2017a) used the index to analyse trade relations between Turkey and Kazakhstan. The index revealed that while Turkey's import structure does not match Kazakhstan's export structure, Kazakhstan's import structure does match Turkey's export structure indicating trade complementarity from Kazakhstan's perspective. By analysing the TCI for an 18-year period, Simşek *et al.* (2017b) were able to determine the specific years during which there was trade complementarity between Turkey and Russia. In addition, they used the results from the index to suggest that further development of trade relations would be economically beneficial for both countries. Ibrahim and Shehu (2016) used the trade complementarity index to examine bilateral trade relations between Nigeria and India. Over the period 2004-2014, they observed that the TCI was steadily increasing and concluded that Nigerian and Indian trade profiles were becoming more compatible.

One of the shortcomings of the index is that it does not take into consideration tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade (Scholvin and Wrana, 2015:9). Therefore, it is important to consider tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade and this shortcoming is addressed by examining the existence of trade barriers themselves and to run regressions to estimate their impact on trade. Mikic and Gilbert (2009:80) note a further shortcoming is that the index does not account for transport and distance costs and therefore a high trade complementarity index could be misleading. This shortcoming can be addressed by using gravity models which help to predict the impact of transport costs and distance on trade between countries.

In this study on the current nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA, the trade complementary indexes were calculated and used to indicate the extent to which trade between the three founding blocs of the TFTA is complementary. These indexes assisted in determining the prospective success of the TFTA in promoting intra-regional trade by showing how well the structures of the three founding blocs' imports and exports matched. By observing the trade complementarity indexes over the time period 2000-2018, the researcher was able to determine whether trade between the blocs was becoming more or less complementary. It could be argued

that if there was low trade complementarity, then there may not be a significant increase in intra-regional trade between member states of the TFTA as members would continue to look outside the grouping for trade partners whose exports and imports match theirs. Simsek *et al.* (2017a:18) note that where trade complementarity exists there are high opportunities for trade, but an absence of trade complementarity would lead to low opportunities for trade. A high degree of trade complementarity should be an indication for two countries to increase trade between them. This has also been noted by Ibrahim and Shehu (2016:192) in the case of Nigeria and India.

The results from the TCI can be used to make inferences about the occurrence of trade creation and trade diversion. Trade creation refers to a shift in product origin from a high-cost supplier to a low-cost supplier who is a part of the trade agreement and it leads to gains in national welfare (Appleyard and Field, 2017:390; Pasara and Dunga, 2019:52). High trade complementarities would imply that trade creation will be greatly fostered between member states of the TFTA because the cheaper member states for various products will complement their import requirements. Appleyard and Field (2017:390) as well as Pasara and Dunga (2019:52) state that trade diversion refers to a shift in product origin from a low-cost supplier who is not a member to a high-cost supplier who is part of the trade agreement and it could lead to a reduction in national welfare. High trade complementarities between member states would imply that the likelihood of trade diversion is minimised because the union would be formed among member states whose economies are complementary.

Since the TCI does not account for trade barriers, Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes were calculated and used to examine the existence of trade barriers. The results from these indexes were used to augment the results from the Trade Complementarity Indexes to determine whether trade was being inhibited despite trade being complementary between the blocs. Transport and distance costs are non-tariff barriers to trade which the Revealed Trade Barriers Index reflects.

4.3 Trade Intensity Index

Trade Intensity Indexes (TII) are used to determine how intense trade is between countries based on their importance in world trade. The trade intensity index is expressed as shown in the equation below:

$$I_{ij} = \frac{(X_{ij}) / (X_i)}{M_j / (M_w - M_i)} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Where:

X_{ij} is country *i*'s exports to country *j*;

X_i is country *i*'s total exports;

M_j is country *j*'s total imports;

M_i is country *i*'s total imports; and

M_w is total world imports (Mutambara, 2013b:138; Sahui, 2018:927).

This index has a value between 0 and ∞ (positive). If *I_{ij}* > 1, this means that the trade between two countries is more intensive than expected; and if *I_{ij}* < 1, this means that the trade between two countries is less intensive than expected and it indicates a small flow of trade between countries. If *I_{ij}* = 1, trade partners are trading without geographical bias (Mutambara, 2013b:138; Sahui, 2018:928; WITS, 2018).

Maryam *et al.* (2018) used the TII as part of their analysis of intra-BRICS trade. The index revealed that over the observation period 2001-2015, Brazil's and South Africa's respective trade intensity with BRICS had improved while China's, India's and Russia's respective trade intensity with BRICS had deteriorated. For the calculations of trade intensities between each country and BRICS, the trade data for that specific country was not included. The results from the indexes were the basis for their recommendation that closer co-operation between BRICS countries was needed in order to promote more intra-BRICS trade. The TII can be calculated for regions. For example, Mutambara (2013a) used the index to determine how intensely Africa trades with other major regions, namely, Asia, Europe America and Africa. The index revealed that the most intensive trade is with Africa due to the utilisation of existing trade agreements. The TII may be calculated from both country's perspectives to determine whether both view each other as important trading partners. For example, Sahui (2018) used the index to examine the intensity of trade between China and Cote d'Ivoire from both country's perspectives. The index showed trade intensities smaller than 1 which indicated that trade between China and Cote d'Ivoire was less than expected. The researcher suggested that the two countries were trading under their capabilities and highlighted an opportunity for trade development between the two.

The trade intensity index is limited in its potential to explain trade between countries because it does not reflect trade which is taking place due to factors other than trade policy (Mikic and

Gilbert, 2009:52). Such factors include tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade and geographical distances between countries. These factors can be addressed by using econometric models which estimate the impact of these factors on trade. Linear regression models can be used to estimate the impact of tariffs on trade while gravity models can be used to estimate the impact of geographical distance on trade.

In this research on the current nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA, the trade intensity indexes were calculated and used to evaluate the extent to which the three regional economic blocs were important trading partners to each other. The TII assisted in determining the extent to which the proposed TFTA would be successful in promoting intra-regional trade because if these blocs do not presently view each other as important trading partners then it would pose challenges for the proposed TFTA. It can be argued that where the blocs do not regard each other as significant trading partners, trade between them could be limited. This is supported by theory as observed by Hosny (2013:144) and Marinov (2015:34) that economic integration is more likely to be successful in a union when a high proportion of trade already takes place with prospective partners because the formation of a union will likely lead to welfare gains. Therefore, the TII results could be used to determine whether a high proportion of trade currently takes place between member states of the proposed TFTA by considering how significantly the regional blocs currently view each other.

The results from the TII could also be used to make inferences about trade creation and trade diversion. Where member states already view each other as significant trade partners, the chances of trade creation would be increased because the trade agreement would reinforce already significant trade relations between them. If member states do not currently view each other as important, there is a possibility that members would continue to look outside the group for trading partners whom they view as important. Where member states already trade intensively with one another the likelihood of trade diversion would be minimised because a high proportion of their trade before the agreement is conducted with future partners. The negative effects of trade diversion would be minimised because countries already trade intensively with the high-cost producers.

In this research, trade intensity indexes were calculated from each blocs's perspective in order to determine whether both blocs viewed each other as important or if the relationship was skewed in one direction. Revealed Trade Barriers Indexes were calculated and used in order to address the shortcoming related to tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade and to augment the

discussion on the TII. Geographical distance is a non-tariff barrier to trade which would be reflected by the Revealed Trade Barriers Indexes.

4.4 Revealed Comparative Advantage Index

Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) indexes are used to identify the sectors in which a country has a comparative advantage or comparative disadvantage by observing its trade patterns (Mikic and Gilbert, 2009:72). David Ricardo pioneered the study of comparative advantage and proposed “that a country should produce and export comparatively more in the industries in which it is relatively more productive” (Leromain and Orefice, 2014:49). RCA indices can be used to distinguish between countries that have a comparative advantage in a product category or commodity group and those that do not (Sanidas and Shin, 2010:5).

The specific index chosen for this study is the Balassa (1965)⁶ index because it enabled the researcher to determine whether a country had a comparative advantage in a particular product category or commodity group, rather than to determine underlying sources of the comparative advantage. Furthermore, the index is calculated based on revealed trade flows and trade data for this was readily available to the researcher from International Trade Centre (2019a). The Balassa (1965) revealed comparative advantage index is expressed as shown in the equation below:

$$RCA_{ik} = \frac{(X_{ik}/(X_i))}{X_k/X} \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

Where:

X_{ik} is country *i*'s exports of good *k*;

X_i is country *i*'s total exports;

X_k is world exports of good *k*;

X is total world exports (Bacchetta *et al.*, 2012:26; Chingarande *et al.*, 2013:41; Paula *et al.*, 2017:77; WITS, 2018).

$RCA_{ik} > 1$ indicates that country *i* has a revealed comparative advantage in that good. $RCA_{ik} < 1$ indicates that country *i* has a revealed comparative disadvantage in that good. (Bacchetta *et al.*, 2012:26; Paula *et al.*, 2017:77; WITS, 2018). Countries with RCA in similar goods are

⁶ In Leromain and Orefice (2014:49).

unlikely to trade more with each other unless intra-industry trade is taking place. This is because of the similarity in goods traded between them (Chandran, 2011:3).

A number of studies have been undertaken using the RCA index. Chingarande *et al.* (2013) investigated the comparative advantage of East African Community (EAC) member states. The RCA indexes revealed that the top 10 products with the highest RCA indexes for each member state were mainly primary products. The researchers concluded that EAC member states had comparative advantage in similar goods and that this had contributed to restricting intra-EAC trade. Paula *et al.* (2017) calculated the RCA indexes for Brazilian natural honey for the period 2000-2015. The indexes revealed that Brazil has a comparative advantage in the production of natural honey and the researchers gave a recommendation for Brazil to further participate in the international market for honey. Visser *et al.* (2015) used RCA indexes to determine the goods the Mpumalanga province has revealed comparative advantage in. The results revealed that the province's comparative advantage was in the production of manganese, bovine meat and tomatoes. They argued that knowledge of the products that the region had a comparative advantage in could determine its industrial development agenda as well as help identify what products it could export. Havrila and Gunawardana (2003) used RCA indexes to analyse Australia's comparative advantage in the textile and clothing industry. They discovered that Australia had a strong comparative disadvantage in textiles and clothing, but that the country had comparative advantage in some sub-categories such as special textiles, floor coverings, and fur clothing.

A shortcoming related to using this index is that the observed or revealed trade patterns can be influenced and distorted by anything that affects trade patterns (Mikic and Gilbert, 2009:72). For example, governments may use export subsidies to increase exports and thereby increase the RCA index. Another example is that of exchange rates; where the depreciation of a domestic currency lowers export prices and likely increase the value of its exports. The increase in exports would in turn increase the RCA index. A further example is any form of trade barrier, which would decrease exports and therefore decrease the RCA index. Another shortcoming is that the RCA index may be influenced by the level of aggregation of trade data as noted by Havrila and Gunawardana (2003) in the case of Australia's textile and clothing industry. They discovered that Australia had a comparative disadvantage in textiles and clothing as an aggregated group of products. However, Australia had comparative advantage in sub-categories such as special textiles. Furthermore, it should be noted that the RCA index does not

take productive capacity into consideration. A country may have a comparative advantage in a good but that does not guarantee that it can meet demand for the good from other countries due to limited productive capacity. However, Ibrahim and Shafii (2017:3) note that although it has limitations, the RCA index can still be a useful guide in identifying products that countries have a comparative advantage in producing.

In this study on the current nature of intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA, the revealed comparative advantage indexes were calculated and used to identify areas in which member states had a revealed comparative advantage. By calculating the comparative advantage indexes, the researcher could identify possible areas for joint-production between member states and identify product sectors for development. Furthermore, economies of scale could be realised upon formation of a union when the most efficient member state captures the entire union market and experiences a fall in average costs of production. Thus, they would realise one of the dynamic effects of economic integration as noted by Appleyard and Field (2017:398) and Hosny (2013:150). The results from the RCA index could be used to indicate which member states could realise economies of scale because of comparative advantages they currently have in the production of specific goods, but it should be noted that comparative advantages do not guarantee that they have the productive capacity to meet the demand. Therefore, countries ought to pay attention to improving industrial capacity as per the industrial development pillar of the TFTA Agreement. Mabuta (2011:6) suggests that greater factor mobility is what facilitates supply side responsiveness to the opportunities found within a regional economic bloc.

RCA indexes also have implications for trade creation and trade diversion. Where member states have comparative advantage in dissimilar goods, the chances of trade creation are increased because trade can be shifted to low-cost members who can provide the goods they require. Where member states have comparative advantage in dissimilar goods it could also reinforce trade diversion because they would have more reason to shift to high cost member states who have comparative advantage in particular goods which meet their needs.

In order to address the shortcoming related to aggregation of trade data in establishing areas of comparative advantage, trade data was disaggregated to HS 4-digit level because at this level there is a more specific classification of goods than at HS 2-digit level.

4.5 Revealed Trade Barriers Index

Revealed Trade Barriers (RTB) indexes are used to identify the existence of barriers to trade by analysing a country's trade patterns. Trade barriers may be in the form of tariffs or non-tariff barriers such as transport costs (Chinembiri, 2015:38; Kalaba, *et al.*, 2005:40). The index gives insights about ease of market access by revealing whether goods from a particular source are possibly facing discriminatory or preferential treatment (Mutambara, 2016:55; TIPS, 2019:6).

The revealed trade barriers index is expressed as shown in the equation below:

$$RTB_{jik} = \frac{M_{jik}/\Sigma M_{ji}}{\Sigma M_k / \Sigma M} \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Where:

$M_{jik}/\Sigma M_{ji}$ = the share of commodity k in country j imports from country i ;

$\Sigma M_k / \Sigma M$ = the share of commodity k in world imports;

M_{jik} = imports of commodity k from country i by country j ;

ΣM_{ji} = total imports from country i by country j ;

ΣM_k = total world imports of commodity k and

ΣM = total world imports (Chinembiri, 2015:38; Kalaba, *et al.*, 2005:77; Mutambara, 2016:55; TIPS, 2019:6).

If $RTB_{jik} < 1$, country i is exporting relatively more of commodity k to the rest of the world than to country j . Therefore, there is possibly discrimination against commodity k from country i into country j . If $RTB_{jik} = 1$, there is no discriminatory trade barrier against commodity k from country i in country j . If $RTB_{jik} > 1$, country j is importing more from country i than expected. Therefore, there is possibly preferential treatment of commodity k from country i into country j (Chinembiri, 2015:38; Mutambara, 2016:55; TIPS, 2019:6-7).

Chinembiri (2015) used RTB indexes to determine whether or not selected United States imports of commodities from South Africa had preferential access in comparison to selected United States imports of the same commodities from other sources. He noted the possible existence of non-tariff barriers to trade as the reason for the low levels of South African exports to the United States of HS26 (ore, slag and ash) as well as HS47 (pulp of wood). He recommended the removal or relaxation of these non-tariff barriers in order for South African

exports to the United States to increase. Kalaba *et al.* (2006) used RTB indexes to examine trade between the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and South Africa. They discovered relatively low trade barriers in South Africa for agricultural commodities like dairy products and live animals, and for certain types of manufactured goods like fertilisers and pharmaceutical products from SADC countries. They noted that this was because of the implementation of the SADC Trade Protocol which required South Africa to lower its tariffs. Kalaba *et al.* (2005) used RTB indexes to examine trade between the European Union and South Africa. The results showed that only a few South African product groups were receiving preferential treatment and that these were primarily low value-added product groups such as HS26 (ores, slag and ash) and HS08 (edible fruit and nuts; peel of citrus fruits or melons). Mutambara (2016) used RTB indexes to examine trade between Africa and China. The results indicated that China gave preferential treatment to HS27 (mineral fuels), HS26 (ores, slag and ash) and HS74 (copper and articles thereof) from Africa and therefore these products had ease of access into the Chinese market.

It should be noted that the RTB index serves as an indicator that trade barriers exist but it does not specify the nature of these trade barriers. This shortcoming can be addressed by examining specific non-tariff barriers to trade between countries and using trade databases from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2019) or International Trade Centre (2019b) to determine tariffs between countries.

In this study on the current nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA, RTB indexes were calculated and used to determine the existence of trade barriers between the blocs as well as to gain insights into the extent of ease of market access into each regional bloc's market. This was important to consider because eliminating tariff and non-tariff barriers helps to create a large single market with free movement of goods and services and thereby promote intra-regional trade as per Article 4 (b) of the Agreement. Moreover, by examining the RTB indexes over the period 2000-2018, it could be determined whether the three blocs have been progressively eliminating barriers to trade in goods as per Article 5 (a) of the Agreement. Appleyard and Field (2017:396), Hosny (2013:144) and Marinov (2015:34) all note that economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects when there are initially high tariff levels between proposed member states of an agreement. With initially high tariffs, inefficiencies are greater, and the removal of tariffs will lead to greater welfare effects. Therefore, the results from the RTB indexes will reflect the ease of market access for goods

from member states. Their removal has implications for welfare of member states of the proposed TFTA.

Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes also have implications for trade creation and trade diversion. Low RTB indexes indicate ease of market access and this could promote increased intra-regional trade through trade creation. Low RTB indexes would help to reduce the negative effects of trade diversion because lower average tariffs post-union minimise the likelihood of trade diversion. Hosny (2013:145) and Marinov (2015:35) note that transport and distance costs are a hindrance to trade. It follows that one of the conditions for economic integration to be successful is that there is ease of market access and RTB indexes can be used to determine whether this condition is being met.

COMESA, EAC and SADC (2019) was used to obtain details about the most common non-tariff barriers to trade between TFTA member states. The information on these non-tariff barriers was used to augment the discussion based on RTB indexes as it could provide possible reasons for the results being reflected by the RTB indexes. The time period 2009-2018 was selected to observe non-tariff barriers to trade as it coincides with the signing of the TFTA Agreement in 2015.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the four trade indexes that were used in the study. Used together, these indexes give insights into the nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA. Considering more than one index gives a broader understanding of trade between TFTA member states because the results from the indexes were discussed in a complementary manner. Despite the existence of shortcomings, these indexes remained useful in giving insights into the nature of trade between member states in the proposed TFTA.

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INTRA-REGIONAL TRADE WITHIN THE PROPOSED TRIPARTITE FREE TRADE AREA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the empirical analysis of current intra-regional trade within the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA). Section 5.2 discusses the level of intra-trade and extra-trade for each of the three founding blocs of the proposed TFTA in order to highlight the level of trade within in each group, trends in their trade performance over the years and the extent to which each bloc relies on Africa for trade. Section 5.3 discusses the major products traded by each member and each of their major trading partners, both of which will have implications for intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA.

Sections 5.4 presents and discusses an empirical analysis of trade complementarity indexes in the top 5 exports of each region in order to meet the research sub goal of examining the extent to which trade in the major products traded between the three blocs is complementary. Section 5.5 presents and discusses an empirical analysis of trade intensity indexes in order to achieve the research sub goal of examining and analysing the extent to which the three founding blocs trade intensively with each other. Section 5.6 presents and discusses an empirical analysis of the revealed comparative advantage indexes of each TFTA member state because a further sub goal of this research is to examine the major exports of TFTA member states and to determine whether they have any comparative advantage in any of these products. Section 5.7 presents and discusses an empirical analysis of revealed trade barrier indexes in the top 5 imports of each region in view of the research sub goal to examine the ease of market access between the three founding blocs as well as the extent to which existing trade barriers between the blocs are being eliminated. The discussions in each section are made in the context of the relevant theoretical frameworks i.e. the market integration model and theory of common markets.

Section 5.8 summarises the prospects and potential implications of the findings for intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA in the context of the relevant frameworks. Additionally, it discusses the implications of the findings for the Continental Free Trade Area. Section 5.9 concludes the chapter.

5.2 Intra-trade and extra-trade of the three founding blocs (2000-2018)

A consideration of the intra-trade and extra-trade of each of the three founding blocs of the proposed TFTA is made in order to observe and examine the level of trade within each group, trends in their trade performance over the years, the extent to which each bloc relies on Africa for trade and the extent to which each bloc relies on the rest of the world for trade.

Table A-7a (Appendix 3, page 98) shows that intra-COMESA imports range between 5.2% and 6.7% with an average of 6%. The level of intra-COMESA import trade did not change much over the years. COMESA's imports from the rest of Africa range between 51.1% and 66.3% with an average of 58.6%. Imports from the rest of Africa decreased from 63.7% in 2000 to 51.1% in 2018 which is a 19.8% decrease. COMESA's imports from the rest of the world range between 30.5% and 42.4% with an average of 35.5%. These imports increased from 30.7% in 2000 to 42.4% in 2018 which is a 38% increase. It can be concluded that COMESA's reliance on the rest of Africa for imports is decreasing while its dependence on the rest of the world for imports has been increasing. Intra-COMESA exports range between 5.8% and 11.9% with an average of 8%. Intra-COMESA export trade increased from 6.2% in 2000 to 11.9% in 2018 which is a 92% increase. COMESA's exports to the rest of Africa range between 35.2% and 47.4% with an average of 40.9%. The level of these exports fluctuated over the years. COMESA's exports to the rest of the world range between 43.5% and 58.3% with an average of 51.1%. These exports decreased from 52.7% in 2000 to 48.4% in 2018 which is an 8% decrease. It can be concluded that export trade within COMESA is growing while its reliance on the rest of the world as an export destination is decreasing.

Table A-7b (in Appendix 3, page 98) shows that intra-EAC imports range between 7% and 13.9% with an average of 8.8%. The level of intra-EAC import trade decreased over the years from 13.9% in 2000 to 7.7% in 2018 which is a 44.6% decrease. EAC's imports from the rest of Africa range between 44% and 59% with an average of 52.1%. The level of EAC's imports from the rest of Africa did not change much over the years. EAC's imports from the rest of the world range between 33% and 44.8% with an average of 39%. Although intra-EAC imports have decreased over time, its reliance on the rest of Africa for imports has remained quite high as evidenced by its average level of 52.1%. Intra-EAC exports range from 16.8% to 22.4% with an average of 19.1%. The level of intra-EAC exports did not change much over the years. EAC's exports to the rest of Africa range from 41.1% to 53.9% with an average of 47.8%. These exports increased from 41.9% in 2000 to 47.9% in 2018 which is a 14.3% increase.

EAC's exports to the rest of the world range between 27% and 41.6% with an average of 33.1%. These exports decreased from 40.3% in 2000 to 33.3% in 2018 which is a 17.4% decrease. It can be concluded that while EAC has become less reliant on the rest of the world as an export destination, the rest of Africa has become a more important export destination for the group.

Table A-7c (in Appendix 3, page 99) shows that intra-SADC imports range between 16.3% and 21.3% with an average of 19.4%. The level of intra-SADC import trade did not change much over the years. SADC's imports from the rest of Africa range between 6.3% and 23.2% with an average of 13.2%. These imports increased from 6.3% in 2000 to 23.2% in 2018 which is a 268.3% increase. SADC's imports from the rest of the world range between 55.9% and 73.3% with an average of 67.3%. These imports decreased from 73.3% in 2000 to 55.9% in 2018 which is a 23.7% decrease. Although SADC's reliance on the rest of Africa for imports has increased while its reliance on the rest of the world for imports has decreased, its level of import trade with the rest of the world is still over 50% for most years. Intra-SADC exports range between 10.4% and 21.9% with an average of 15.2%. These exports increased from 12.2% in 2000 to 17.9% in 2018 which is a 46.7% increase. SADC's exports to the rest of Africa range between 11% and 23.9% with an average of 16.5%. These exports decreased from 15.4% in 2000 to 11.2% in 2018 which is a 27.3% decrease. SADC's exports to the rest of the world range between 63.6% and 72.4% with an average of 68.3%. The level of these exports fluctuated over the years. Although SADC's exports to the rest of Africa have been decreasing, exports within SADC have been increasing over the years.

Intra-SADC trade has generally been higher than intra-COMESA and intra-EAC trade. For several years, intra-SADC trade has even been higher than its trade with the rest of Africa. However, it remains more dependent on the rest of the world for trade as compared to COMESA and EAC. Between 40% and 50% of COMESA and EAC's trade takes place with Africa. As previously mentioned in Chapter 3, Hosny (2013:144) and Marinov (2015:34) note that one of the conditions for successful economic integration is for there to be a higher proportion of trade taking place with prospective partners as compared with the rest of the world. COMESA and EAC already rely on the rest of Africa for almost 50% of their trade. Therefore, once the TFTA is in place, barriers to trade between them and other African countries which are part of the TFTA will be progressively eliminated and this could result in an increase in the level of intra-regional trade within the TFTA.

5.3 Trade patterns of member states

The major products traded by each member state are examined in order to highlight similarities and differences in the types of products traded. Furthermore, the factor intensities of these products are determined because the level of their complexity is an indication of a country's level of industrial development. In addition to this, each member states' top 5 import sources and export destinations were examined in order to determine each country's major trading partners because this has implications for the proposed TFTA. Table A-8 (in Appendix 3, page 100) shows the top 5 products traded by each member state and Table A-9 (in Appendix 3, page 111) shows the top 5 trading partners of each member state.

Table 5.1 below shows that HS27 (minerals and oils) and H87 (vehicles) are the dominant imports as both products are imported by 19 out of 21 member states. In terms of factor intensities, HS27 is characterised by mineral fuels and a few non-fuel primary commodities while HS87 contains manufactures categorised as medium skill and technology intensive and a few low skill and technology intensive. Although member states are well endowed in minerals, HS2710 (petroleum oils) is mostly imported from the Organisation of the Petroleum Export Countries (OPEC) and constitutes the bulk of HS27 imports, which explains why HS27 is a dominant import for member states. It was established in Section 2.6 (Chapter 2) that the manufacturing sector of many member states is small. This explains why H87 is a dominant import for members. The top 5 exports of member states are dominated by non-fuel primary commodities. HS27 and HS71 (pearls, stones and metals) are the dominant exports, both are exported by 10 out of 21 member states. In terms of factor intensities, both product categories contain non-fuel primary commodities which are a common feature in several member states. This matches the conclusion that was drawn from the consideration of the sectoral composition of GDP for each country in Section 2.6 (Chapter 2) which revealed that the primary industry is the major industry for most countries. HS27 is also characterised by mineral fuels and HS71 contains a few resource intensive manufactures. With the TFTA in place, there may be opportunities for joint production in these commodities which could result in economies of scale being realised. Lower costs would fuel their ability to produce and export these commodities to other members of the proposed TFTA as well as the rest of the world.

Table 5.1: Summary of products traded by member states (2001-2018)

Imports	Factor Intensity	Countries
HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	Mostly mineral fuels; few non-fuel primary commodities	Angola, Botswana, Burundi, Egypt, Eswatini, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe (19 out of 21 countries)
HS87 (vehicles)	Mostly medium skill and technology intensive manufactures; few low skill and technology intensive manufactures	Botswana, Burundi, DRC, Egypt, Eswatini, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe (19 out of 21 countries)
Exports		
HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	Mostly mineral fuels; few non-fuel primary commodities	Angola, DRC, Egypt, Kenya, Madagascar, Mozambique, Rwanda, Seychelles, South Africa, Uganda (10 out of 21 countries)
HS71(pearls, stones and metals)	Mostly non-fuel primary commodities; few resource intensive manufactures	Angola, Botswana, Burundi, DRC, Egypt, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe (10 out of 21 countries)

Source: Own table developed from Table A-8 (Appendix 3).

Notes: DRC = Democratic Republic of Congo.

Table 5.2 below shows that China is a major import source, serving as an import source for 19 out of 21 countries. Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya and South Africa are the only countries whose top 5 import sources do not include other member states as import sources. South Africa is the most common African import source, serving as an import source for 13 out of 21 countries. South Africa is the most common export destination, serving as an export destination to 11 out of 21 countries. The United Arab Emirates is the most common non-African export destination, serving as an export destination to 8 out of 21 countries. Egypt, Madagascar, Seychelles and South Africa are the only countries whose top 5 export destinations do not include other member states as export destinations. Egypt and South Africa are the only countries whose major trading partners do not include member states of the proposed TFTA with regard to both imports and exports. Democratic Republic of Congo, Eswatini, Malawi, Namibia, Uganda and Zimbabwe are the only countries whose top 5 trading partners feature 3 or more member states with regard to both imports and exports.

Table 5.2: Summary of member states trading partners by country (2001-2018)

Imports	Countries
China	Angola, Burundi, DRC, Egypt, Eswatini, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe (19 out of 21 countries)
South Africa	Botswana, DRC, Eswatini, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe (13 out of 21 countries)
No TFTA members	Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa (4 out of 21 countries)
3 or more TFTA members	DRC, Namibia (2 out of 21 countries)
Exports	
South Africa	Angola, Botswana, Eswatini, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe (11 out of 21 countries)
United Arab Emirates	Botswana, Burundi, DRC, Egypt, Rwanda, Seychelles, Uganda, Zimbabwe (8 out of 21 countries)
No TFTA members	Egypt, Madagascar, Seychelles, South Africa (4 out of 21 countries)
3 or more TFTA members	Eswatini, Malawi, Uganda, Zimbabwe (4 out of 21 countries)

Source: Own table developed from Table A-9 (Appendix 3).

Notes: DRC = Democratic Republic of Congo.

Section 5.2 highlighted that intra-SADC trade has been increasing over the years and is generally higher than intra-EAC and intra-COMESA trade. From Table 5.2 it becomes evident that South Africa is a major trading partner for SADC countries because all of the countries who trade with South Africa are members of SADC, thus helping to bolster intra-SADC trade. It was also noted that COMESA and EAC are dependent on the rest of Africa for almost half of their trade. However, Table 5.2 shows that the Democratic Republic of Congo, Eswatini, Malawi, Uganda and Zimbabwe, who are all members of COMESA, are the only countries who trade with 3 or more member states of the proposed TFTA. It was further noted that SADC is most reliant on the rest of the world for trade. From Table 5.2 it is evident that 12 out of the 19 countries who import from China are members of SADC. Furthermore, half the countries who export their products to the United Arab Emirates are also members of SADC.

5.4 Trade complementarity between the three regions (2001-2018)

Trade complementarity indexes (TCIs) are used to show how well the structures of the three region's imports and exports match. A high degree of trade complementarity is an indication that trade between the regions may be increased when the proposed TFTA is in place. TCIs are calculated between the three regions with each regional bloc adjusted for overlapping membership. Furthermore, TCIs are calculated for the top 5 products traded between the

regional groups. Table A-10 (in Appendix 3, page 125) shows the results of the trade complementarity indexes.

Table A-10 (in Appendix 3, page 125) shows that there is trade complementarity for the top 5 exports traded between regions. The complementarity of EAC-SADC trade ranges between 71.9% and 84.3% with an average of 78.2%. Although it fluctuates for most years, trade between them has become slightly more complementary over the years rising from 71.9% in 2001 to 78.9% in 2018 which is a 9.7% increase. The complementarity of SADC-EAC trade ranges between 74.9% and 84.3% with an average of 79.5%. Their trade complementarity has fluctuated over the years. Therefore, considering their top 5 exports, it can be concluded that SADC's export structure better matches EAC's import demand.

The complementarity of EAC-COMESA trade ranges between 75.2% and 80.8% with an average of 78%. Although it fluctuates, trade between them has become slightly more complementary over the years rising from 76.4% in 2001 to 78.6% in 2018 which is a 2.9% increase. The complementarity of COMESA-EAC trade ranges between 71% and 90.2% with an average of 79.9%. Their trade complementarity did not change much over the years. Therefore, considering their top 5 exports, it can be concluded that COMESA's export structure better matches EAC's import demand.

The complementarity of SADC-COMESA trade ranges between 72.8% and 87.3% with an average of 79.6%. Trade between them has become slightly less complementary over the years falling from 84.4% in 2001 to 79.9% in 2018 which is a 5.3% decrease. The complementarity of COMESA-SADC trade ranges between 67% and 85.3% with an average of 77.5%. Trade between them has also become slightly less complementary over the years falling from 80.8% in 2001 to 78.2% in 2018 which is a 3.2% decrease. Therefore, considering their top 5 exports, it can be concluded that SADC's export structure better matches COMESA's import demand.

Considering the average levels of trade complementarity between the groups, COMESA-EAC trade is the most complementary. However, it should be noted that there are small marginal differences in the levels of TCIs for trade between the groups.

The high degree of trade complementarity indexes in the top 5 products traded between the regional groups suggests that the export and import profiles of member state's top 5 exports match well. High trade complementarity indexes are an indication that intra-regional trade may

increase in these particular products once the TFTA is in place and market access is enhanced. Where trade complementarity exists in other products not included in this study, intra-regional trade may increase in those products with the TFTA in place and market access is enhanced.

As noted in Section 5.2, SADC is the least dependent regional group on Africa for trade. This has implications for the extent to which Africa's exports complement SADC's import demand. It was also noted that SADC is most reliant on the world for trade. This implies that the world's export structure matches SADC's import demand well. Furthermore, it was noted that COMESA is most dependent on Africa for trade. This implies that Africa's exports match COMESA's import demand well.

5.5 Trade intensity between the three regions (2001-2018)

Trade intensity indexes (TIIs) are used to determine the extent to which the three regions view each other as important trading partners. Where the regions currently regard each other as significant trading partners it is an indication that trade between them may be fostered by the TFTA because as per trade theory a free trade area would reinforce existing trade relations. The results of the trade intensity indexes are shown in Table A-11 (in Appendix 3, page 126).

The results show that from the perspective of both groups, EAC and SADC⁷ trade intensively as evidenced by $I_{ij} > 1$ which means that they regard each other as significant trading partners. Since South Africa is the dominant member of SADC, its trade intensity with EAC was calculated separately. Interestingly, from both perspectives, EAC and South Africa trade intensively as evidenced by $I_{ij} > 1$. Therefore, it can be concluded that South Africa and the EAC regard each other significant trading partners. From the perspective of both groups, EAC and COMESA trade intensively as evidenced by $I_{ij} > 1$ which indicates that the two regions regard each other as significant trading partners. Considering the TII results for trade between EAC and SADC, EAC and South Africa, and EAC and COMESA, the welfare effects of trade creation may be increased because the proposed TFTA will simply reinforce the already significant trade relations between these blocs.

Furthermore, the results show that with regard to trade between SADC-COMESA from 2001 to 2008, $I_{ij} > 1$ which indicates that during this period the two regions traded intensively. However, from 2009 to 2018, $I_{ij} < 1$ which indicates that trade between the two blocs was less

⁷ SADC excludes South Africa.

intensive and possibly indicating a small flow of trade between them. Therefore, it can be concluded that from SADC's perspective COMESA has become a less important trading partner over the years. For COMESA-SADC trade, the only years that trade intensity was greater than one ($I_{ij} > 1$) were 2006, 2011 and 2016. Outside of these years, $I_{ij} < 1$ for COMESA-SADC trade which indicates that trade was less intensive between the groupings. In light of this result, it can be concluded that for most of the years, COMESA has not viewed SADC as an important trading partner. Therefore, the TII results for trade between SADC and COMESA indicate that from either group's perspective, they currently do not regard each other as significant trading partners. Although SADC and COMESA have not consistently viewed each other as significant trading partners, once the TFTA is in place possibilities may arise for them to trade more with each other as trade barriers will be reduced within the free trade area.

5.6 Revealed comparative advantages of member states (2001-2018)

Revealed comparative advantage indexes (RCAs) are used to identify the products in which member states have a comparative advantage. RCA indexes were calculated for the top 5 exports of each member state. In order to maintain consistency, comparative advantage was calculated for the same top 5 exports of each member state that were examined in Section 5.3. RCA indexes for the member states are presented in Table A-12 (in Appendix 3, page 127).

Table 5.3 below shows that at HS 2-digit level there are a number of product categories in which 3 or more member states have RCA. 7 countries have RCA in HS03, 3 countries have RCA in HS07, 8 countries have RCA in HS09, 4 countries have RCA in HS17, 5 countries have RCA in HS24, 7 countries have RCA in HS26, 5 countries have RCA in HS27, 3 countries have RCA in HS61, 5 countries have RCA in HS62, 9 countries have RCA in HS71 and 3 countries have RCA in HS74. From the RCA index results for the top 5 exports of each member state, it can be argued that member states generally have RCA in similar product categories. These product categories present opportunities for joint-production among member states as well as sectors for product development once the proposed TFTA is in place. Furthermore, utilising opportunities for joint-production would lead to experiencing economies of scale once the TFTA is in place which would lower costs and lead to a fall in their average costs of production of these goods. As mentioned in Section 5.3, it may also fuel the ability to produce these goods at an even lower cost and jointly export them to the rest of the world.

Table 5.3: Summary of revealed comparative advantage at HS 2-digit Level (2001-2018)

HS 2 Digit level	Countries
HS03 (fish and crustaceans)	Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Tanzania, Uganda (7 out of 21 countries)
HS07 (edible vegetables)	Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi (3 out of 21 countries)
HS09 (Coffee, tea, maté and spices)	Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda (8 out of 21 countries)
HS17 (sugars and sugar confectionery)	Eswatini, Malawi, Mauritius, Zambia (4 out of 21 countries)
HS24 (tobacco)	Burundi, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zimbabwe (5 out of 21 countries)
HS26 (ores, slag and ash)	Burundi, DRC, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Zimbabwe (7 out of 21 countries)
HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	Angola, Egypt, Mozambique, Rwanda, Seychelles (5 out of 21 countries)
HS61 (apparel and clothing, knitted or crocheted)	Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius (3 out of 21 countries)
HS62 (apparel and clothing, not knitted or crocheted)	Eswatini, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius (5 out of 21 countries)
HS71 (pearls, stones and metals)	Botswana, Burundi, DRC, Egypt, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe (9 out of 21 countries)
HS74 (copper and articles thereof)	DRC, Namibia, Zambia (3 out of 21 countries)

Source: Own table developed from Table A-12 (Appendix 3).

Notes: DRC = Democratic Republic of Congo.

As already mentioned, in order to maintain consistency, comparative advantage was calculated for the same top 5 exports of each member state that were examined in Section 5.3. It was established in Section 5.3 that one of the dominant imports for members is HS27 which is imported by 19 out of 21 countries. Table 5.3 shows that there are 5 out of 21 members with RCA in HS27 and this represents an opportunity for joint-production. With the TFTA in place, there is potential for intra-regional trade in HS27 to increase because barriers to trade will be progressively eliminated which would allow these 5 countries to export HS27 to other members. One of the dominant exports by member states is HS71 (exported by 10 out of 21 countries) and Table 5.3 above shows that 9 out of 21 countries have RCA in this product which is an indication of opportunity for joint production.

In order to address the shortcoming related to aggregation of trade data in establishing areas of comparative advantage, trade data was disaggregated to HS 4-digit level for the top 5 exports of each member state because at this level there is a more specific classification of goods than at HS 2-digit level. The disaggregated RCA indexes are presented in Table A-12 (in Appendix 3, page 127).

Table 5.4: HS 2-digit level and HS 4-digit level comparison (2001-2018)

Country	HS Code	Years																	
		2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Angola	HS71 (pearls, stones and metals)				34,7	45,4	27,6	1,3		0,8	0,7	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,6	0,8	0,8	0,8	0,8
	HS7102 (diamonds)				84,8	105,4	78,3	3,7		2,9	2,5	2,1	2,1	2,1	2,7	4,2	4,2	4,0	3,9
Botswana	HS28 (inorganic chemicals)	1,3	1,2	0,0	1,0	0,8	0,7	0,4	0,4	1,2	1,9	0,9	0,9	0,7	0,7	0,8	0,9	1,1	1,0
	HS2836 (carbonates)	24,4	21,0	0,5	19,9	14,9	13,2	8,4	9,5	25,4	50,6	24,7	21,2	16,5	15,9	16,7	14,9	18,8	17,6
	HS85 (electrical machinery)	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1
	HS8544 (insulated wire)	0,0	1,4	1,4	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	1,0	1,5	1,4	1,4	0,8	0,7	2,5	2,3	2,2	2,6
Egypt	HS85 (electrical machinery)	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,6	0,6	0,5	0,5	0,4
	HS8544 (insulated wire)	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	3,6	3,2	4,0	5,0	5,2	5,2	5,8	5,2	4,7	4,3	3,0
Lesotho	HS85 (electrical machinery)	0,7	0,4	0,2				1,0	3,3	1,3	2,0	1,1	1,0	1,2	0,2	0,3	0,5	0,5	0,3
	HS8536 (electrical apparatus for circuits)	0,0	0,0	0,0				0,0	8,2	1,7	1,2	0,1	0,0	5,6	3,2	2,8	6,4	6,5	5,5
Madagascar	HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	1,1	0,5	0,4	0,3	0,4	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,1	0,1
	HS2710 (petroleum oils)	4,3	1,8	1,7	1,3	1,4	2,1	1,1	1,1	1,1	1,2	1,2	1,2	0,8	0,7	0,8	0,8	0,4	0,4
South Africa	HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	1,2	1,3	1,0	0,8	0,8	0,7	0,7	0,5	0,8	0,7	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,9	1,0	1,1	0,8
	HS2701 (coal)	20,1	25,0	19,4	17,3	15,6	14,3	13,7	10,8	11,9	9,7	8,9	9,7	10,4	10,6	10,9	11,5	10,6	10,2
Uganda	HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils)	0,5	0,6	0,8	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,5	0,4	0,3	0,4	0,4	0,5	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,4
	HS2710 (petroleum oils)	1,1	1,0	2,1	1,5	1,1	1,0	0,7	0,6	1,6	1,0	0,9	1,0	1,0	1,3	1,6	0,1	1,2	1,0
Zambia	HS28 (inorganic chemicals)	0,3	0,8	0,3	0,3	0,1	0,1	0,3	0,6	1,1	1,1	1,6	2,5	7,2	4,7	1,8	1,6	4,8	3,3
	HS2807 (sulphuric acid)	14,0	23,0	6,4	5,3	0,2	4,6	29,6	39,1	90,4	65,9	66,0	119,6	421,2	463,5	162,0	159,0	224,7	256,3

Source: Own table developed from Table A-12 (Appendix 3).

Table 5.4 above shows that there are countries which do not have a comparative advantage in certain products at HS 2-digit level. However, they have comparative advantage in specific products when the trade data is disaggregated to HS 4-digit level and therefore it may be misleading to simply consider products at HS 2-digit level. For example, South Africa did not have a comparative advantage in HS27 for most of the years from 2001 to 2018. However, when trade data for HS27 is disaggregated, it can be seen that South Africa has a comparative advantage in HS2701 throughout the period 2001-2018. Therefore, production in HS2701 is an area of strength for them to focus on. Another example is Uganda which did not have a comparative advantage in HS27 throughout the period 2001-2018. However, when trade data is disaggregated, it can be seen that Angola has a comparative advantage in HS2710 for most of the years from 2001 to 2018. The disaggregation of trade data to HS-4 digit level can also highlight the products which countries have emerged to have comparative advantage in. For example, Egypt did not have a comparative advantage in HS85 from 2001 to 2018. However, when trade data for HS85 is disaggregated it can be seen that Egypt emerged to have a comparative advantage in HS8544 from 2008 to 2018. Angola is an example of a country which, after 2007, lost its comparative advantage in HS 71. However, when the trade data is disaggregated, it can be seen that Angola continued to have a comparative advantage in HS7102 for the years after 2007.

5.7 Trade barriers between the three regions (2001-2018)

Eliminating trade barriers would aid the creation of a large single market with free movement of goods and thereby promote intra-regional trade as per Article 4 (b) of the TFTA Agreement. The proposed TFTA also seeks to progressively eliminate tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade as per Article 5 (a) of the Agreement.

Non-tariff barriers (NTBs) remain a challenge for member states of the proposed TFTA and it was in light of this that the three founding blocs established a mechanism to report, monitor and eliminate NTBs between them (NTB, 2019). Furthermore, NTB (2019) states that there are eight broad non-tariff barrier categories; government participation in trade & restrictive practices tolerated by governments; customs and administrative entry procedures; technical barriers to trade (TBT); sanitary & phyto-sanitary (SPS) measures; specific limitations; charges on imports; other procedural problems; and transport, clearing and forwarding. The broad non-tariff barrier category with the most complaints is customs and administrative entry procedures

followed by transport, clearing and forwarding. The top 5 specific NTBs experienced by members of the proposed TFTA are issues related to the rules of origin; lengthy and costly customs clearance procedures; costly road user charges/fees; issues related to transit; and additional taxes and other charges.

For the time period 1st January 2009 to 5th December 2019, there were 55 active NTB complaints between member states of the proposed TFTA. For the same period there were 637 resolved complaints and 8 non-actionable complaints between them (NTB, 2019). While there are still active complaints, the high number of resolved complaints demonstrates a commitment on the part of member states to address NTBs.

Revealed trade barrier indexes (RTBs) consider both tariff and non-tariff barriers and would give insights about ease of market access between the three regions. The indexes reveal whether goods imported by one region from another are possibly facing discriminatory or preferential treatment. RTBs were calculated for the top 5 imports sourced from each other. In addition, each regional bloc was adjusted for overlapping membership. The results of the revealed trade barrier indexes are shown in Table A-13 (in Appendix 3, page 138).

Table 5.5 below shows the top 5 products traded between regional groupings for which RTBs were obtained. Of the top 5 products that COMESA⁸ imported from EAC, four had $RTB > 1$ indicating that there was possibly preferential treatment of these commodities into COMESA over the years. The only commodity with $RTB < 1$ was HS71 (pearls, stones and metals) and this indicates that there was possibly discrimination against HS71 from EAC into COMESA. All of the top 5 products that EAC imported from COMESA consistently had $RTB > 1$ indicating that there was possibly preferential treatment of these commodities into EAC.

⁸ Once COMESA is adjusted for overlapping membership, the remaining countries are Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Libya and Sudan.

Table 5.5 Summary of Revealed trade barriers between regions (2001-2018)

Regions	RTB > 1	RTB < 1
EAC-COMESA	HS09 (Coffee, tea, maté and spices), HS10 (cereals), HS27 (mineral fuels and mineral oils), HS72 (iron and steel)	HS71 (pearls, stones and metals)
COMESA-EAC	HS10 (cereals), HS17 (sugars and sugar confectionery), HS25 (salt), HS33 (essential oils), HS72 (iron and steel)	
EAC-SADC	HS24 (tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes), HS25 (salt), HS27 ^a (mineral fuels and mineral oils), HS34 (soap), HS72 (iron and steel)	
SADC-EAC	HS17 (sugars and sugar confectionery), HS33 (essential oils), HS72 (iron and steel)	HS71 (pearls, stones and metals), HS87 ^b (vehicles)
COMESA-SADC	HS17 (sugars and sugar confectionery), HS26 ^c (ores, slag and ash), HS28 ^c (inorganic chemicals), HS33 (essential oils), HS74 (copper)	
SADC-COMESA	HS27 ^d (mineral fuels and mineral oils), HS72 (iron and steel), HS84 ^f (machinery), HS87 ^g (vehicles)	HS26 ^c (ores, slag and ash)

Source: Own table developed from Table A-13 (Appendix 3).

Notes: a= HS27 is included because it had RTB > 1 for most of the years

b= Apart from 2014 and 2015, HS87 had RTB <1

c= HS26 and HS28 are included because they had RTB > 1 for most of the years

d= HS27 is included because it consistently had RTB >1 from 2013 onwards

e= Apart from 2017, H26 had RTB <1 throughout the years

f= HS84 is included because it had RTB > 1 from 2011 onwards

g= HS87 is included because from 2011 to 2016 it had RTB >1.

Of the top 5 products that SADC imported from EAC, four had RTB>1 throughout the years which indicates that there was possibly preferential treatment of all of these commodities into SADC. Of the top 5 products that EAC imported from SADC, three had RTB > 1 for all the years which indicates that there was possibly preferential treatment of these commodities into EAC. HS71 had RTB <1 from 2001 to 2017 and it was only in 2018 that HS71 had RTB >1.

Of the top 5 products that SADC imported from COMESA from 2001-2017, three had RTB > 1 throughout the observed time period indicating that there was possibly preferential treatment of these commodities into SADC. Of the top 5 products that COMESA imported from SADC, HS72 was the only commodity that had RTB > 1 throughout the years, indicating that there was possibly preferential treatment of this commodity into SADC. As for the rest of the products, there were periods where RTB >1 and others where RTB < 1.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that the majority of the top 5 imports the regional groups source from each other have RTB>1. This indicates that there is ease of market access for these products between the blocs and this could promote increased intra-regional trade in these products because tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade will be progressively eliminated

once the TFTA is in place. Furthermore, ease of market access for the rest of the products not included in this study will also be improved as barriers to trade are progressively removed in the free trade area. Therefore, intra-regional trade in these products may also rise.

As previously mentioned in Chapter 3, Appleyard and Field (2017:396), Hosny (2013:144) and Marinov (2015:34) all note that economic integration is more likely to have beneficial effects when there are initially high tariff levels between proposed member states of an agreement. With initially high tariffs, the inefficiencies are greater and the welfare effects from the removal of tariffs will be greater. HS71 which is imported by COMESA from EAC; HS71 and HS87 which are both imported by EAC from SADC; and HS26 which is imported by COMESA from SADC are all possibly facing discrimination which may be in the form of tariffs. Once the TFTA is in place, the removal of tariffs may result in an increase in the trade of these products as well as positive welfare effects.

The existence of trade complementarity and trade intensity between the regions, a wide variety of products in which member states have comparative advantages and the ease of market access that the TFTA will provide as barriers to trade as progressively removed could all serve to boost the levels of intra-regional trade within the TFTA.

5.8 Summary of prospects and potential for intra-regional trade within the TFTA and implications for the Continental Free Trade Area

The relevant theoretical frameworks for the proposed TFTA are the market integration model and the theory of common markets which will both be used to provide motivation for the prospects and potential for intra-regional trade within the proposed TFTA. It was mentioned in Section 5.2 that one of the conditions for economic integration to be successful is for a high proportion of trade to be currently taking place with future partners. It has been established that COMESA and EAC are reliant on the rest of Africa for half of their trade. In addition, the results from the trade intensity indexes revealed that EAC and SADC, EAC and South Africa, EAC and COMESA regard each other as important trading partners. These results would suggest that this condition is being met and that once the TFTA is in place, it would simply reinforce these trade relations and may lead to an increase in intra-regional trade.

The results from the trade complementarity indexes revealed that trade between the regions in the top 5 exports traded between them is complementary. This is an indication that intra-regional trade may increase in these particular products once the TFTA is in place and barriers

to trade between member states are progressively removed. High trade complementarities in other products traded between member states but not included in this study would also contribute to increased intra-regional trade once the TFTA is in place. Results from the revealed trade barrier indexes for the top 5 imports which regional groups source from each other revealed that there is ease of market access for these products. Intra-regional trade in these and other products not considered in this study may increase once the TFTA is in place because trade barriers will be progressively eliminated.

Results from the revealed comparative advantage indexes can be used to indicate which member states of the proposed TFTA could realise economies of scale because of comparative advantages they currently have in the production of specific goods. For example, it has been established that Lesotho, Madagascar and Mauritius all have comparative advantage in HS61 (apparel and clothing, knitted or crocheted). Once the TFTA is in place, economies of scale could be realised when these countries capture the entire market and experience a fall in their average costs of production. Intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA could increase as they begin to produce and export HS61 to the rest of the region. Economies of scale may be realised by member states who have comparative advantage in any of their top 5 exported products shown in Table A-12 (in Appendix 3, page 127) as they begin to produce for the entire TFTA.

In light of the discussion above, it can be argued that there is potential for intra-regional trade expansion within the TFTA. It was previously mentioned in Section 2.4 (Chapter 2) that the objectives of the TFTA and the Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) are similar in the sense that both Agreements seek to create a single market for goods by progressively eliminating tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade. Therefore, the CFTA could build on the progress in intra-TFTA trade because the TFTA involves about half of the countries who are part of the CFTA. The TFTA could therefore be viewed as a stepping stone towards a continent-wide customs union as noted by Cheluget and Wright (2017:481) as well as Pesce *et al.* (2015:295). There are clear rules of origin (ROO) which have been adopted by members of both the TFTA and CFTA and where ROO are clear and enforced, overlapping membership *per se* may not be a problem.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented an empirical analysis of current intra-regional trade within the proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area. The findings of the analysis indicate that with the TFTA in place,

intra-regional trade may be promoted as outlined in Article 4 (b) of the Agreement. Support for this conclusion is the relatively high trade complementarity between the regions in their top 5 exports, the significant trading relations between EAC and SADC as well as EAC and COMESA, the differences in revealed comparative advantage between members for a range of products and the current ease of market access for top 5 imports from each region. Furthermore, it has been established that COMESA and EAC are reliant on the rest of Africa for their trade while intra-SADC trade has been increasing. Taken together, these results suggest that intra-regional trade in the TFTA will increase especially as barriers to trade are progressively eliminated as per Article 5 (a) of the Agreement. TFTA member states have already demonstrated their commitment to the removal of non-tariff barriers to trade between them through the establishment of a NTB mechanism that is concerned with reporting, monitoring and eliminating NTBs between them.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The proposed Tripartite Free Trade Area (TFTA) is a stepping stone in economic integration on the African continent. It represents a significant market with a total population of approximately 726 million people and a combined GDP of US\$ 1.3 trillion.

The main goal of the proposed TFTA is to create a large single market which promotes intra-regional trade as well as economic and social development, and which is ultimately for the benefit of people in the region. The prime objective of this research was to examine and analyse the current nature of intra-regional trade between the member states of the proposed TFTA. This was achieved by addressing the following sub goals: examining the major exports of proposed TFTA member states and to determine whether they have any comparative advantage in any of these products; examining and analysing the extent to which the three founding blocs trade intensively with each other as well as the extent to which their trade in the major products traded between them is complementary; and examining the ease of market access between the three founding blocs as well as the extent to which existing trade barriers between the blocs are being eliminated in the context of Article 5 (a) of the Agreement. The current nature of intra-regional trade in the proposed TFTA was examined by the use of trade complementarity indexes, trade intensity indexes, revealed comparative advantage indexes and revealed trade barrier indexes.

6.2 Conclusions and recommendations

At present there is a high degree of trade complementarity between the blocs in the trade of each of their top 5 exports. Specifically considering these products, the import and export requirements of TFTA members would potentially match well. This suggests that there are opportunities for intra-regional trade in these products to increase once the TFTA is in place and barriers to trade begin to be progressively removed. Additionally, findings also showed that EAC and SADC, EAC and South Africa, EAC and COMESA currently view each other as significant trading partners. Once the TFTA enters into force, it will simply strengthen these existing trade relations.

Findings further show that member states have revealed comparative advantage in similar products and these products present opportunities for joint-production among member states. With the possibility of realising economies of scale, countries which have comparative advantage in certain products may be in a position to produce and export these products to other members as well as to the rest of the world.

Results from the study also indicated that the majority of the top 5 imports sourced from each region receive preferential treatment. This indicates that there is currently ease of market access for the top 5 imports sourced from each other and this could promote increased intra-regional trade among member states in these product categories because barriers to trade will be progressively eliminated once the TFTA is in place. Findings in this study also showed that member states of the proposed TFTA have already demonstrated a commitment to the removal of non-tariff barriers to trade between them. Therefore, it is recommended that member states continue on this path, by seeking to address non-tariff barrier complaints which are levied against them in a timely manner.

In light of all of these respective findings from this study, it can be concluded that once the TFTA is in place, intra-regional trade may be promoted as outlined in the Agreement.

The proposed TFTA is built based on the market integration model. The model requires that several prerequisites, many of which are still missing among TFTA countries, be in place in order for countries to experience welfare gains associated with economic integration. Therefore, it is recommended that member states of the TFTA focus on addressing structural inadequacies in areas such as transport, banking and services. As per theory, this will aid in their realisation of the benefits of integration once the TFTA is in place.

The TFTA is not the first economic integration initiative on the continent. A consideration of the evolution of economic integration in Africa reveals that some of the agreements that came before it have been marked by a failure to meet deadlines and a lack of commitment on the part of member states. Therefore, it is recommended that TFTA members who are yet to ratify the Agreement be encouraged to do so in order for the region as a whole to begin to experience some of the expected welfare benefits of the proposed TFTA.

6.3 Limitations and future research

The main limitation of the study was the limited number of products considered for calculating the Trade Complementarity Indexes, Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes and the Revealed Trade Barrier Indexes. Findings in the study would have been more revealing if a greater number of products had been brought under consideration when calculating these indexes. Therefore, future research could focus on calculating the above-mentioned indexes with a higher number of products.

The present research focused on the products currently traded by TFTA member states. In view of this, Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes were used to identify the products in which member states have comparative advantage and are thus more likely to export. Future research could consider how the trade patterns of these member states change as their economies become increasingly industrialised. By calculating Revealed Comparative Advantage Indexes at a future date, possible changes in the product areas where TFTA member states have a comparative advantage may be identified. Thereafter, it may be possible to determine how industrialisation has affected goods produced and exported by TFTA member states.

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APPENDIX 1: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 2

Annex 1 of the Lagos Plan of Action

II Implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action

A. African Economic Community

We reaffirm our commitment to set up, by the year 2000, on the basis of a treaty to be concluded, an African Economic Community, so as to ensure the economic, social and cultural integration of our continent. The aim of this community shall be to promote collective, accelerated, self-reliant and self-sustaining development of Member States; co-operation among these States; and their integration in the economic, social and cultural fields.

We are, consequently, authorising the Secretary General of the OAU:

- i. to appoint, as quickly as possible, a Drafting Committee, at ministerial level, to prepare the draft of the treaty establishing the African Economic Community;
- ii. to submit this draft for the consideration of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government scheduled for 1981.

B. Stages of implementation

To achieve this ultimate objective, We commit ourselves:

1. During the decade of the 1980s to:

- a) strengthen the existing regional economic communities and establish other economic groupings in the other regions of Africa, so as to cover the continent as a whole (Central Africa, Eastern Africa, Southern Africa, Northern Africa);
- b) strengthen, effectively, sectoral integration at the continental level, and particularly in the fields of agriculture, food, transport and communications, industry, and energy;
- c) promote co-ordination and harmonisation among the existing and future economic groupings for a gradual establishment of an African Common Market.

2. During the decade of the 1990s to:

- a) take steps for further sectoral integration through: harmonisation of our strategies, policies and economic development plans; promotion of joint projects, particularly in the abovementioned economic fields; harmonisation of our financial and monetary policies;
- b) take measures to effect the establishment of an African Common Market and other measures that would lead to the attainment of the aims and objectives of the African Economic Community

Source: OAU (1980:99).

Table A-1: Stages for achieving the African Economic Community

Phase	Objective	Timeframe
1	Strengthening of existing RECs and establishing new ones in regions where they do not exist	1994-1999
2	Stabilisation of tariff and other barriers to regional trade and strengthening of sectoral integration, particularly in the field of trade, agriculture, finance, transport and communication, industry and energy, as well as coordination and harmonisation of the activities of RECs	1999-2007
3	Establishing a Free Trade Area and a Customs Union at the level of each REC	2007-2017
4	Co-ordination and harmonisation of tariff non-tariff systems among RECs, with a view to establishing a Continental Customs Union	2017-2019
5	Establishing a continent-wide African common market	2019-2023
6	Establishing of a continent-wide economic and Monetary Union (and thus also a currency union) and pan-African parliament	2023-2028
7	End all transition periods	Latest 2034

Source: Masinde and Omolo (2016:3); OAU (1991:12-15).

General and specific objectives of TFTA Agreement

Article 4

General Objectives

The general objectives of the Tripartite Free Trade Area shall be to:

- a) promote economic and social development of the Region;
- b) create a large single market with free movement of goods and services to promote intra-regional trade;
- c) enhance the regional and continental integration processes; and
- d) build a strong Tripartite Free Trade Area for the benefit of the people of the Region.

Article 5

Specific Objectives

For purposes of fulfilling and realising the objectives set out in Article 4 of this Agreement, Tripartite Member/Partner States shall:

- a) progressively eliminate tariffs and Non-Tariff Barriers to trade in goods;
- b) liberalise trade in services;
- c) cooperate on customs matters and implementation of trade facilitation measures;
- d) establish and promote cooperation in all trade-related areas among Tripartite Member/Partner States; and
- e) establish and maintain an institutional framework for implementation and administration of the Tripartite Free Trade Area.

Source: COMESA, EAC & SADC (2015:5).

Annex 1 of the TFTA Agreement

TRIPARTITE FTA NEGOTIATING PRINCIPLES, PROCESSES AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

Guidelines for Negotiating the Tripartite Free Trade Area among the Member/Partner States of COMESA, EAC and SADC

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The First Tripartite Summit held on 22 October 2008 in Kampala, Uganda, approved the expeditious establishment of a Free Trade Area (FTA), encompassing the Member/Partner States of the three Regional Economic Communities (RECs).

1.2 It is envisaged that the twenty-six (26) countries will engage in negotiations for the establishment of a Tripartite FTA, recognizing that substantial progress on trade liberalization has been achieved within their three RECs. The establishment of the Tripartite FTA will build upon and consolidate the RECs acquis.

2. SCOPE OF THE NEGOTIATIONS

The negotiations shall be in two phases as follows:

- i) The first phase will cover negotiations on the following areas: tariff liberalisation, rules of origin, dispute resolution, customs procedures and simplification of customs documentation, transit procedures, non-tariff barriers, trade remedies, technical barriers to trade and sanitary and phyto-sanitary measures.
- ii) Movement of business persons will be dealt with during the first phase of negotiations as a parallel and separate track.
- iii) The second phase will cover negotiations on the following areas: trade in services, intellectual property rights, competition policy, and trade development and competitiveness.

3. NEGOTIATING PRINCIPLES

The Tripartite FTA negotiations process shall be REC and/or Member driven and be guided by the following overarching principles:

- i) The negotiations shall be REC and/or Member/Partner State driven
- ii) Variable geometry
- iii) Flexibility and Special and Differential Treatment
- iv) Transparency including the disclosure of information with respect to the application of the tariff arrangements in each REC
- v) Building on the acquis of the existing REC FTAs in terms of consolidating tariff liberalisation in each REC FTA
- vi) A single undertaking covering Phase I on trade in goods
- vii) Substantial liberalisation
- viii) MFN Treatment
- ix) National Treatment
- x) Reciprocity, and
- xi) Decisions shall be taken by consensus.

4. NEGOTIATING INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 The Tripartite FTA will be negotiated within the context of the following institutional framework:

- i) Tripartite Summit of the Heads of State and Government
- ii) Tripartite Council of Ministers
- iii) Tripartite Sectoral Ministerial Committees
- iv) Tripartite Committee of Senior Officials
- v) Tripartite Trade Negotiation Forum (TTNF)

4.2 The Tripartite Task Force, comprising Heads of Secretariats of the three RECs, will coordinate and provide technical and administrative support to the negotiation process.

5. MONITORING OF THE NEGOTIATION PROCESS

5.1 The Tripartite Sectoral Ministerial Committee shall be responsible for the overall monitoring of the negotiation process to ensure that a credible and development-oriented agreement is concluded expeditiously.

5.2 The Tripartite Sectoral Ministerial Committee will supervise and provide leadership to the negotiation process including resolving contentious issues that may arise. The Committee will ensure that the negotiating committees of senior officials and the TTNF adhere to the negotiation timeframes as provided in the Tripartite FTA Roadmap.

5.3 Progress will be monitored through quarterly reports by the Chairperson of the TTNF and six-monthly formal reviews by the Tripartite Sectoral Ministerial Committee responsible for trade. The outcome of the monitoring and evaluation will inform the pace of the negotiations.

Source: COMESA, EAC and SADC (2011:1-2).

Articles 6 and 7 of the CFTA Agreement

Article 6

Scope

This Agreement shall cover trade in goods, trade in services, investment, intellectual property rights and competition policy.

Article 7

Phase II Negotiations

1. In pursuance of the objectives of this Agreement, Member States shall enter into Phase II negotiations in the following areas:

- a) intellectual property rights;
- b) investment; and
- c) competition policy.

2. The negotiations referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article shall commence after the adoption of this Agreement by the Assembly and shall be undertaken in successive rounds.

Source: AU (2018d:6).

General and specific objectives of CFTA Agreement

Article 3

General objectives

The general objectives of the AfCFTA are to:

- a) create a single market for goods, services, facilitated by movement of persons in order to deepen the economic integration of the African continent and in accordance with the Pan African Vision of “An integrated, prosperous and peaceful Africa” enshrined in Agenda 2063;
- b) create a liberalised market for goods and services through successive rounds of negotiations;
- c) contribute to the movement of capital and natural persons and facilitate investments building on the initiatives and developments in the State Parties and RECs;
- d) lay the foundation for the establishment of a Continental Customs Union at a later stage;
- e) promote and attain sustainable and inclusive socio-economic development, gender equality and structural transformation of the State Parties;
- f) enhance the competitiveness of the economies of State Parties within the continent and the global market;
- g) promote industrial development through diversification and regional value chain development, agricultural development and food security; and
- h) resolve the challenges of multiple and overlapping memberships and expedite the regional and continental integration processes

Article 4

Specific objectives

For purposes of fulfilling and realising the objectives set out in Article 3, State parties shall:

- a) progressively eliminate tariffs and non-tariff barriers to trade in goods;
- b) progressively liberalise trade in services;
- c) cooperate on investment, intellectual property rights and competition policy;
- d) cooperate on all trade-related areas;
- e) cooperate on customs matters and the implementation of trade facilitation measures;
- f) establish a mechanism for the settlement of disputes concerning their rights and obligations; and
- g) establish and maintain an institutional framework for the implementation and administration of the AfCFTA

Source: AU (2018d:4-5).

Table A-2: List of countries which have signed and ratified the CFTA

Country	Date of signature	Date of ratification
Algeria	21/03/2018	-
Angola	21/03/2018	-
Benin	07/07/2019	-
Botswana	10/02/2019	-
Burkina Faso	21/03/2018	27/05/2019
Burundi	02/07/2018	-
Cameroon	21/03/2018	-
Central African Republic	21/03/2018	-
Cape Verde	21/03/2018	-
Chad	21/03/2018	29/06/2018
Côte d'Ivoire	21/03/2018	13/11/2018
Comoros	21/03/2018	-
Congo	21/03/2018	07/02/2019
Djibouti	21/03/2018	05/02/2019
Democratic Republic of Congo	21/03/2018	-
Egypt	21/03/2018	27/02/2019
Equatorial Guinea	21/03/2018	28/06/2019
Eritrea	-	-
Eswatini	21/03/2018	21/06/2018
Ethiopia	21/03/2018	23/3/2019
Gabon	21/03/2018	02/07/2019
Gambia	21/03/2018	11/04/2019
Ghana	21/03/2018	07/05/2018
Guinea-Bissau	08/02/2019	-
Guinea	21/03/2018	31/07/2018
Kenya	21/03/2018	06/05/2018
Libya	21/03/2018	-
Lesotho	02/07/2018	-
Liberia	21/03/2018	-
Madagascar	21/03/2018	-
Mali	21/03/2018	11/01/2019
Malawi	21/03/2018	-
Morocco	21/03/2018	-
Mozambique	21/03/2018	-
Mauritania	21/03/2018	31/01/2019
Mauritius	21/03/2018	30/09/2019
Namibia	02/07/2018	25/01/2019
Nigeria	07/07/2019	-
Niger	21/03/2018	28/05/2018
Rwanda	21/03/2018	25/05/2018
South Africa	02/07/2018	31/01/2019
Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic	21/03/2018	27/04/2019
Senegal	21/03/2018	12/03/2019
Seychelles	21/03/2018	-
Sierra Leone	02/07/2018	19/04/2019
Somalia	21/03/2018	-
South Sudan	21/03/2018	-
Sao Tome & Principe	21/03/2018	28/05/2019
Sudan	21/03/2018	-
Tanzania	21/03/2018	-
Togo	21/03/2018	09/01/2019
Tunisia	21/03/2018	-
Uganda	21/03/2018	20/11/2018
Zambia	10/02/2019	-
Zimbabwe	21/03/2018	25/04/2019
Total countries: 55	Total signatures: 54	Total ratifications: 28

Source: Own table developed from AU (2018c).

TFTA Agreement Annex 4 Rules of Origin

Article 3

The Concept of “Originating Products”

1. For the purpose of implementing the Agreement, the following products shall be considered as originating in the Tripartite Member States:

- a) products wholly obtained in the Tripartite Member States within the meaning of Article 4 of this Annex;
- b) products obtained in the Tripartite Member States incorporating materials which have not been wholly obtained there, provided that such materials have undergone sufficient working or processing in the member states within the meaning of Article 5 of this Annex.

2. For the purpose of implementing paragraph 1, the territories of the Tripartite Member States shall be considered as being one territory. Originating products made up of materials wholly obtained or sufficiently worked or processed in two or more Tripartite Member States shall be considered as products originating in the Tripartite Member States where the last working or processing took place, provided the working or processing carried out there goes beyond that referred to in Article 7 of this Annex.

Article 4

Wholly Obtained Products

1. The following shall be considered as wholly obtained in the Tripartite Member States

- a) minerals and other naturally occurring products extracted from their soil or from their seabed;
- b) vegetable products harvested therein;
- c) live animals born and raised therein;
- d) products from live animals raised therein;
- e) products obtained by hunting or fishing conducted there; products of aquaculture, including Mari culture, where the fish are born and raised therein
- f) products obtained from the sea, rivers or lakes within the Tripartite Member States by vessels of that Member State;
- g) products made aboard their factory ships exclusively from products referred to in subparagraph (f);
- h) used articles collected there fit only for the recovery of raw materials, including used tyres fit only for re-treading or for use as waste;
- i) waste and scrap resulting from manufacturing operations conducted therein; and
- j) products extracted from marine soil or subsoil outside their territorial waters provided that they have sole rights to work that soil or subsoil; and
- k) goods produced therein exclusively from the products specified in subparagraphs (a) to (j).

2. The terms "their vessels" and "their factory ships" in paragraph 1(f) and 1(g) shall apply only to vessels and factory ships which are registered or recorded in the official records of a Tripartite Member State.

Article 5

Origin Criteria -

Sufficiently Worked or Processed Products

1. For the purposes of this Annex, products which are not wholly obtained are considered to be sufficiently worked or processed in the Tripartite Member States when:

- a) the value of non-originating materials used in the production of the good does not exceed 70% of the ex-works price of the good, or
- b) the value of the originating materials used in the production of the good is at least equal to 30% of the ex-works price of the good.

2. Notwithstanding paragraphs 1 above, for the purposes of this Annex, products which are not wholly obtained in a member state and contained in the list in Appendix I are considered to be sufficiently worked or processed only when the conditions set out in the list are fulfilled. Those conditions indicate, for all products covered by the list, the change of tariff classification or working or processing which must be carried out on non-originating materials used in manufacturing and apply only in relation to such materials.

3. The Tripartite Member States shall provide that all costs considered for the calculation of regional value content shall be recorded and maintained in conformity with the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles applicable in the territory of the Tripartite State where the good is produced.

4. The conditions referred to above indicate the working or processing which must be

carried out on non-originating materials used in manufacturing and apply only in relation to such materials. Accordingly, it follows that if a product, which has acquired originating status by fulfilling the conditions set out above is used in the manufacture of another product, the conditions applicable to the product in which it is incorporated do not apply to it, and no account shall be taken of the non-originating materials which may have been used in its manufacture.

Article 34

Penalties

Penalties shall be imposed on any person who draws up, or causes to be drawn up, a document which contains incorrect information for the purpose of obtaining a preferential treatment for products in accordance with national legislation.

Source: COMESA, EAC and SADC (2010:2-4, 16).

CFTA Agreement Annex 2 Rules of Origin

Article 4

Origin Conferring Criteria

A Product shall be considered as originating from a State Party if it has:

- a) been wholly obtained in that State Party within the meaning of Article 5 of this Annex; or
- b) undergone substantial transformation in that State Party within the meaning of Article 6 of this Annex.

Article 5

Wholly Obtained Products

1. The following Products shall be considered as wholly obtained in a State Party when exported to another State Party:

- a) mineral Products and other non-living natural resources extracted from the ground, sea bed, below sea bed and in the Territory of a State Party in accordance with the provisions of UNCLOS;
- b) plants, including aquatic plants and plant Products, vegetables and fruits, grown or harvested therein;
- c) live animals born and raised therein;
- d) Products obtained from live animals raised therein;
- e) Products from slaughtered animals born and raised therein;
- f) Products obtained by hunting and fishing conducted therein;
- g) Products of aquaculture including mariculture, where the fish, crustaceans, molluscs and other aquatic invertebrates are born and or raised therein from eggs, larvae, fry or fingerlings born or raised therein;
- h) Products of sea fishing and other Products taken from the sea outside the Territory of a State Party by their Vessels;
- i) Products made aboard their Factory Ships exclusively from Products referred to in subparagraph (h);
- j) used articles fit only for the recovery of Materials, provided that such articles have been collected therein;
- k) scrap and waste resulting from manufacturing operations therein;
- l) Products extracted from marine soil or sub-soil outside their territorial waters provided that it has sole rights to work that soil or sub-soil;
- m) Goods produced therein exclusively from the Products specified in subparagraphs (a) to (l); and
- n) electric energy produced therein.

New Proposal 1

2. *[The terms "their vessels" and "their factory ships" in paragraph 1(h) and 1(i) shall apply only to vessels, leased vessels, bare boat and factory ships which are registered in a State Party in accordance with the national laws of a State Party and carry the flag of the State Party and, in addition, meet one of the following conditions:*

- a) *at least, 50 per centum of the officers of the vessel or factory ship are nationals of the State Party or State Parties; or*
- b) *at least, 50 per centum of the crew of the vessel or factory ship are nationals of the State Party or State Parties; or*
- c) *at least, [50 / 51] per centum of the equity holding in respect of the vessel or factory ship are held by nationals of the State Party or State Parties or institutions, agency, enterprise or corporation of the government of the State Party or State Parties]*

New Proposal 2

[The terms "their vessels" and "their factory ships" in paragraph 1(h) and 1(i) shall apply only to vessels, leased vessels, bare boat and factory ships which are registered in a State Party in accordance with the national laws of a State Party and meet one of the following conditions:

- a) *the vessel sails under the flag of a State Party; or*
- b) *at least, 50 per centum of the officers of the vessel or factory ship are nationals of the States Party or State Parties; or*
- c) *at least, 50 per centum of the crew of the vessel or factory ship are nationals of the State Party or States Parties; or*
- d) *at least, [50/51] per centum of the equity holding in respect of the vessel or factory ship are held by nationals of the State Party or State Parties or institutions, agency, enterprise or corporation of the government of the State Party or State Parties]⁹*

Article 6

Sufficiently Worked or Processed Products

1. For purposes of Article 4(b) of this Annex, Products which are not wholly obtained are considered to be sufficiently worked or processed when they fulfil one of the following criteria:

- a) Value Added;
- b) non-originating Material content;
- c) change in tariff Heading; or
- d) specific processes.

2. Notwithstanding paragraph 1 of this Article, Goods listed in Appendix IV shall qualify as originating Goods if they satisfy the specific rules set out therein.

⁹This Sub-Article is an outstanding provision

Article 7

Working or Processing not Conferring Origin

1. The following operations are insufficient to confer origin on a Product, whether or not the requirements of Article 4 of this Annex are satisfied:

- a) operations exclusively intended to preserve Products in good condition during storage and transportation;
- b) breaking-up or assembly of packages;
- c) washing, cleaning or operations to remove dust, oxide, oil, paint or other coverings from a Product;
- d) simple ironing or pressing operations;
- e) simple painting or polishing operations;
- f) husking, partial or total bleaching, polishing or glazing of cereals and rice;
- g) operations to colour sugar or form sugar lumps, partial or total milling of crystal sugar;
- h) peeling, stoning or shelling of vegetables of Chapter 7, fruits of Chapter 8, nuts of Heading 08.01 or 08.02 or groundnuts of Heading 12.02, fruits, nuts or vegetables;
- i) sharpening, simple grinding or simple cutting;
- j) simple sifting, screening, sorting, classifying, grading or matching;
- k) simple packaging operations, such as placing in bottles, cans, flasks, bags, cases, boxes or fixing on cards or boards;
- l) affixing or printing marks, labels, logos, and other like distinguishing signs on the Products or their packaging;
- m) simple mixing of Materials, whether or not of different kinds; which does not include an operation that causes a chemical reaction;
- n) simple assembling of parts of articles to constitute a complete article;
- o) a combination of two or more operations specified in sub-paragraphs (a) to (n); and
- p) slaughter of animals.

2. Notwithstanding any provision of this Annex, agricultural Products whether or not processed in any way, obtained or partially obtained from Food Aid or monetisation or similar assistance measures, including arrangements based on non-commercial terms, shall not be considered as originating in a State Party.

3. For purposes of paragraph 1 of this Article, an operation shall be considered simple when neither special skills, nor machines, apparatus nor tools especially produced or installed for those operations are required for their performance or when those skills, machines, apparatus or tools do not contribute to the Product's essential characteristics or properties.

Article 8

Cumulation of Origin within the AfCFTA

1. For purposes of implementing this Article, all State Parties shall be considered as a single Territory.
2. Raw Materials or semi-finished Goods originating in any of the State Parties and undergoing working or processing in another State Party, shall be deemed to have originated in the State Party where the final processing or manufacturing takes place.
3. Working or processing carried out in any of the State Parties shall be considered as having been carried out in the State Parties when the Materials undergo further working or processing in a State Party.
4. Notwithstanding paragraphs 1 and 2 of this Article, Products further manufactured in a State Party shall be considered as originating in a State Party where the last manufacturing process takes place provided that the last working or processing operations exceed those operations under Article 7 of this Annex.

Article 9

Goods produced under Special Economic Arrangements / Zones

- 1. Goods produced in Special Economic Arrangement / Zone shall be treated as originating Goods provided that they satisfy the rules in this Annex and in accordance with the provisions of Article 23.2 of the Protocol on Trade in Goods.*
- 2. State Parties shall take all necessary measures to ensure that Products which are traded under the cover of proof of origin, and which during their transportation use a Special Economic Arrangement / Zone situated in their Territory, shall remain under the control of the Customs Authority and are not substituted by other Goods.*
- 3. Notwithstanding paragraph 1 of this Article, where Products originating in a State Party which are imported into a Special Economic Arrangement / Zone under a proof of origin undergo processing or transformation, the competent Customs Authorities shall issue a new movement certificate at the request of the Exporter, if the processing or transformation carried out is in accordance with this Annex.*

Article 37

Penalties

State Parties shall, through national legislation, provide for penalties, where any person draws up, or causes to be drawn up, or uses, a document which contains information which the person knows to be false for the purpose of obtaining a preferential treatment for Products.

Source: AU (2018e:6-10, 25)

CFTA Agreement Part 3 Article 8

Article 8

Schedules of Tariff Concessions

1. Each State Party shall apply preferential tariffs to imports from other State Parties in accordance with its Schedule of Tariff Concessions contained in Annex 1 to this Protocol and in conformity with the adopted tariff modalities. The Schedules of Tariff Concessions, the adopted tariff modalities and outstanding work on tariff modalities to be negotiated and adopted, shall be an integral part of this Protocol.
2. Notwithstanding the provisions of this Protocol, State Parties that are members of other RECs, which have attained among themselves higher levels of elimination of customs duties and trade barriers than those provided for in this Protocol, shall maintain, and where possible improve upon, those higher levels of trade liberalisation among themselves.

Source: AU (2018d:21-22).

Table A-3: Basic characteristics of TFTA member states

Country	Land area (sq.km)	Population size in million (2017)	Human Development Index (HDI) (2015)	HDI Category	GDP at current US\$ Billion (2017)	GDP Per Capita at current US\$ (2017)	Country classification by income level
Angola	1 246 700	29.8	0.533	Low	124.2	4 170	Upper-middle
Botswana	566 730	2.3	0.698	Medium	17.4	7 596	Upper-middle
Burundi	25 680	10.9	0.404	Low	3.4	320	Low
Comoros	1 861	0.8	0.498	Low	0.6	797	Low
DRC	2 267 050	81.3	0.435	Low	37.2	458	Low
Djibouti	23 180	1.0	0.473	Low	1.8	1 928	Lower-middle
Egypt	995 450	97.6	0.691	Medium	235.4	2 413	Lower-middle
Eritrea	101 000	5.0	0.42	Low			Low
Eswatini	17 200	1.4	0.541	Low	4.4	3 224	Lower-middle
Ethiopia	1 000 000	105.0	0.448	Low	80.6	768	Low
Kenya	569 140	49.7	0.555	Medium	74.9	1 508	Lower-middle
Lesotho	30 360	2.2	0.497	Low	2.6	1 182	Lower-middle
Libya	1 759 540	6.4	0.716	High	51.0	7 998	Upper-middle
Madagascar	581 800	25.6	0.512	Low	11.5	450	Low
Malawi	94 280	18.6	0.476	Low	6.3	338	Low
Mauritius	2 030	1.3	0.781	High	13.3	10 547	Upper-middle
Mozambique	786 380	29.7	0.418	Low	12.3	416	Low
Namibia	823 290	2.5	0.64	Medium	13.2	5 227	Upper-middle
Rwanda	24 670	12.2	0.498	Low	9.1	748	Low
Seychelles	460	0.09	0.782	High	1.5	15 504	High
South Africa	1 213 090	56.7	0.666	Medium	349.4	6 161	Upper-middle
Sudan	2 376 000	40.5	0.49	Low	117.5	2 889	Lower-middle

Country	Land area (sq.km)	Population size in million (2017)	Human Development Index (HDI) (2015)	HDI Category	GDP at current US\$ Billion (2017)	GDP Per Capita at current US\$ (2017)	Country classification by income level
Tanzania	885 800	57.3	0.531	Low	52.1	936	Low
Uganda	200 520	42.9	0.493	Low	25.9	604	Low
Zambia	743 390	17.1	0.579	Medium	25.8	1 510	Lower-middle
Zimbabwe	386 850	16.5	0.516	Low	17.8	1 080	Lower-middle
Total	16 722 451	726.7			1 289.2		

Source: UNDP (2018); World Bank (2018).

Notes: DRC= Democratic Republic of Congo

The index for very high human development is $0.800 \leq \text{HDI} \leq 1$

The index for high human development $0.700 \leq \text{HDI} < 0.799$

The index for medium human development $0.550 \leq \text{HDI} < 0.699$

The index for low human development is $0 < \text{HDI} < 0.550$

High income economies \$12 056 or more

Upper-middle income economies \$3 896 to \$12 055

Lower-middle income economies \$996 to \$3 895

Low income economies \$995 or less.

Data for South Sudan incomplete.

Table A-4: Annual GDP growth (%)

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Angola	3.1	4.2	13.7	4.6	10.2	20.9	19.0	23.2	13.8	2.4	3.5	3.9	5.2	6.8	4.7	3.0	-0.8	0.7
Botswana	2.0	0.3	6.1	4.6	2.7	4.6	8.4	8.3	6.2	-7.7	8.6	6.0	4.5	11.3	4.1	-1.7	4.3	2.4
Burundi	-0.9	2.1	4.4	-1.2	4.8	0.9	5.4	4.8	5.0	3.5	3.8	4.2	4.0	4.6	4.7	-3.9	-0.6	0.5
Comoros	10.8	2.3	2.3	2.1	1.9	2.8	2.6	0.8	0.4	1.9	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.5	2.1	1.0	2.2	2.5
DRC	-6.9	-2.1	2.9	5.6	6.7	6.1	5.3	6.3	6.2	2.9	7.1	6.9	7.1	8.5	9.5	6.9	2.4	3.7
Eswatini	1.8	1.1	4.4	3.9	3.6	6.0	6.0	4.4	0.8	1.6	3.8	2.2	4.7	6.4	1.9	0.4	1.4	2.0
Ethiopia	6.1	8.3	1.5	-2.2	13.6	11.8	10.8	11.5	10.8	8.8	12.6	11.2	8.6	10.6	10.3	10.4	7.6	10.2
Egypt	5.4	3.5	2.4	3.2	4.1	4.5	6.9	7.1	7.2	4.7	5.1	1.8	2.2	2.2	2.9	4.4	4.3	4.2
Kenya	0.6	3.8	0.5	2.9	5.1	5.9	6.5	6.9	0.2	3.3	8.4	6.1	4.6	5.9	5.4	5.7	5.9	4.9
Lesotho	3.9	3.6	0.7	4.6	1.7	3.5	4.2	4.8	6.7	2.2	6.1	6.9	6.0	1.8	3.1	2.5	2.4	5.6
Libya	3.7	-1.8	-1.0	13.0	4.5	11.9	6.5	6.4	2.7	-0.8	5.0	-62.1	123.1	-13.6	-24.0	-8.9	-2.8	26.7
Madagascar	4.8	6.0	-12.7	9.8	5.3	4.6	5.0	6.2	7.1	-4.0	0.3	1.5	3.0	2.3	3.3	3.1	4.2	4.2
Malawi	1.6	-5.0	1.7	5.7	5.4	3.3	4.7	9.6	7.6	8.3	6.9	4.9	1.9	5.2	5.7	2.8	2.5	4.0
Mauritius	9.0	2.6	2.1	3.7	5.7	1.2	8.5	5.7	5.4	3.3	4.4	4.1	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.5	3.8	3.8
Mozambique	1.7	12.7	8.8	6.5	7.8	8.7	9.9	7.4	6.9	6.4	6.7	7.1	7.2	7.1	7.4	6.6	3.8	3.7
Namibia	3.5	1.2	4.8	4.2	12.3	2.5	7.1	6.6	2.6	0.3	6.0	5.1	5.1	5.6	6.4	6.1	0.7	-0.8
Rwanda	8.4	8.5	13.2	2.2	7.4	9.4	9.2	7.6	11.2	6.2	7.3	8.0	8.6	4.7	7.6	8.9	6.0	6.1
Seychelles	1.5	-2.3	1.2	-5.9	-2.9	9.0	9.4	10.4	-2.1	-1.1	6.0	7.9	1.3	6.0	4.5	4.9	4.5	4.2
South Africa	4.2	2.7	3.7	2.9	4.6	5.3	5.6	5.4	3.2	-1.5	3.0	3.3	2.2	2.5	1.8	1.3	0.6	1.3
Sudan	6.3	6.5	6.4	7.7	3.9	7.5	10.1	11.5	7.8	3.2	3.5	-2.0	0.5	4.4	2.7	4.9	4.7	4.3
Tanzania	4.9	6.0	7.2	6.9	7.8	8.2	4.7	8.5	5.6	5.4	6.4	7.9	5.1	7.3	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.1
Uganda	3.1	5.2	8.7	6.5	6.8	6.3	10.8	8.4	8.7	6.8	5.6	9.4	3.8	3.6	5.1	5.2	4.7	4.0
Zimbabwe	-3.1	1.4	-8.9	-17.0	-5.8	-5.7	-3.5	-3.7	-17.7	12.0	12.6	15.4	14.8	5.5	2.1	1.7	0.6	3.4
Zambia	3.9	5.3	4.5	6.9	7.0	7.2	7.9	8.4	7.8	9.2	10.3	5.6	7.6	5.1	4.7	2.9	3.8	4.1

Source: World Bank (2018).

Notes: DRC= Democratic Republic of Congo. Djibouti, Eritrea and South Sudan were not included due to incomplete data.

Table A-5: Sectoral composition of GDP (%)

Sectors	Angola		Botswana		Burundi		Comoros	
	2012	2016	2011	2016	2011	2017	2011	2017
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	6.5	12.2	2.8	2.2	41.0	42.0	41.6	42.7
Mining and quarrying	47.0	30.5	25.9	19.9	0.4	0.4	1.9	1.9
Manufacturing	6.6	4.8	6.4	5.6	11.2	11.1	5.6	9.6
Electricity, gas and water	0.5	0.9	-0.1	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6
Construction	7.8	12.2	6.6	7.0	4.3	3.1	0.5	0.3
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	9.0	8.4	16.5	21.6	16.1	11.2	12.8	8.9
Transport, storage and communication	4.3	5.1	5.4	6.5	3.6	4.7	7.8	8.9
Finance, real estate and business services	2.4	6.5	14.7	15.3	4.3	5.9	20.3	20.5
Public administration and defence, security	8.1	11.4	15.6	15.2	6.3	7.4	9.0	6.5
Other services*	7.8	8.7	6.2	6.0	12.1	13.5	-	-

Sectors	DRC		Djibouti		Egypt		Eritrea	
	2011	2017	2011	2016	2010/2011	2016/2017	2011	2015
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	22.2	21.0	3.6	3.3	14.5	11.7	17.0	17.2
Mining and quarrying	21.4	18.3	0.3	0.3	14.9	9.6	-	-
Manufacturing	16.3	20.8	2.7	2.7	16.5	16.7	6.1	6.0
Electricity, gas and water	1.0	1.0	5.0	5.2	1.6	2.3	1.8	1.8
Construction	4.7	3.8	11.0	11.1	4.6	5.7	16.2	15.7
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	10.7	12.8	23.6	22.6	14.7	15.8	19.1	19.2
Transport, storage and communication	10.6	9.1	28.2	28.4	9.4	9.1	12.2	12.3
Finance, real estate and business services	6.7	7.3	7.4	8.6	9.7	15.2	27.6	27.8
Public administration and defence, security	6.3	5.8	17.4	17.3	10.2	8.9	-	-
Other services*	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.8	3.9	5.1	-	-

Sectors	Ethiopia		Kenya		Lesotho		Libya	
	2011/2012	2016/2017	2011	2017	2011	2016	2012	2008
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	44.7	36.3	29.3	31.5	5.7	5.8	0.4	0.8
Mining and quarrying	1.4	0.3	1.0	0.8	9.1	9.2	68.5	72.8
Manufacturing	4.0	6.4	13.1	8.4	13.3	17.4	4.2	4.2
Electricity, gas and water	1.0	0.8	2.1	2.5	6.0	5.5	1.6	1.0
Construction	4.0	18.2	4.9	5.8	6.4	4.8	1.7	4.5
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	18.5	15.7	10.5	8.4	13.4	12.7	4.3	4.1
Transport, storage and communication	4.2	4.9	9.8	9.1	6.1	6.1	0.6	0.8
Finance, real estate and business services	11.1	7.9	15.2	14.9	13.6	14.4	0.6	0.5
Public administration and defence, security	5.4	4.9	4.7	4.3	13.1	11.9	13.3	7.3
Other services*	5.7	5.9	9.4	14.3	13.4	12.3	4.8	4.0

Sectors	Madagascar		Malawi		Mauritius		Mozambique	
	2011	2016	2011	2017	2011	2017	2011	2016
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	29.6	34.6	31.2	30.2	4.2	3.5	28.6	24.9
Mining and quarrying	2.3	1.7	1.1	0.9	0.4	0.2	2.4	6.9
Manufacturing	12.5	4.6	10.9	10.1	15.7	13.3	11.2	9.6
Electricity, gas and water	-	-	1.5	1.3	1.9	2.7	3.4	3.0
Construction	6.0	1.7	3.2	3.0	6.5	4.3	2.3	2.3
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	15.9	16.3	19.9	19.3	18.2	19.1	14.2	15.0
Transport, storage and communication	10.3	13.1	6.5	7.6	10.9	10.5	12.6	10.7
Finance, real estate and business services	6.5	11.2	13.5	14.1	24.3	25.7	9.9	8.6
Public administration and defence, security	4.8	4.7	3.4	2.2	5.6	6.4	5.5	7.1
Other services*	12.3	12.2	8.7	11.3	12.3	14.3	10.0	11.8

Sectors	Namibia		Rwanda		Seychelles		South Africa	
	2011	2017	2011	2017	2011	2017	2011	2017
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	8.9	7.5	30.1	33.3	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.6
Mining and quarrying	9.4	13.1	2.8	2.5	-	-	9.6	8.0
Manufacturing	14.8	11.7	6.5	6.4	9.4	7.4	13.3	13.2
Electricity, gas and water	2.2	2.8	1.5	1.8	0.6	3.7	3.2	3.7
Construction	3.8	3.1	7.2	6.3	7.6	3.1	3.8	3.9
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	14.3	15.0	10.6	9.3	23.5	22.7	14.8	15.0
Transport, storage and communication	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.4	15.7	20.5	9.4	9.9
Finance, real estate and business services	17.1	15.2	22.0	20.2	27.1	26.4	20.8	20.2
Public administration and defence, security	10.5	11.6	4.6	5.0	7.1	8.1	16.5	17.7
Other services*	13.6	14.7	9.0	9.9	6.4	5.6	6.0	5.8

Sectors	Sudan		Swaziland		Tanzania		Uganda	
	2011	2017	2011	2016	2011	2016	2011	2016
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	34.7	32.6	10.3	10.0	32.4	31.5	28.1	25.5
Mining and quarrying	6.2	6.7	0.2	0.1	5.6	5.2	0.9	0.8
Manufacturing	8.9	6.9	33.5	33.2	8.4	5.5	11.5	9.7
Electricity, gas and water	0.9	0.3	1.8	0.8	1.2	1.4	2.7	4.0
Construction	4.8	3.7	3.3	3.4	9.1	15.1	7.8	8.2
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	16.8	17.2	16.0	15.8	13.3	12.7	18.6	16.9
Transport, storage and communication	13.3	14.1	5.1	5.2	8.3	6.8	5.5	5.8
Finance, real estate and business services	8.1	12.5	13.4	13.9	8.5	6.0	12.3	12.8
Public administration and defence, security	5.5	5.3	7.1	8.0	7.0	10.5	3.2	2.5
Other services*	0.8	0.6	9.4	9.5	6.2	5.3	9.4	13.8

Sectors	Zambia		Zimbabwe	
	2011	2017	2011	2016
Agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting	10.2	7.5	11.8	11.1
Mining and quarrying	16.3	15.4	9.7	8.4
Manufacturing	8.0	7.9	12.4	9.7
Electricity, gas and water	2.6	3.3	4.2	2.0
Construction	9.7	10.7	2.8	3.0
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs, hospitality	22.4	21.4	13.4	15.2
Transport, storage and communication	7.7	9.3	12.7	10.4
Finance, real estate and business services	10.1	11.1	8.4	9.6
Public administration and defence, security	3.2	4.1	8.8	11.1
Other services*	9.8	9.3	15.8	19.5

Source: ADB (2018).

Notes: *includes education, health and social work services

DRC= Democratic Republic of Congo

Yellow indicates the sector with the most significant contribution

Red indicates the manufacturing sector

Green indicates finance, real estate and business services

Data for South Sudan not available.

APPENDIX 2: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 3

Table A-6: Characteristics of the stages in the market integration process

Characteristic/Integration form	No internal tariffs between member states	Common external tariffs	Free flow of labour and capital	Harmonisation of economic policies	Unification of political institutions
Free trade area	*				
Customs union	*	*			
Common market	*	*	*		
Economic union	*	*	*	*	
Political union	*	*	*	*	*

Source: Own table developed from Appleyard and Field (2017:388-389); Balassa (2013:2); Hailu (2014:300-301); Hosny (2013:134); Sapir (2011:1202).

APPENDIX 3: ADDITIONAL INFORMATION FOR CHAPTER 5

Table A-7: Intra-trade and extra-trade of regional groupings (%)

(a) COMESA

Imports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-COMESA	5.6	5.8	5.8	6.2	5.6	6.4	6.7	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.2	5.9	5.9	6.3	5.7	5.6	5.2	5.7	6.5
COMESA with the rest of Africa	63.7	62.1	62.2	63.3	66.3	60.8	56.6	59.3	58.1	56.7	56.0	58.5	56.8	54.5	56.6	55.6	59.2	55.9	51.1
COMESA with the rest of the World	30.7	32.2	32.1	30.5	28.2	32.8	36.6	34.9	35.9	37.2	37.8	35.6	37.2	39.2	37.7	38.8	35.6	38.4	42.4

Exports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-COMESA	6.2	6.5	7.2	6.6	5.8	6.3	6.5	6.0	6.5	7.8	7.4	9.0	7.9	9.2	9.7	11.0	10.0	10.5	11.9
COMESA with the rest of Africa	41.1	42.5	43.4	43.9	47.4	37.8	35.7	39.7	35.2	37.0	36.9	42.4	40.1	39.6	43.1	44.3	46.6	41.4	39.7
COMESA with the rest of the World	52.7	51.0	49.3	49.6	46.8	56.0	57.8	54.3	58.3	55.1	55.6	48.5	52.1	51.3	47.1	44.7	43.5	48.1	48.4

(b) EAC

Imports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-EAC	13.9	11.4	10.1	11.2	11.3	10.4	8.0	7.8	8.3	8.6	8.3	7.4	8.2	7.4	7.4	6.7	7.0	7.2	7.7
EAC with the rest of Africa	44.0	47.0	52.9	52.1	53.0	53.2	59.0	55.7	54.4	55.2	54.9	56.8	51.2	49.7	47.8	49.7	52.1	51.4	50.2
EAC with the rest of the World	42.1	41.6	37.0	36.7	35.7	36.4	33.0	36.5	37.4	36.2	36.8	35.8	40.7	42.9	44.8	43.6	40.9	41.5	42.1

Exports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-EAC	17.8	17.3	18.4	18.9	19.4	19.0	16.8	17.9	18.9	18.9	18.6	19.4	21.0	19.7	21.2	22.4	19.8	18.6	18.7
EAC with the rest of Africa	41.9	41.1	43.4	42.2	41.5	47.3	52.2	51.4	53.9	50.7	51.9	52.9	50.3	53.3	46.3	42.7	46.3	50.4	47.9
EAC with the rest of the World	40.3	41.6	38.2	39.0	39.2	33.6	31.0	30.8	27.2	30.4	29.5	27.7	28.7	27.0	32.5	34.9	33.9	31.0	33.3

(c) SADC

Imports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-SADC	20.5	19.8	20.3	20.7	19.2	17.3	16.3	16.3	18.2	19.0	20.2	19.3	20.4	19.5	19.3	20.3	21.3	20.5	20.9
SADC with the rest of Africa	6.3	8.0	9.1	8.4	10.0	11.1	16.4	13.7	13.1	15.8	15.1	14.2	15.1	16.2	18.8	13.4	12.0	11.2	23.2
SADC with the rest of the World	73.3	72.1	70.6	70.9	70.7	71.6	67.4	69.9	68.8	65.2	64.7	66.5	64.5	64.3	61.9	66.3	66.7	68.3	55.9

Exports	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Intra-SADC	12.2	11.6	12.5	12.1	11.9	10.9	10.4	11.2	11.8	13.4	18.0	16.5	18.3	18.7	19.3	21.9	20.9	19.6	17.9
SADC with the rest of Africa	15.4	21.3	23.9	20.4	19.8	20.7	21.5	20.9	20.0	21.6	13.6	13.0	11.7	11.0	11.5	12.2	11.5	12.7	11.2
SADC with the rest of the World	72.4	67.1	63.6	67.5	68.3	68.4	68.1	68.0	68.2	65.0	68.5	70.5	70.0	70.3	69.2	65.9	67.5	67.6	70.9

Source: UNCTADstat (2019).

Notes: EAC= East African Community

SADC= Southern African Development Community

COMESA= Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa.

Table A-8: Top 5 products traded by each member state

Angola		Years													
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	*	11th	*	13th	1st	2nd	2nd	6th	4th	6th	13th	3rd	3rd	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd
HS89	LS & TI	*	*	*	*	6th	9th	3rd	5th	1st	*	*	11th	*	3rd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	4th	3rd	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th
HS02	NFPC	6th	5th	6th	5th	10th	6th	7th	7th	7th	7th	6th	6th	6th	5th
Exports															
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	4th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3rd	3rd	4th
HS44	Mostly RI; few NFPC	10th	14th	14th	5th	5th	5th	-	-	4th	5th	4th	8th	4th	5th
HS03	NFPC	4th	2nd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	6th	6th	6th

Note: For exports, HS89 ranked 2nd in 2018.

Botswana		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	12th	*	*	*	*	8th	6th	4th	4th	2nd	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	4th	4th	6th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th
Exports																			
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	11th	7th	6th	10th	9th	10th	8th	9th	8th	8th	8th	5th	6th	5th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
HS02	NFPC	3rd	4th	4th	5th	6th	4th	6th	6th	3rd	3rd	9th	6th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	7th	5th	7th	6th	7th	8th	9th	7th	9th	10th	6th	7th	5th	6th	5th	5th	4th	4th
HS28	Mostly HS & TI; few NFPC	5th	8th	*	8th	8th	9th	13th	15th	10th	7th	10th	9th	9th	9th	8th	7th	5th	5th

Burundi		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	2nd	5th	*	1st	8th	11th	14th	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS30	HS & TI	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	6th	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	7th	5th	2nd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	6th	6th	5th	2nd	5th	3rd	2nd	3rd
HS72	Mostly LS & TI; few NFPC	9th	8th	8th	7th	2nd	11th	4th	7th	10th	6th	9th	9th	7th	7th	6th	7th	5th	4th
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	5th	6th	4th	4th	7th	7th	1st	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	5th	4th	5th	9th	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	3rd	5th	8th	7th	8th	8th	10th	4th	6th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	13th	12th	8th	8th	3rd
HS22	Mostly NFPC; few HS & TI	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	17th	18th	7th	12th	7th	10th	8th	8th	5th	4th	4th	5th	6th
HS24	NFPC	6th	6th	5th	5th	7th	13th	17th	9th	13th	10th	12th	9th	5th	9th	6th	5th	6th	7th

Note: For exports, HS11 ranked 4th and HS27 ranked 5th in 2018.

Democratic Republic of Congo		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	4th	5th	4th	3rd	5th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	4th	5th	3rd
HS30	HS & TI	9th	7th	4th	6th	8th	9th	8th	14th	6th	7th	7th	9th	8th	8th	3rd	3rd	2nd	4th
HS73	LS & TI	*	*	16th	14th	5th	11th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	6th	6th	6th	7th	5th
Exports																			
HS74	Mostly NFPC; some LS & TI	6th	6th	11th	14th	6th	6th	6th	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS81	Some NFPC; some LS & TI	4th	4th	4th	3rd	5th	5th	4th	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	4th	5th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	6th	4th
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	5th	5th

Egypt		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	5th	6th	5th	3rd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	4th	4th	5th	6th	5th	5th	4th	4th	5th	4th	5th	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	2nd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	12th	12th	9th	9th	7th	7th	8th	6th	5th	3rd	6th	6th	6th	3rd	2nd	3rd	7th	4th
HS10	NFPC	2nd	1st	2nd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	5th	7th	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	5th	4th	5th
Exports																			
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS39	Mostly HS & TI; some MS & TI; few RI	12th	16th	7th	7th	7th	5th	4th	3rd	8th	5th	6th	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	5th	4th	2nd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	4th	9th	9th	4th	5th	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	*	6th	12th	*	*	7th	16th	*	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	8th	8th	7th	2nd	2nd	4th
HS08	NFPC	14th	*	17th	12th	12th	12th	10th	6th	3rd	4th	7th	6th	6th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th

Eswatini		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018			
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st			
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	4th	1st	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd			
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd			
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	6th	6th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th	4th	6th	4th	4th			
HS10	NFPC	11th	8th	9th	10th	10th	10th	4th	7th	7th	7th	7th	8th	5th	7th	5th			
Exports																			
HS33	HS & TI	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st			
HS17	Mostly NFPC; few HS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd			
HS38	Mostly HS & TI; few RI; few mineral fuels	*	*	*	*	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd			
HS62	RI	18th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	10th	4th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th			
HS44	Mostly RI; few NFPC	11th	9th	8th	9th	8th	9th	4th	5th	6th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th			

Ethiopia		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS88	HS & TI	19th	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	17th	*	*	*	*	11th	12th	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	1st	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd
HS72	Mostly LS & TI; few NFPC	6th	6th	6th	6th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th	7th	6th	5th	5th	6th	5th	6th	5th	4th
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	2nd	5th	4th	4th	2nd	3rd	5th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	2nd	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS12	NFPC	4th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd
HS06	NFPC	*	*	13th	15th	11th	7th	6th	4th	4th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd
HS07	NFPC	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	6th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th
HS41	Mostly RI; few NFPC	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th	7th	7th	7th	7th	7th	7th	8th	8th	7th	8th

Note: For exports, HS84 ranked 5th, HS61 ranked 6th and HS02 ranked 7th in 2018.

Kenya		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th
HS72	Mostly LS & TI; few NFPC	8th	7th	6th	5th	7th	7th	7th	6th	6th	7th	5th	8th	5th	7th	7th	6th	6th	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS06	NFPC	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	*	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS07	NFPC	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th
HS62	RI	*	*	*	*	5th	5th	5th	7th	13th	18th	15th	16th	11th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th

Note: For exports, HS08 ranked 5th in 2018.

Lesotho		Years															
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	7th	11th	6th	4th	6th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	7th	3rd	6th	4th	7th	2nd	
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	8th	4th	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	15th	5th	8th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	4th	5th	8th	6th	5th	3rd	5th	4th	
HS60	RI	*	9th	7th	*	*	*	11th	*	7th	9th	7th	3rd	5th	3rd	5th	
Exports																	
HS61	RI	1st	2nd	5th	1st	4th	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	
HS62	RI	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	4th	4th	3rd	1st	3rd	1st	3rd	3rd	4th	6th	6th	3rd	3rd	4th	
HS51	Mostly RI; few NFPC	6th	11th	18th	8th	6th	8th	6th	9th	5th	9th	5th	5th	4th	4th	5th	
HS52	Mostly RI; few NFPC	7th	5th	11th	7th	7th	5th	7th	6th	7th	8th	7th	7th	5th	5th	6th	

Note: For exports, HS71 ranked 1st in 2018.

Madagascar		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS10	NFPC	5th	12th	6th	10th	5th	10th	7th	7th	13th	9th	5th	5th	3rd	4th	8th	10th	4th	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	5th	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	4th
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	4th	3rd	4th	6th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	4th	7th	5th	3rd	4th	5th	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	1st	1st	1st	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	6th	1st	1st	4th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st
HS62	RI	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS61	RI	3rd	4th	4th	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	4th	5th
HS03	NFPC	4th	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	5th	6th	6th	5th	6th	5th	6th	7th
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	5th	5th	7th	7th	5th	5th	6th	5th	5th	7th	6th	5th	7th	8th	8th	8th	9th	10th

Note: For exports, HS75 ranked 2nd, HS81 ranked 4th, HS71 ranked 6th, HS26 ranked 8th and HS33 ranked 9th in 2018.

Malawi		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	4th	4th	2nd	2nd
HS49	Unclassified products	9th	8th	13th	10th	10th	9th	7th	5th	8th	7th	12th	13th	12th	10th	10th	7th	4th	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	5th	1st	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	4th
HS31	Some NFPC; some HS & TI	*	5th	4th	4th	2nd	4th	2nd	1st	4th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	2nd	6th	7th	5th
Exports																			
HS24	NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS09	NFPC	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
HS12	NFPC	18th	16th	8th	7th	7th	7th	5th	5th	4th	9th	7th	5th	5th	5th	12th	7th	4th	3rd
HS07	NFPC	9th	8th	11th	10th	13th	13th	9th	7th	5th	5th	8th	7th	6th	6th	4th	6th	6th	4th
HS17	Mostly NFPC; few HS & TI	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	6th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	5th	5th

Mauritius		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	5th	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	1st	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	6th	5th	5th	5th	7th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th
HS03	NFPC	8th	4th	6th	6th	6th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th
Exports																			
HS62	RI	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st
HS61	RI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd
HS16	NFPC	5th	6th	6th	5th	6th	6th	4th	5th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS03	NFPC	*	5th	5th	9th	8th	8th	8th	8th	6th	6th	6th	6th	6th	7th	7th	5th	5th	4th
HS17	Mostly NFPC; few HS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	5th	5th	4th	4th	5th

Mozambique		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	7th	3rd	2nd	1st	5th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	5th	5th	6th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	6th	3rd
HS76	Some NFPC; some LS & TI	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	3rd	3rd	6th	5th	6th	9th	2nd	4th
HS10	NFPC	2nd	4th	6th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th	8th	7th	6th	8th	5th	4th	5th
Exports																			
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st
HS76	Some NFPC; some LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	*	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	*	*	*	*	*	*	20th	9th	7th	12th	5th	3rd	6th	5th	4th	5th	4th	3rd
HS24	NFPC	9th	5th	6th	4th	5th	3rd	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th
HS03	NFPC	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	5th	5th	5th	12th	15th	15th	11th	11th	10th	9th	7th

Note: For exports, HS71 ranked 5th and HS17 ranked 6th in 2018.

Namibia		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS74	Mostly NFPC; some LS & TI	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	11th	16th	10th	8th	8th	7th	7th	1st
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	3rd	2nd	3rd	6th	10th	6th	3rd	1st	4th	3rd	3rd	1st	2nd	4th	1st	1st	1st	2nd
HS89	LS & TI	11th	6th	*	*	9th	*	6th	*	*	*	*	7th	4th	1st	7th	5th	*	3rd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	5th
Exports																			
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS74	Mostly NFPC; some LS & TI	16th	*	*	9th	9th	6th	6th	6th	6th	6th	5th	7th	9th	5th	2nd	4th	4th	2nd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	4th	3rd	6th	12th	*	5th	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	3rd	4th
HS03	NFPC	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	5th
HS79	Mostly NFPC; few LS & TI	*	*	12th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	5th	5th	5th	6th	4th	6th	6th	5th	6th	5th	7th

Note: For exports, HS89 ranked 3rd and HS01 ranked 6th in 2018.

Rwanda		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	15th	10th	10th	8th	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	4th	8th	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	4th	3rd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	6th	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	3rd	5th	1st	3rd	4th	1st	6th	4th	4th	4th	4th
HS10	NFPC	5th	15th	19th	14th	*	15th	15th	20th	11th	8th	8th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	2nd	-	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	12th	17th	*	14th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	4th	4th
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	5th	6th	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	8th	10th	9th	10th	11th	11th
HS41	Mostly RI; few NFPC	8th	4th	4th	4th	6th	5th	5th	8th	13th	6th	6th	7th	6th	8th	11th	9th	13th	15th

Note: For exports, HS71 ranked 1st, HS15 ranked 5th, HS11 ranked 6th, HS10 ranked 7th, HS07 ranked 8th, HS23 ranked 9th, HS63 ranked 10th, HS85 ranked 12th, HS25 ranked 13th and HS72 ranked 14th in 2018.

Seychelles		Years																
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
HS27	Most mineral fuels; few NFPC	*	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	
HS03	NFPC	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	
HS89	LS & TI	11th	3rd	*	*	2nd	7th	2nd	9th	2nd	8th	8th	5th	5th	1st	4th	3rd	
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th	6th	5th	6th	7th	4th	7th	7th	5th	
Exports																		
HS16	NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	*	2nd	2nd	-	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	
HS03	NFPC	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	6th	6th	3rd	4th	7th	4th	4th	4th	
HS88	HS & TI	6th	7th	6th	-	19th	*	6th	4th	5th	5th	10th	7th	6th	10th	3rd	5th	
HS23	NFPC	3rd	3rd	5th	4th	6th	5th	8th	7th	7th	4th	4th	3rd	5th	7th	6th	7th	

Note: For exports, HS89 ranked 2nd and HS15 ranked 6th in 2018.

South Africa		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd
HS85	Mostly Ms & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS99	Unclassified products	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	5th	4th
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	5th	4th	5th
Exports																			
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	5th	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	6th	6th	6th	6th	6th	6th	6th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	5th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th	3rd	5th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th
HS72	Mostly LS & TI; few NFPC	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	5th	6th	6th	5th	6th	5th	5th	5th

Tanzania		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	4th	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	4th	4th	4th
HS39	Mostly HS & TI; some MS & TI; few RI	8th	6th	6th	6th	5th	7th	7th	6th	5th	5th	6th	6th	7th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th
Exports																			
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS24	NFPC	7th	5th	7th	7th	3rd	5th	5th	4th	6th	6th	6th	4th	7th	5th	6th	2nd	3rd	2nd
HS09	NFPC	2nd	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	8th	10th	5th	4th	3rd
HS03	NFPC	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	7th	6th	9th	9th	10th	5th	4th
HS08	NFPC	4th	6th	6th	6th	7th	7th	16th	9th	7th	7th	5th	5th	4th	3rd	8th	3rd	2nd	5th

Uganda		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2017
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	3rd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	4th	4th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	4th	4th
HS39	Mostly HS & TI; some MS & TI; few RI	9th	12th	9th	9th	7th	8th	8th	8th	9th	9th	8th	9th	7th	7th	6th	6th	5th	5th
Exports																			
HS09	NFPC	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	13th	*	17th	*	*	*	*	19th	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS10	NFPC	8th	10th	9th	9th	10th	10th	18th	20th	14th	11th	16th	8th	8th	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd
HS03	NFPC	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	5th	4th
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	6th	5th	4th	5th	4th	5th	7th	8th	2nd	4th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	5th

Zambia		Years																	
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	1st	1st	1st	2nd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	*	*	*	*	*	*	7th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	6th	4th
HS85	Mostly MS & TI; some HS & TI; few LS & TI	4th	3rd	2nd	5th	5th	4th	4th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	4th	7th	5th
Exports																			
HS74	Mostly NFPC; some LS & TI	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS28	Mostly HS & TI; few NFPC	20th	17th	*	*	*	*	*	14th	12th	9th	9th	5th	2nd	2nd	9th	12th	2nd	2nd
HS25	Mostly NFPC; few RI	11th	10th	11th	13th	18th	13th	18th	11th	7th	6th	11th	11th	4th	7th	7th	4th	3rd	4th
HS17	Mostly NFPC; few HS & TI	5th	5th	5th	7th	5th	6th	4th	6th	3rd	4th	6th	7th	9th	4th	4th	6th	4th	6th
HS81	Some NFPC; Some LS & TI	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	11th	8th	10th	8th	5th	7th

Note: For exports, HS49 ranked 3rd and HS84 ranked 5th in 2018.

Zimbabwe		Years																
Imports	Factor intensity (skill and technology intensity)	2001	2002	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS27	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	1st	3rd	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
HS87	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	3rd	2nd	4th	5th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd
HS84	Mostly MS & TI; few LS & TI	2nd	1st	2nd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd
HS31	Mostly mineral fuels; few NFPC	15th	*	*	12th	8th	7th	5th	11th	8th	6th	6th	2nd	6th	8th	12th	6th	4th
HS10	NFPC	*	12th	3rd	10th	6th	5th	4th	5th	5th	1st	4th	6th	5th	4th	2nd	5th	5th
Exports																		
HS71	Mostly NFPC; few RI	*	1st	9th	1st	8th	9th	20th	6th	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st
HS24	NFPC	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	5th	4th	5th	3rd	3rd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd
HS75	Mostly NFPC; few LS & TI	2nd	4th	5th	7th	6th	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	12th	11th	7th	4th	3rd
HS26	Mostly NFPC; few mineral fuels	7th	7th	4th	4th	9th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th
HS72	Mostly LS & TI; few NFPC	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	1st	10th	10th	6th	7th	6th	5th	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th

Source: Trade Map (2019).

Notes: * indicates product is outside the top 20

- no recorded trade of product

LS & TI = Low skill and technology intensive manufactures

MS & TI = Medium skill and technology intensive manufactures

HS & TI = High skill and technology intensive manufactures

RI = Resource intensive manufactures

NFPC = Non-fuel primary commodities

Insufficient data for Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Libya, South Sudan and Sudan.

Table A-9: Top 5 trading partners of each member state

Export destinations for Angola's products														
Years														
Country	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	14th	5th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
India	*	*	*	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
USA	2nd	10th	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	5th	7th	3rd	6th	3rd
Spain	8th	4th	8th	11th	9th	8th	10th	8th	7th	3rd	3rd	7th	7th	4th
South Africa	10th	8th	14th	7th	6th	7th	7th	6th	8th	8th	6th	4th	4th	5th
Import Sources for Angola														
Years														
Country	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	7th	6th	5th	5th	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	1st	3rd	2nd	1st
Portugal	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd
Singapore	*	19th	18th	*	19th	*	13th	4th	5th	3rd	9th	9th	9th	3rd
Belgium	6th	4th	6th	8th	10th	9th	10th	8th	10th	10th	7th	6th	6th	4th
Togo	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	10th	5th

Export destinations for Botswana's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Belgium	18th	11th	*	11th	11th	7th	8th	7th	6th	6th	6th	5th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
India	*	*	*	*	18th	*	*	13th	19th	12th	9th	10th	6th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	-	*	*	*	17th	*	*	*	*	20th	15th	15th	11th	6th	7th	5th	3rd	3rd
South Africa	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	4th
Singapore	*	*	*	*	15th	20th	*	*	*	*	*	*	12th	7th	10th	7th	5th	5th

Import Sources for Botswana																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Canada	*	17th	10th	14th	11th	17th	*	19th	*	*	*	*	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd
Namibia	13th	13th	13th	13th	10th	9th	11th	11th	13th	6th	8th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd
India	14th	14th	14th	11th	8th	8th	10th	9th	11th	8th	6th	7th	9th	8th	11th	4th	4th	4th
Belgium	17th	*	*	8th	*	7th	3rd	4th	8th	7th	7th	8th	4th	4th	5th	5th	8th	5th

Export destinations for Burundi's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
United Arab Emirates	*	*	*	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	4th	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	1st	1st
DRC	12th	7th	14th	16th	12th	12th	3rd	5th	6th	6th	6th	*	4th	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd
Pakistan	-	-	-	*	*	3rd	*	*	*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3rd	3rd
Belgium	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	5th	6th	7th	3rd	8th	3rd	3rd	*	8th	7th	7th	6th	6th	4th
Switzerland	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	12th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	5th

Import Sources for Burundi																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Saudi Arabia	2nd	12th	18th	*	*	*	1st	*	18th	*	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	5th	10th	3rd	1st
China	7th	5th	16th	9th	8th	8th	6th	5th	2nd	2nd	5th	4th	3rd	3rd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	9th	9th	10th	12th	13th	9th	9th	10th	8th	10th	11th	12th	8th	10th	8th	6th	5th	3rd
India	8th	7th	8th	8th	9th	11th	8th	7th	5th	8th	9th	5th	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	4th
Tanzania	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	7th	19th	11th	8th	9th	9th	2nd	6th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	5th

Export destinations for Democratic Republic of Congo's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	9th	8th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Zambia	*	18th	10th	9th	8th	7th	7th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
United Arab Emirates					*		*	*				5th	5th	5th	7th	9th	10th	3rd
South Korea	16th	*	19th	*	*	*	20th	*	10th	7th	7th	6th	7th	7th	4th	4th	3rd	4th
Saudi Arabia	*	-	-	*	*	*		*	14th	5th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th
Import Sources for Democratic Republic of Congo																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	14th	11th	13th	10th	12th	10th	10th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
South Africa	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
Zambia	4th	6th	6th	4th	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
Belgium	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th
Rwanda	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	15th	*	*	20th	13th	15th	14th	9th	8th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Egypt's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Italy	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	1st	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	2nd	1st
Turkey	14th	14th	10th	7th	9th	9th	8th	11th	12th	7th	5th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	16th	12th	13th	17th	10th	11th	18th	16th	15th	12th	11th	13th	10th	7th	5th	1st	1st	3rd
USA	2nd	4th	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	5th	1st	4th	4th	3rd	6th	5th	4th	6th	5th	4th
Saudi Arabia	9th	8th	7th	8th	7th	10th	11th	6th	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	1st	2nd	4th	5th

Import Sources for Egypt																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	7th	5th	5th	4th	5th	4th	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Saudi Arabia	4th	11th	13th	7th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	6th	5th	8th	9th	6th	9th	7th	6th	4th	2nd
USA	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd
Russia	11th	8th	7th	10th	8th	8th	6th	6th	8th	9th	7th	4th	12th	7th	4th	7th	6th	4th
Germany	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	6th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	5th

Export destinations for Eswatini's products																
Years																
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
South Africa	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
Kenya	-	-	8th	15th	*	10th	*	6th	6th	7th	4th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	
Nigeria	5th	*	-	-	-	-	-	4th	*	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	
Mozambique	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	
Tanzania	*	*	*	-	-	*	*	8th	12th	11th	8th	7th	6th	5th	5th	
Import Sources for Eswatini																
Years																
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
China	20th	7th	4th	5th	2nd	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	
India	*	*	*	6th	*	9th	7th	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	
Japan	5th	3rd	7th	9th	11th	3rd	3rd	13th	*	*	*	*	7th	6th	4th	
Mozambique	9th	18th	3rd	7th	3rd	8th	6th	9th	7th	8th	20th	*	*	20th	5th	

Export destinations for Ethiopia's products																	
Years																	
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
China	19th	18th	20th	16th	2nd	2nd	8th	6th	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st
Somalia	10th	14th	6th	12th	4th	7th	7th	8th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
USA	6th	7th	7th	6th	9th	9th	2nd	4th	8th	9th	9th	8th	7th	6th	5th	5th	3rd
Saudi Arabia	3rd	5th	4th	4th	5th	5th	3rd	2nd	5th	6th	6th	4th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	4th
Germany	5th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	4th	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	6th	5th
Import Sources for Ethiopia																	
Years																	
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
China	4th	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
USA	2nd	3rd	1st	3rd	3rd	9th	6th	6th	4th	5th	4th	8th	5th	5th	3rd	2nd	2nd
India	7th	7th	5th	5th	6th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd
Japan	9th	5th	4th	4th	8th	6th	5th	7th	6th	6th	6th	7th	4th	6th	5th	5th	4th
Italy	3rd	2nd	3rd	6th	5th	3rd	3rd	5th	5th	7th	7th	6th	7th	7th	8th	4th	5th

Export destinations for Kenya's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Uganda	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st
Pakistan	4th	11th	5th	6th	6th	6th	6th	8th	6th	9th	8th	7th	7th	6th	5th	4th	1st	2nd
USA	8th	16th	15th	14th	5th	3rd	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd
Netherlands	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	4th	4th
United Kingdom	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	5th	5th	5th

Import Sources for Kenya																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	12th	13th	12th	-	8th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	1st	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st
India	7th	8th	7th	-	6th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
Saudi Arabia	5th	7th	3rd	-	4th	7th	10th	9th	8th	8th	6th	4th	9th	7th	7th	5th	4th	3rd
United Arab Emirates	1st	1st	1st	-	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th
Japan	6th	6th	6th	-	7th	5th	5th	5th	6th	5th	5th	6th	4th	5th	5th	4th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Lesotho's products														
Years														
Country	2001	2002	2003	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
South Africa	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	3rd	2nd	1st	1st
USA	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd
Eswatini	8th	-	-	-	14th	13th	7th	6th	6th	4th	5th	6th	3rd	3rd
Germany	20th	11th	12th	-	-	*	18th	8th	16th	*	-	7th	5th	4th
Canada	4th	3rd	3rd	-	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	6th	7th	5th	4th	5th

Import Sources for Lesotho														
Years														
Country	2001	2002	2003	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
China	3rd	4th	4th	6th	7th	7th	4th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd
Taiwan	2nd	2nd	3rd	-	-	-	2nd	6th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd
India	*	15th	6th	5th	9th	11th	6th	2nd	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th
Japan	8th	10th	12th	2nd	2nd	2nd	8th	17th	9th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Madagascar's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
USA	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	6th	8th	7th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st
France	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd
Germany	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	2nd	4th	3rd	5th	8th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd
Japan	8th	5th	10th	10th	8th	14th	18th	18th	19th	*	*	*	6th	5th	7th	5th	6th	4th
Netherlands	7th	13th	11th	12th	12th	11th	10th	9th	13th	16th	15th	12th	4th	3rd	3rd	6th	5th	5th
Import Sources for Madagascar																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	3rd	5th	2nd	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st
United Arab Emirates	4th	2nd	14th	*	19th	*	*	12th	16th	11th	1st	1st	1st	1st	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd
France	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	4th	3rd
India	14th	6th	6th	7th	5th	8th	8th	7th	7th	14th	6th	7th	5th	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	4th
South Africa	6th	4th	3rd	5th	6th	4th	4th	4th	6th	3rd	4th	6th	6th	6th	7th	6th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Malawi's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Belgium	17th	12th	10th	11th	16th	6th	3rd	1st	1st	1st	5th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
South Africa	5th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	6th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	2nd
Zambia	15th	*	15th	15th	15th	11th	14th	18th	17th	11th	14th	18th	12th	10th	16th	14th	12th	3rd
USA	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	6th	5th	8th	5th	6th	8th	4th	8th	10th	4th	8th	4th
Egypt	2nd	5th	8th	7th	9th	5th	12th	12th	3rd	3rd	8th	6th	*	7th	6th	13th	5th	5th

Import Sources for Malawi																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
China	8th	14th	9th	9th	7th	10th	9th	8th	3rd	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd
India	4th	6th	5th	3rd	5th	5th	6th	6th	4th	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd
United Arab Emirates	13th	10th	16th	11th	11th	3rd	3rd	5th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	3rd	4th	4th	4th
United Kingdom	2nd	4th	4th	4th	6th	4th	5th	7th	5th	6th	7th	8th	11th	9th	6th	6th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Mauritius' products																		
Years																		
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
France	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	3rd	1st	1st	1st
USA	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd
United Kingdom	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd
South Africa	12th	11th	11th	12th	11th	10th	10th	7th	6th	7th	5th	4th	5th	5th	5th	4th	4th	4th
Madagascar	4th	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	5th	5th	4th	6th	7th	6th	6th	7th	6th	5th	6th	5th
Import Sources for Mauritius																		
Years																		
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
India	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st
China	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	1st	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd
France	2nd	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	1st	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th
United Arab Emirates	18th	12th	*	13th	9th	8th	19th	*	*	*	19th	15th	15th	12th	16th	16th	10th	5th

Export destinations for Mozambique's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
India	11th	13th	12th	8th	8th	7th	10th	8th	6th	7th	9th	5th	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	1st	1st
South Africa	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd
Netherlands	8th	16th	*	1st	1st	11th	13th	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd
China	17th	11th	11th	9th	6th	6th	4th	5th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	5th	6th	7th	4th	5th	4th
Singapore	18th	14th	*	*	*	*	*	*	13th	14th	*	15th	15th	3rd	4th	5th	7th	5th
Import Sources for Mozambique																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
China	7th	7th	6th	6th	7th	8th	6th	5th	4th	5th	4th	6th	3rd	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	*	19th	17th	12th	10th	5th	7th	10th	9th	15th	3rd	3rd	2nd	5th	6th	4th	2nd	3rd
India	6th	5th	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	4th	6th	3rd	3rd	5th	10th	8th	7th	7th	5th	5th	4th
Netherlands	19th	18th	19th	*	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	7th	4th	3rd	8th	4th	5th

Export destinations for Namibia's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	12th	*	19th	11th	10th	14th	7th	6th	5th	10th	11th	11th	11th	9th	7th	7th	4th	1st
South Africa	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd
Belgium	11th	13th	16th	*	*	*	20th	15th	17th	12th	5th	4th	9th	16th	15th	8th	5th	3rd
Botswana	13th	15th	13th	15th	*	*	17th	19th	18th	19th	17th	5th	2nd	1st	1st	3rd	2nd	4th
United Kingdom	1st	2nd	4th	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	12th	18th	14th	17th	19th	5th

Import sources for Namibia																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Zambia	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	18th	12th	6th	4th	7th	6th	16th	6th	3rd	5th	2nd
China	4th	9th	4th	4th	4th	2nd	3rd	5th	2nd	3rd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	4th	4th	3rd
Bahamas	-	-	-	-	*	*	-	-	-	*	*	*	-	4th	5th	6th	*	4th
Botswana	*	*	*	17th	19th	17th	19th	17th	16th	20th	13th	6th	5th	8th	4th	2nd	3rd	5th

Export destinations for Rwanda's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
DRC	13th	9th	5th	8th	6th	9th	6th	3rd	6th	5th	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st
United Arab Emirates	*	*	*	18th	*	*	18th	19th	17th	19th	17th	20th	6th	9th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd
Switzerland	5th	2nd	7th	5th	5th	5th	5th	6th	7th	1st	1st	7th	*	6th	3rd	2nd	3rd	3rd
Uganda	6th	6th	2nd	1st	11th	11th	11th	11th	9th	10th	12th	4th	3rd	3rd	12th	9th	4th	4th
Pakistan	18th	10th	11th	13th	12th	*	*	*	*	-	*	-	*	*	-	*	5th	5th
Import Sources for Rwanda																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	13th	10th	11th	10th	9th	6th	5th	3rd	3rd	1st	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
United Arab Emirates	6th	8th	8th	6th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	7th	6th	5th	6th	5th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd
India	12th	12th	9th	11th	8th	7th	10th	10th	6th	4th	4th	4th	5th	4th	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd
Uganda	16th	11th	5th	4th	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	4th	4th	4th	4th
Kenya	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	5th	5th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Seychelles' products																
Years																
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
United Arab Emirates	*	19th	*	*	*	18th	17th	1st	3rd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
United Kingdom	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd
France	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd
Cayman Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4th
Marshall Island	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5th
Import sources for Seychelles																
Years																
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
United Arab Emirates	14th	12th	10th	10th	9th	8th	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st
France	2nd	2nd	4th	2nd	5th	3rd	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd
Spain	4th	4th	5th	3rd	3rd	4th	8th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	5th	2nd	3rd
United Kingdom	7th	8th	7th	7th	8th	7th	7th	6th	6th	8th	9th	7th	7th	8th	6th	4th
South Africa	6th	3rd	2nd	4th	7th	5th	6th	3rd	4th	4th	5th	4th	5th	4th	5th	5th

Export destinations for South Africa's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	17th	18th	8th	11th	9th	6th	5th	5th	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Germany	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	6th	6th	6th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd
USA	1st	2nd	1st	1st	3rd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd
United Kingdom	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	4th	5th	7th	7th	8th	7th	8th	7th	7th	8th	4th
Japan	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	6th	6th	4th	5th

Import sources for South Africa																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	6th	5th	5th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
Germany	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
USA	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
Saudi Arabia	4th	6th	7th	7th	5th	5th	6th	4th	4th	5th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	8th	5th	5th	4th
India	*	*	20th	15th	13th	11th	11th	10th	10th	8th	7th	6th	5th	6th	4th	4th	4th	5th

Export destinations for Tanzania's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	13th	13th	7th	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	2nd	1st
India	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	7th	9th	9th	5th	5th	5th	7th	4th	2nd	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd
Switzerland	*	*	14th	11th	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	3rd	9th	11th	1st	5th	3rd
Belgium	11th	9th	8th	13th	14th	16th	15th	16th	11th	10th	11th	9th	10th	12th	12th	7th	6th	4th
Kenya	7th	6th	4th	4th	6th	6th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	6th	5th	6th	4th	2nd	5th	4th	5th
Import Sources for Tanzania																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	8th	8th	6th	5th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	2nd	2nd	4th	2nd	3rd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st
India	7th	3rd	3rd	2nd	6th	7th	3rd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	6th	1st	1st	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	5th	4th	5th	3rd	5th	2nd	1st	1st	4th	4th	2nd	3rd	4th	3rd	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd
Saudi Arabia	11th	13th	13th	13th	17th	6th	8th	8th	10th	10th	17th	12th	10th	13th	1st	9th	4th	4th
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	5th	4th	5th	6th	5th	4th	5th	5th

Export destinations for Uganda's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Kenya	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
United Arab Emirates	20th	17th	15th	4th	2nd	1st	1st	5th	7th	5th	5th	5th	10th	18th	8th	2nd	2nd	2nd
Sudan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1st	3rd	6th	7th	12th	10th	3rd
Rwanda	8th	11th	7th	9th	8th	12th	6th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	4th	5th	4th
DRC	12th	16th	13th	6th	5th	6th	4th	6th	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	2nd	4th	4th	5th	4th	5th
Import Sources for Uganda																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
China	8th	7th	8th	6th	6th	6th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	1st	1st
India	5th	4th	2nd	4th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd
United Arab Emirates	6th	6th	6th	7th	4th	2nd	2nd	1st	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd
Saudi Arabia	19th	*	19th	20th	18th	11th	17th	11th	7th	7th	8th	7th	13th	8th	7th	5th	6th	4th
Kenya	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	5th

Export destinations for Zambia's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
Switzerland	3rd	3rd	4th	3rd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
China	*	19th	12th	11th	11th	4th	7th	5th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
DRC	4th	5th	5th	5th	4th	6th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd
Singapore	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	16th	16th	14th	5th	3rd	5th	4th	4th
South Africa	2nd	2nd	2nd	1st	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	4th	4th	4th	4th	5th	5th

Import sources for Zambia																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st
DRC	*	*	14th	17th	16th	15th	6th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd
China	4th	6th	5th	7 th	6th	7th	3rd	4th	4th	4th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd
United Arab Emirates	9th	7th	4th	3rd	4th	2nd	2nd	7th	7th	6th	6th	9th	10th	6th	11th	7th	5th	4th
India	6th	4th	6th	6th	7th	6th	4th	5th	6th	5th	5th	5th	5th	5th	7th	6th	6th	5th

Export destinations for Zimbabwe's products																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
South Africa	3rd	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
United Arab Emirates	*	*	*	18th	17th	19th	19th	14th	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	2nd	
Mozambique	*	11th	18th	8th	5th	2nd	8th	4th	5th	4th	3rd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	3rd	
Zambia	*	3rd	6th	4th	1st	7th	5th	5th	7th	5th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	4th	
Belgium	19th	*	*	10th	14th	16th	10th	6th	8th	6th	7th	8th	3rd	6th	5th	5th	5th	
Import sources for Zimbabwe																		
Years																		
Country	2001	2002	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
South Africa	1st	1st	1st	2nd	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	1st	
Singapore	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	19th	19th	13th	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	2nd	
China	10th	9th	5th	7th	5th	3rd	3rd	5th	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	3rd	
United Kingdom	4th	3rd	3rd	10th	7th	9th	6th	8th	7th	7th	2nd	2nd	4th	8th	8th	7th	4th	
Japan	8th	5th	12th	13th	14th	13th	13th	12th	18th	15th	10th	9th	6th	7th	7th	5th	5th	

Source: Own calculations from Trade Map (2019).

Notes: * indicates country is outside the top 20

- Indicates no recorded trade between countries

Insufficient data for Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Libya, South Sudan and Sudan.

Table A-10: Trade complementarity indexes (%)

Regional bloc	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
EAC-SADC	71.9	79.7	79.3	79.9	80.7	74.0	75.1	73.4	74.6	75.4	73.7	77.6	84.3	83.7	84.3	82.5	79.4	78.9
SADC-EAC	80.6	84.3	80.3	79.9	78.1	76.9	79.5	74.9	77.7	78.9	80.1	78.5	79.1	78.6	83.8	79.8	79.5	80.0
EAC-COMESA	76.4	76.8	76.6	77.4	80.8	75.2	76.5	79.1	78.9	78.4	75.3	80.7	78.6	77.0	79.5	78.7	79.2	78.6
COMESA-EAC	82.3	85.3	82.6	82.4	80.1	78.1	71.0	73.0	75.0	74.2	82.4	74.4	78.9	83.9	90.2	84.6	80.6	78.5
SADC-COMESA	84.4	86.7	86.0	87.3	83.6	81.2	75.7	84.6	72.8	73.7	75.4	75.6	74.2	75.7	76.5	79.4	79.5	79.9
COMESA-SADC	80.8	83.4	79.0	79.5	75.9	75.9	67.0	69.9	74.2	72.7	78.3	71.3	75.3	82.5	84.9	85.3	80.6	78.2

Source: Own calculations from Trade Map (2019)

Notes: Trade complementarity indexes were calculated for the top 5 exports of each regional economic bloc

EAC= East African Community

SADC= Southern African Development Community

COMESA= Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa.

Table A-11: Trade intensity indexes

	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
EAC-SADC*	9.2	14.5	20.9	21.4	24.5	22.3	23.8	33.3	16.4	19.4	18.2	18.3	19.4	18.4	16.5	20.7	20.7	21.0
SADC*-EAC	5.2	13.1	17.1	11.1	7.9	10.4	2.9	7.9	3.5	2.4	2.6	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.6	4.2	3.7
EAC-SA	3.6	6.1	4.4	6.1	10.5	8.5	5.7	6.2	5.5	7.9	12.1	12.3	11.0	9.7	9.6	10.9	11.3	11.9
SA-EAC	15.9	21.3	20.1	22.3	18.7	15.0	13.5	12.4	15.5	11.0	8.3	7.8	8.1	7.3	7.0	8.3	7.9	8.1
EAC-COMESA	22.6	11.4	22.2	19.6	18.4	24.5	26.3	14.8	11.1	11.7	14.4	4.3	3.8	3.7	5.3	6.5	5.2	4.1
COMESA-EAC	4.7	3.3	3.5	3.9	4.6	2.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	2.4	3.3	2.3	2.5	3.5	4.4	6.1	5.2	4.4
SADC-COMESA	1.6	1.4	1.7	1.4	1.0	1.6	1.3	1.4	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6
COMESA-SADC	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.5	0.4	2.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.1	0.8	0.5

Source: Own calculations from Trade Map (2019)

Notes: EAC= East African Community

SADC= Southern African Development Community

SADC*= Excludes South Africa

COMESA= Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa. COMESA excludes members of EAC and SADC.

SA= South Africa.

Table A-12: Revealed comparative advantages

Angola	Years													
HS 2 Digit level	2004	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	3.1	6.4	4.8	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3
HS27	2.1	0.1	2.4	6.9	6.8	6.3	5.5	5.3	5.6	6.1	8.5	9.9	8.4	7.1
HS44	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4
HS71	34.7	45.4	27.6	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
HS84	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
HS 4 Digit level														
HS0302	6.7	0.2	0.0	1.3	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.2	0.2	0.9
HS2710	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.2
HS4407	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	1.3
HS7102	84.8	105.4	78.3	3.7	2.9	2.5	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.7	4.2	4.2	4.0	3.9
HS8411	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.1

Botswana	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS02	3.7	3.8	2.7	2.4	2.7	3.2	3.9	3.0	4.7	5.3	1.3	1.7	2.4	2.1	2.7	2.0	2.1	2.2
HS28	1.3	1.2	0.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.4	1.2	1.9	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.0
HS71	43.8	41.2	40.1	38.3	38.0	36.2	30.1	27.9	24.5	24.0	21.9	19.1	18.3	22.7	21.6	21.2	24.3	26.9
HS84	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
HS85	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0202	11.7	9.5	6.5	7.5	8.9	10.5	14.1	8.0	15.2	13.3	4.7	7.8	8.6	6.2	6.2	5.6	6.5	6.1
HS2836	24.4	21.0	0.5	19.9	14.9	13.2	8.4	9.5	25.4	50.6	24.7	21.2	16.5	15.9	16.7	14.9	18.8	17.6
HS7102	114.5	91.3	95.4	93.2	87.6	101.4	88.2	92.4	92.3	83.6	88.6	107.5	101.9	106.8	106.0	105.8	118.1	127.3
HS7108	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	1.7	1.7	0.6	3.1	2.3	1.3	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4
HS8544	0.0	1.4	1.4	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.5	1.4	1.4	0.8	0.7	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.6

Burundi	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS 2 Digit level																		
HS09	326.2	359.8	217.3	207.5	225.4	91.9	148.9	157.9	168.9	277.6	156.4	125.4	88.2	174.5	156.7	156.9	147.0	153.3
HS22	5.2	7.2	2.6	3.7	2.0	0.5	0.9	2.3	2.0	2.8	2.0	2.0	2.3	6.7	8.6	6.8	7.0	4.9
HS24	5.5	4.9	5.3	4.8	4.1	2.2	2.7	5.1	4.5	5.0	3.0	4.9	8.3	9.6	19.3	16.9	17.4	11.4
HS26	21.7	7.5	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.6	1.4	4.1	1.9	2.2	3.7	5.6	2.5	1.3	1.2	2.9	4.7	7.4
HS71	7.7	6.4	25.8	26.4	24.1	18.2	16.0	18.4	9.7	3.8	8.4	10.2	12.5	4.5	3.1	3.0	6.6	8.0
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0901	453.1	640.3	380.4	350.7	341.6	130.1	192.4	201.2	218.0	370.1	191.4	151.7	93.5	216.0	181.9	192.4	133.5	152.4
HS2203	36.9	48.8	18.4	26.9	14.4	3.1	7.0	15.5	14.8	20.8	16.8	15.7	18.5	53.7	68.8	52.4	54.6	36.5
HS2402	6.0	7.5	6.4	5.4	4.7	2.5	4.4	8.4	7.8	8.6	4.9	8.4	14.3	15.9	32.7	29.1	28.1	18.6
HS2615	866.0	497.7	43.5	25.1	39.6	12.7	113.8	226.4	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	198.0	217.3	203.3	367.4	693.4	821.9
HS7108	40.3	36.6	125.8	128.3	137.8	79.4	67.1	66.0	27.5	11.3	23.1	20.4	22.4	10.1	6.1	5.8	13.6	17.1

Democratic Republic of Congo	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS 2 Digit level																		
HS26	18.7	13.1	15.2	45.5	31.3	35.6	29.0	46.3	36.4	22.8	17.9	16.2	18.7	19.6	18.9	18.5	17.0	17.7
HS27	1.8	1.9	1.5	0.8	1.2	0.6	1.1	0.3	1.2	0.8	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3
HS71	32.7	35.1	33.3	22.8	21.5	16.8	12.3	5.7	2.3	1.1	0.9	1.3	0.9	1.0	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.2
HS74	2.5	1.7	0.5	0.3	2.7	3.6	7.6	15.2	25.6	32.7	34.2	51.8	47.9	55.5	64.1	62.7	39.5	44.7
HS81	38.4	27.7	55.9	102.0	40.4	65.5	81.8	112.6	113.0	99.2	66.0	80.5	84.4	93.4	120.2	140.6	213.1	255.1
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS2603	0.1	0.9	3.5	6.5	23.5	38.2	37.8	75.6	54.2	38.6	44.9	44.4	61.5	55.5	21.9	36.9	36.5	33.5
HS2709	1.8	2.6	1.9	1.2	2.2	1.1	2.0	0.5	2.3	1.3	1.8	1.1	1.5	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.8
HS7102	84.6	77.8	79.3	55.5	49.9	47.3	36.2	19.4	8.8	3.8	3.8	6.9	4.8	3.8	5.8	8.0	6.3	4.9
HS7403	7.0	4.1	1.1	0.1	4.8	3.1	5.5	14.2	38.6	56.8	55.9	90.3	90.9	116.8	135.8	138.0	91.4	100.5
HS8105	161.4	149.7	230.0	347.8	229.4	425.8	397.5	497.7	668.5	527.2	459.3	554.1	577.8	627.8	814.3	953.7	916.8	844.2

Egypt	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS 2 Digit level																		
HS08	3.0	1.7	1.7	3.0	2.4	2.0	3.0	6.1	7.5	7.2	6.7	6.8	6.6	7.0	8.1	7.6	7.2	7.4
HS27	4.1	3.5	4.2	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.9
HS39	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.7	1.8
HS71	0.1	1.4	0.9	0.1	0.1	1.0	0.3	0.0	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.7	2.8	2.2	1.5
HS85	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0805	16.5	7.6	8.4	13.9	11.5	8.8	10.5	23.8	26.5	26.2	27.3	25.7	26.7	25.7	31.2	30.0	31.0	34.2
HS2710	12.4	11.3	14.0	11.5	8.2	6.8	6.4	3.8	2.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.3	2.5	3.5
HS3901	0.7	2.0	5.1	5.6	5.1	4.6	4.1	3.3	2.0	2.1	1.9	2.3	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.5	3.6	4.0
HS7108	0.0	1.4	4.4	0.3	0.4	3.9	1.2	0.1	4.0	4.0	4.2	2.1	1.2	1.4	1.5	5.5	4.5	3.2
HS8544	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	3.6	3.2	4.0	5.0	5.2	5.2	5.8	5.2	4.7	4.3	3.0

Eswatini	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018			
HS 2 Digit level																		
HS17	48.6	29.9	38.0	40.2	58.9	80.9	77.2	71.8	84.7	86.4	79.7	84.0	76.8	71.5	80.8			
HS33	39.2	77.6	55.3	42.8	60.7	44.3	51.5	51.8	43.8	45.7	48.9	44.3	44.7	47.7	41.9			
HS38	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.0	8.8	14.2	21.4	18.7	15.3	16.5	17.8	16.5	13.6	12.5	9.1			
HS44	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3	3.0	2.7	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.9	6.9	7.1	6.9			
HS62	0.5	2.2	3.2	4.2	4.1	3.7	1.6	3.4	4.1	3.7	4.2	4.2	4.9	5.7	6.3			
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS1701	58.3	35.9	50.5	57.7	85.0	115.9	119.5	96.2	118.6	120.8	120.0	124.9	112.1	98.2	141.6			
HS3302	177.1	346.3	229.4	177.9	255.2	199.9	243.8	249.7	210.4	230.3	244.2	221.2	230.0	261.7	253.0			
HS3824	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	34.0	55.3	83.5	64.1	67.0	71.1	79.0	77.4	67.0	61.3	55.3			
HS4407	2.4	2.0	1.0	1.1	3.3	2.9	6.6	7.8	9.0	7.6	8.7	12.5	13.0	13.8	14.9			
HS6204	0.4	1.6	5.1	7.5	6.2	5.7	3.4	3.6	5.4	4.7	5.1	5.1	7.1	8.9	9.6			

Ethiopia	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS06	0.3	0.0	2.2	3.2	10.8	27.4	55.7	66.0	65.1	59.5	61.6	59.7	62.9	57.1	70.1	66.3	65.2	89.8
HS07	18.8	25.3	13.0	17.8	12.9	16.8	25.9	44.9	45.3	47.0	46.1	54.3	59.5	53.5	45.4	45.5	44.8	15.4
HS09	183.0	211.3	207.0	232.0	204.7	222.7	174.3	174.9	95.5	127.5	119.4	125.6	102.9	104.3	100.8	94.5	114.8	130.7
HS12	29.0	29.7	32.8	43.2	73.1	62.3	40.2	40.3	49.9	32.8	31.1	35.0	36.9	42.1	31.4	35.1	27.9	32.8
HS41	49.2	42.2	27.3	35.3	28.0	30.6	32.0	31.0	15.7	14.5	25.9	17.7	20.6	15.6	17.7	15.7	17.6	26.9
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0603	0.6	0.1	0.9	5.4	24.1	42.3	104.7	135.3	136.7	122.8	128.8	124.1	130.6	118.7	148.6	138.9	139.7	192.4
HS0713	106.2	163.7	90.4	133.0	107.3	129.6	185.0	166.0	107.6	113.8	108.7	133.5	166.1	148.7	104.6	110.5	121.2	107.7
HS0901	325.6	377.3	354.6	383.6	302.5	330.4	255.8	253.7	141.7	186.4	163.0	178.6	156.4	155.7	154.8	145.0	178.2	210.0
HS1207	558.6	627.4	772.4	809.4	1379.0	1202.5	790.9	849.7	1111.5	662.1	707.7	764.5	623.1	692.5	521.6	697.0	630.3	563.5
HS4112	-	0.0	0.0	2.2	64.0	72.1	96.9	64.4	65.6	59.1	142.0	348.3	410.6	356.2	402.0	313.2	313.8	372.7

Kenya	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS06	72.3	59.5	55.2	73.1	63.4	79.3	87.0	98.7	75.1	73.8	73.6	73.5	80.2	87.1	77.7	78.2	87.1	89.5
HS07	19.2	14.5	16.0	17.8	17.3	18.9	19.6	17.6	12.6	14.0	12.2	12.8	13.3	11.3	10.1	10.5	8.7	11.1
HS09	177.8	67.3	124.4	119.9	110.6	122.7	110.2	106.6	99.8	109.1	84.8	91.5	102.3	81.7	84.6	83.3	99.0	103.2
HS27	0.0	3.2	1.9	2.0	1.3	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.5
HS62	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	2.8	3.8	3.3	2.7	1.6	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.2	2.7	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.9
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0603	145.0	110.8	104.6	151.5	130.6	137.9	149.1	184.5	158.8	152.5	154.7	155.0	168.8	183.4	166.9	170.2	191.4	203.5
HS0709	48.5	23.8	33.0	30.6	36.6	59.1	62.5	65.0	48.5	40.6	15.6	13.4	13.0	18.5	20.5	12.6	11.9	17.7
HS0902	609.9	255.2	473.8	463.6	471.6	540.8	517.4	540.3	444.3	524.4	512.3	501.0	491.5	424.2	474.7	461.6	538.8	559.9
HS2710	0.0	7.3	7.7	7.8	4.9	1.8	1.0	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6	1.9	2.8	2.3	1.6	1.6
HS6203	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.9	4.9	5.8	3.7	2.2	1.8	1.5	2.8	2.9	3.5	3.7	4.7	5.1	5.7

Lesotho	Years														
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS51	15.0	5.8	1.1	23.0	70.6	33.9	46.9	29.1	68.8	23.8	37.3	78.1	66.2	73.5	42.6
HS52	4.6	8.3	0.9	6.7	16.5	14.3	10.1	11.8	9.5	11.9	6.3	9.3	14.4	14.1	6.5
HS61	20.7	17.3	1.3	32.1	7.1	25.6	16.2	24.4	27.7	15.1	15.8	17.3	29.3	31.3	17.6
HS62	15.2	24.8	49.0	19.6	8.0	19.4	15.3	25.2	22.7	16.2	10.7	11.1	18.5	20.5	12.9
HS85	0.7	0.4	0.2	1.0	3.3	1.3	2.0	1.1	1.0	1.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3
HS 4 Digit level															
HS5101	75.9	25.1	4.8	94.3	316.2	125.2	145.8	81.4	225.7	73.0	132.1	236.7	119.9	97.4	92.8
HS5205	0.0	0.0	0.0	29.6	40.7	22.3	23.6	27.5	25.2	20.3	11.0	14.6	15.0	20.1	15.1
HS6104	25.4	28.8	5.7	47.0	27.6	32.7	33.6	45.6	53.4	24.3	24.2	41.0	65.7	73.1	48.9
HS6203	51.0	25.8	169.2	59.1	21.5	48.6	42.0	74.7	70.0	49.2	36.6	33.9	54.9	56.8	34.1
HS8536	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.2	1.7	1.2	0.1	0.0	5.6	3.2	2.8	6.4	6.5	5.5

Madagascar	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	17.5	30.3	21.8	20.3	24.4	26.2	22.3	16.6	14.5	12.8	12.6	11.5	10.0	8.3	6.8	7.5	7.3	5.9
HS09	125.3	156.2	149.9	90.4	46.4	49.3	46.0	29.4	37.2	25.7	52.1	59.2	39.3	44.7	61.6	84.4	113.9	131.9
HS27	1.1	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1
HS61	10.7	5.3	9.0	16.1	15.6	15.0	15.6	14.2	14.9	12.4	9.8	10.8	9.1	7.5	7.1	7.3	6.4	5.9
HS62	9.1	5.8	8.0	13.0	13.7	12.0	14.2	32.6	15.8	11.8	10.6	11.7	10.6	8.9	7.1	7.9	8.0	7.2
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0306	56.2	104.5	76.2	74.9	95.9	106.1	92.4	72.7	62.5	53.8	54.0	50.2	39.6	30.4	21.2	28.4	26.1	22.1
HS0907	3020.6	1420.3	1814.1	1525.4	1754.6	2325.1	2555.0	1914.5	3212.9	2764.4	3131.3	6127.8	3019.0	2214.7	3136.9	2511.8	2646.6	2022.7
HS2710	4.3	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.4	0.4
HS6110	23.0	4.0	5.8	11.6	12.1	7.4	38.1	39.5	37.2	40.6	31.1	37.0	29.3	21.8	22.3	21.3	17.4	14.9
HS6203	14.7	9.5	9.3	16.3	17.5	12.2	12.2	66.7	13.9	10.3	9.0	11.4	13.3	11.0	9.1	10.0	9.0	9.9

Malawi	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS07	2.0	2.5	3.0	4.6	2.2	2.7	5.9	6.1	7.0	7.0	5.6	8.0	7.4	9.2	14.8	7.8	4.8	11.3
HS09	46.2	59.5	43.5	63.9	59.6	45.4	36.5	23.4	28.6	33.5	23.6	24.9	32.0	22.4	22.5	23.2	28.7	40.0
HS12	0.8	0.6	3.4	5.8	9.4	7.6	18.6	5.9	9.7	3.5	5.4	7.4	12.3	9.9	3.1	3.9	8.4	8.8
HS17	53.8	36.3	88.0	74.6	39.8	28.6	33.8	29.3	21.0	22.0	50.4	12.4	34.0	35.9	36.9	33.2	14.2	19.8
HS24	169.7	187.2	166.8	172.0	219.4	276.5	223.2	310.5	226.3	235.1	177.9	229.8	195.4	189.3	189.3	204.5	230.4	237.1
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0713	15.2	20.2	27.6	37.5	15.7	21.5	47.9	42.1	46.3	50.2	38.3	44.9	48.0	54.1	79.1	44.2	29.9	86.3
HS0902	159.8	246.4	177.0	276.5	284.3	212.3	192.9	121.6	146.2	176.5	155.5	154.7	165.9	131.9	138.8	139.4	175.0	247.0
HS1201	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.2	1.4	0.7	2.3	0.0	1.4	1.7	0.8	0.8	2.4	3.3	1.6	2.5	6.6	8.3
HS1701	89.2	63.4	159.6	139.7	68.2	38.6	56.4	49.2	34.0	32.8	73.7	19.1	54.7	58.2	64.6	46.3	23.0	36.6
HS2401	611.3	742.4	596.3	601.4	790.5	982.1	783.9	1041.1	698.2	764.6	628.2	804.6	686.8	711.8	681.8	731.8	933.1	979.0

Mauritius	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	0.1	5.8	6.1	3.5	4.5	5.4	5.8	5.7	6.2	7.3	4.7	6.5	7.7	8.5	8.4	8.8	8.3	11.9
HS16	15.5	14.9	15.2	16.8	20.5	27.9	37.4	37.7	44.3	54.8	49.9	59.6	60.8	45.6	38.2	42.8	50.7	53.4
HS17	66.9	64.6	67.6	81.8	71.1	62.2	61.6	60.0	45.1	48.9	45.7	42.0	49.1	39.5	36.4	38.0	43.8	33.9
HS61	22.0	22.2	22.3	25.1	20.7	19.6	22.0	20.9	20.7	17.5	22.1	19.0	14.7	13.0	12.0	11.2	11.4	11.9
HS62	14.8	14.2	14.7	10.3	6.8	6.9	9.8	10.1	11.5	12.5	12.4	13.5	12.7	11.0	10.7	11.0	11.0	13.1
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0303	0.1	27.2	29.2	16.2	20.7	24.5	27.6	26.3	26.7	31.6	17.9	24.0	28.9	27.2	31.0	33.0	29.9	46.1
HS1604	42.3	41.5	42.6	48.5	61.3	82.5	108.7	107.2	131.4	167.7	154.2	170.2	174.6	136.6	114.6	131.4	151.8	156.2
HS1701	110.9	112.1	121.3	150.0	119.7	97.4	107.1	102.9	69.9	68.6	65.1	61.8	77.2	66.5	62.7	61.1	71.2	61.9
HS6109	67.5	73.6	71.8	84.5	68.4	64.2	72.4	67.1	67.8	54.9	73.2	53.2	39.6	35.9	30.5	26.0	28.7	30.0
HS6205	51.5	40.3	41.9	56.2	50.3	50.4	62.4	62.4	65.6	79.2	76.8	82.1	89.9	73.0	72.1	74.3	77.6	90.9

Mozambique	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	20.6	22.1	14.4	11.5	8.9	7.7	6.0	6.3	5.3	4.7	2.7	1.4	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.3	2.1
HS24	3.8	9.2	7.0	10.5	10.2	20.9	9.8	34.6	30.3	28.0	22.4	27.8	26.7	22.5	37.4	26.9	17.3	17.6
HS26	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	1.7	2.9	0.7	3.4	5.4	3.0	3.3	4.8	5.8	3.9	4.6
HS27	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	0.6	1.2	1.3	0.9	1.5	1.9	1.9	2.7	3.0	4.6	3.6
HS76	52.5	43.2	53.7	60.0	58.2	51.2	55.3	53.3	0.0	53.2	46.9	36.6	30.7	32.7	33.9	27.0	26.0	25.2
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0306	68.5	76.7	43.3	42.6	34.6	31.3	24.9	26.8	23.3	20.6	11.4	5.3	7.3	7.4	6.7	7.0	4.1	7.7
HS2401	13.6	36.5	25.0	36.5	36.7	74.1	33.7	112.9	91.2	88.6	78.8	97.3	93.7	85.4	136.1	97.4	70.6	73.2
HS2614	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	36.6	204.7	327.1	135.7	449.4	482.5	340.7	394.8	472.6	616.5	377.7	419.7
HS2716	38.9	63.6	47.7	30.8	33.2	28.0	44.0	33.4	48.3	56.0	37.0	31.9	37.9	36.3	56.2	72.1	44.4	43.2
HS7601	146.9	125.0	157.5	0.0	172.3	145.0	170.5	167.9	0.0	166.7	25.9	0.0	0.0	29.4	15.8	56.2	51.0	47.4

Namibia	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	31.7	30.9	37.3	25.8	25.4	24.2	22.6	23.9	19.8	22.6	22.3	24.7	20.8	18.5	19.7	18.0	19.1	15.2
HS26	18.0	22.9	9.0	4.3	0.3	6.7	13.2	19.5	14.9	11.4	8.8	12.9	11.8	10.3	10.1	17.7	10.4	9.8
HS71	17.3	17.9	6.5	14.3	14.6	14.8	10.0	8.7	5.9	7.9	6.8	6.5	4.9	6.8	8.6	7.9	10.0	7.8
HS74	1.0	0.0	0.1	4.2	4.4	4.0	3.4	3.7	5.1	4.1	6.9	3.7	3.6	6.6	17.5	10.7	9.6	25.0
HS79	0.3	2.5	25.9	54.2	89.0	74.9	96.5	75.7	61.3	66.3	64.1	64.9	61.5	61.2	38.4	39.0	39.3	26.2
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0303	106.8	98.3	128.0	55.3	71.3	91.1	79.6	72.9	49.6	46.5	55.8	68.0	64.2	56.3	59.1	52.4	47.8	34.2
HS2612	1024.0	1376.8	607.2	334.8	0.0	799.0	855.8	1387.7	935.6	1705.7	1335.8	2754.9	1326.0	1398.3	1470.8	1444.5	1846.0	1908.3
HS7102	43.0	37.5	13.2	33.6	32.4	40.0	27.6	27.8	21.0	25.6	25.8	33.8	26.0	30.1	35.8	32.3	39.0	31.6
HS7402	24.9	0.0	0.0	95.2	96.3	82.0	74.5	84.6	100.2	111.8	146.6	43.1	0.9	0.7	78.8	124.5	98.3	308.8
HS7901	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	47.0	99.2	128.7	97.4	77.5	83.3	79.9	81.9	78.8	80.5	49.9	50.0	47.9	32.1

Rwanda	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS09	83.4	0.0	278.3	302.6	219.6	275.9	176.5	218.6	168.8	156.4	113.3	117.7	78.5	68.8	53.3	45.7	54.1	66.4
HS26	27.8	76.5	56.8	62.6	57.7	40.7	52.0	37.8	26.9	31.5	28.8	21.2	28.3	25.6	22.5	15.7	11.3	12.6
HS27	6.8	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.5	2.1	1.3	1.1
HS41	1.1	12.2	19.6	11.8	12.3	5.6	8.5	4.1	4.6	7.8	10.4	13.5	14.0	11.2	10.3	8.1	6.6	7.2
HS87	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.1	1.4	0.2	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0902	183.8	0.0	582.8	406.7	445.5	507.2	499.4	908.2	643.7	331.2	335.1	435.7	238.4	214.1	90.5	71.1	193.2	224.7
HS2615	615.7	4485.1	2405.7	1175.4	1440.5	1298.5	2077.5	2159.2	1372.9	1442.4	1085.9	1546.6	3334.6	2807.2	1982.0	1250.2	1002.6	825.4
HS2710	27.9	2.0	2.7	1.3	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.9	1.6	2.1	3.0	4.4	6.2	3.9	3.5
HS4101	5.5	27.2	39.1	6.8	27.2	6.1	2.6	2.3	19.1	27.6	54.0	45.3	54.7	34.9	32.9	33.4	20.4	20.0
HS8703	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.2	1.2	0.3	1.1	1.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2

Seychelles	Years																
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2008	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	
HS03	2.8	3.0	7.4	8.7	4.7	3.7	29.6	12.9	2.8	2.0	6.8	1.4	2.0	6.9	10.6	15.3	
HS16	254.2	274.5	278.0	350.7	213.0	202.9	110.2	181.3	108.6	235.9	247.9	219.5	178.6	189.5	155.8	117.6	
HS23	7.8	7.3	3.5	4.5	5.0	4.5	1.7	4.1	2.3	4.5	4.2	5.6	5.8	3.3	6.6	5.0	
HS27	0.0	2.1	1.9	0.0	2.7	2.9	1.5	2.3	1.1	1.5	1.4	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.3	1.5	
HS88	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.9	1.2	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.2	5.7	3.3	
HS 4 Digit level																	
HS0303	0.2	6.2	0.3	2.6	0.5	0.0	0.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	25.3	1.0	2.1	27.0	48.9	71.1	
HS1604	695.0	763.4	779.5	1016.2	636.4	599.8	312.9	554.9	336.1	673.9	712.0	658.5	535.5	581.8	466.7	346.1	
HS2301	72.0	63.1	35.4	49.0	48.8	41.4	8.4	43.3	26.8	56.2	55.1	72.1	69.9	40.5	74.2	60.4	
HS2710	0.0	9.2	8.1	0.0	9.9	11.0	0.0	7.8	3.8	4.9	4.3	6.6	8.0	8.2	6.9	4.7	
HS8802	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.5	9.7	

South Africa	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS26	10.1	11.8	9.5	7.4	7.3	7.8	7.9	11.0	11.6	9.2	9.3	10.3	11.1	10.6	11.0	10.4	11.1	11.2
HS27	1.2	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.1	0.8
HS71	10.3	4.0	8.6	8.9	9.1	10.0	9.6	7.3	5.9	4.9	6.4	4.6	4.0	4.6	4.4	3.9	4.3	5.2
HS72	4.4	5.3	5.5	5.0	4.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	4.3	3.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.2	3.1
HS87	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS2601	10.5	11.7	9.9	7.8	7.4	8.0	8.4	7.8	12.7	9.5	10.1	11.3	12.0	11.2	12.3	10.8	10.2	9.3
HS2701	20.1	25.0	19.4	17.3	15.6	14.3	13.7	10.8	11.9	9.7	8.9	9.7	10.4	10.6	10.9	11.5	10.6	10.2
HS7110	72.5	0.0	84.3	83.2	75.8	71.4	65.2	60.6	66.8	61.4	57.8	50.3	60.1	52.0	63.5	60.8	48.8	49.9
HS7202	33.7	46.0	44.9	39.3	31.8	27.7	28.1	34.0	37.4	31.6	24.6	22.9	29.8	31.6	34.5	39.2	28.0	25.4
HS8703	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.9	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6

Tanzania	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	18.2	19.3	18.9	14.7	16.2	19.3	15.9	13.1	13.2	6.9	5.9	5.7	5.3	5.6	6.6	4.3	6.8	6.4
HS08	15.8	11.1	8.2	10.6	6.0	6.2	3.1	5.3	5.6	6.3	5.6	6.9	8.3	12.4	7.5	10.8	19.4	5.7
HS09	62.0	41.9	41.8	35.6	37.6	33.7	39.7	25.3	27.7	17.5	16.8	19.2	24.8	14.2	13.3	14.4	16.7	19.9
HS24	13.5	19.0	14.1	17.4	33.6	25.3	20.7	27.2	11.8	15.2	11.7	17.0	12.2	23.4	20.5	30.2	19.9	32.2
HS71	17.1	17.6	22.2	19.8	17.6	16.9	13.5	11.4	10.9	8.5	10.6	8.2	8.0	6.3	6.4	8.7	10.4	12.5
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0304	91.7	93.9	87.3	64.4	67.6	81.7	66.0	36.9	28.0	24.7	22.0	16.7	23.6	22.3	20.3	17.8	25.9	20.1
HS0801	395.8	249.3	200.8	219.3	119.5	145.1	66.6	102.9	120.6	126.4	82.1	98.4	139.3	189.9	100.2	134.3	223.4	65.3
HS0901	65.3	38.3	43.5	33.6	39.8	33.0	42.4	24.3	23.9	18.0	15.6	18.8	24.7	12.8	14.6	16.8	16.6	24.6
HS2401	48.6	67.5	49.4	56.2	117.3	87.7	71.4	88.3	33.1	44.4	35.8	50.3	32.2	52.9	55.0	106.2	73.3	124.2
HS7108	72.9	87.1	97.6	87.7	94.6	69.5	51.1	37.3	29.4	24.4	28.0	15.8	13.5	13.5	12.4	16.4	20.3	25.3

Uganda	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS03	24.3	27.3	25.0	26.2	30.5	27.7	18.0	15.3	12.2	14.7	11.8	10.1	9.4	10.0	8.4	7.1	6.9	8.5
HS09	143.1	153.9	156.0	148.1	142.7	136.1	123.7	128.7	89.2	90.7	89.3	72.8	89.9	83.5	71.5	59.2	76.6	67.0
HS10	5.8	2.5	3.4	4.0	4.7	5.5	2.8	1.9	3.5	5.5	2.8	5.6	5.8	6.7	9.9	9.6	10.7	10.8
HS27	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4
HS71	5.8	6.6	3.2	4.7	4.5	6.3	2.4	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.4	3.3	3.8	5.0
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS0304	138.6	150.8	132.3	133.2	146.3	125.6	81.3	62.2	44.4	53.3	36.1	19.7	39.8	36.9	28.6	23.7	25.0	25.2
HS0901	195.8	202.4	186.6	188.6	177.7	159.6	155.3	169.0	110.8	108.9	108.8	87.9	118.1	107.2	95.6	78.3	104.1	88.9
HS1005	20.5	8.5	10.6	12.3	13.8	15.0	6.2	2.2	6.4	10.7	4.2	9.1	5.9	7.3	15.9	12.4	16.6	16.5
HS2710	1.1	1.0	2.1	1.5	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	1.6	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.1	1.2	1.0
HS7108	19.8	36.1	15.8	23.0	25.8	27.0	9.6	3.8	0.9	1.9	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.8	6.4	7.9	10.6

Zambia	Years																	
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS17	14.4	14.8	14.0	10.7	18.2	7.2	8.9	6.1	8.4	7.0	6.3	5.3	6.5	9.2	7.8	6.5	6.1	6.3
HS25	3.0	3.6	4.3	4.5	2.4	1.7	1.6	2.2	3.9	4.8	3.7	5.1	10.5	5.6	5.8	11.5	8.2	8.6
HS28	0.3	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.6	2.5	7.2	4.7	1.8	1.6	4.8	3.3
HS74	87.5	95.7	94.7	63.5	74.3	61.0	65.7	69.7	78.2	71.4	73.8	72.8	74.6	90.8	93.8	93.9	92.5	90.4
HS81	156.4	154.2	149.3	143.4	73.5	30.5	41.9	44.7	19.1	26.2	23.4	23.8	13.9	13.1	11.4	17.2	14.2	10.9
HS 4 Digit level																		
HS1701	23.8	23.5	23.7	18.3	30.0	10.3	14.3	9.7	12.8	9.9	8.3	7.0	6.7	9.5	11.7	9.2	8.6	9.8
HS2523	9.7	8.5	9.7	7.5	6.2	4.5	2.6	6.7	9.5	13.2	12.7	10.6	28.7	10.5	5.5	9.3	9.3	12.9
HS2807	14.0	23.0	6.4	5.3	0.2	4.6	29.6	39.1	90.4	65.9	66.0	119.6	421.2	463.5	162.0	159.0	224.7	256.3
HS7403	242.2	265.6	231.8	138.2	130.3	92.4	110.6	120.8	136.4	138.4	159.4	157.1	165.9	212.1	189.9	131.8	91.7	73.1
HS8105	930.2	1014.0	900.3	612.2	515.7	223.3	217.1	192.9	112.1	139.8	163.2	161.9	94.0	88.0	75.8	116.2	61.2	36.1

Zimbabwe	Years																
HS 2 Digit level	2001	2002	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS24	142.0	31.4	88.7	64.7	20.5	38.6	35.4	43.9	65.0	92.0	90.1	107.9	113.1	134.9	126.6	92.0	93.2
HS26	2.4	14.4	20.7	17.5	3.1	7.5	9.0	8.5	7.5	7.3	7.5	7.5	9.9	8.8	11.4	11.7	11.0
HS71	0.0	5.9	1.0	8.9	1.4	2.0	0.6	2.2	6.7	5.5	8.8	6.0	7.9	8.1	8.6	7.8	9.9
HS72	6.3	4.1	4.0	4.9	2.0	4.1	1.1	0.9	2.5	1.3	1.5	2.2	4.2	3.1	2.3	3.8	2.9
HS75	86.2	53.8	45.7	23.8	16.2	35.6	50.8	77.3	75.4	86.2	61.8	87.1	3.8	5.4	10.6	111.3	98.3
HS 4 Digit level																	
HS2401	508.1	90.1	279.8	200.2	65.7	102.5	91.5	116.4	182.9	300.8	296.9	363.5	412.0	475.7	438.1	359.8	375.2
HS2604	135.3	724.9	811.4	1021.5	149.7	262.0	454.8	624.4	531.6	441.7	396.8	390.2	546.3	461.6	813.7	752.0	653.7
HS7108	0.0	27.7	3.7	42.8	5.0	7.2	0.7	4.8	9.2	6.8	7.6	5.5	10.2	11.9	14.1	14.0	18.0
HS7202	102.8	75.2	43.7	49.4	32.5	59.7	12.4	10.3	34.0	18.6	20.8	32.7	61.5	45.9	34.8	53.3	39.0
HS7501	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	61.4	86.1	192.8	390.9	327.2	392.8	314.1	437.6	5.2	31.2	55.8	498.3	476.3

Source: Own calculations from Trade Map (2019)

Notes: Revealed comparative advantages were calculated for top 5 exports of each country

Table A-13: Revealed trade barrier indexes

EAC to COM	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS09	273.5	296.4	163.9	91.3	67.4	66.3	49.1	80.8	105.3	103.5	91.7	64.8	52.4	52.7	38.5	48.8	63.7	83.1
HS10	0.3	7.9	6.6	2.0	2.5	8.6	1.8	1.2	2.0	1.9	1.2	2.5	3.2	2.1	1.9	3.4	4.9	6.9
HS27	0.6	0.4	1.1	1.6	1.5	0.9	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.8	1.9	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.3
HS71	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0
HS72	0.8	1.0	2.3	2.9	2.5	2.9	1.9	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.2	1.8	3.3	3.8
COM to EAC																		
HS10	5.8	3.3	2.3	9.1	7.8	6.1	1.2	1.6	2.8	5.2	12.1	7.6	13.6	3.7	9.5	3.8	26.0	15.1
HS17	4.1	2.8	2.4	5.7	5.0	4.1	2.7	3.1	2.4	9.0	16.5	6.1	16.7	11.2	32.9	30.1	57.7	62.6
HS25	3.7	7.5	11.7	9.0	2.3	2.6	7.7	3.4	4.2	6.2	8.1	6.3	14.8	10.2	7.2	9.8	31.2	38.7
HS33	7.9	15.5	11.2	8.2	11.0	10.1	17.9	8.1	9.0	11.7	9.7	7.5	11.0	8.6	11.8	11.0	15.2	15.8
HS72	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.6	0.7	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	3.8	9.2

EAC to SADC	Years																	
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
HS24	9.1	27.4	19.0	17.1	9.7	18.3	20.0	27.7	23.6	30.7	29.7	27.4	18.3	40.1	26.5	19.6	34.6	33.2
HS25	8.0	2.8	4.0	4.2	2.1	2.9	4.9	8.3	11.7	13.6	17.7	17.8	10.8	8.6	15.3	12.5	18.7	25.2
HS27	1.4	0.8	1.4	1.7	1.7	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.0	2.4	2.4	2.7	1.9	1.3	1.3
HS34	8.3	7.9	11.3	11.6	24.3	16.4	15.5	14.5	15.8	16.7	23.5	16.6	11.8	10.1	11.1	9.4	12.2	13.6
HS72	2.6	2.0	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.5	2.3	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.6	2.4	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.3	3.0	2.3
SADC to EAC																		
HS17	57.3	35.9	28.3	36.3	25.0	29.2	37.2	31.2	20.0	20.7	14.2	10.9	13.3	11.8	19.1	24.3	44.9	29.7
HS33	5.8	11.6	10.2	10.3	8.5	12.1	10.1	8.7	6.6	7.7	7.8	8.5	9.2	8.3	9.1	8.3	8.9	7.9
HS71	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1
HS72	4.4	6.3	8.8	6.7	7.8	7.8	6.6	5.7	7.3	9.2	6.8	7.9	7.4	7.5	7.8	6.7	6.9	8.7
HS87	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.7

COM to SADC	Years											
	2001	2002	2004	2005	2006	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
HS17	10.4	13.0	14.8	9.7	7.7	17.8	15.4	14.3	15.5	18.5	19.1	23.8
HS26	2.3	11.1	12.8	8.7	5.1	2.3	1.3	1.3	0.5	1.0	1.2	0.2
HS28	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.3	2.6	3.8	5.6	6.7	2.0	1.6	2.4
HS33	1.7	2.4	2.0	1.4	1.2	6.0	9.1	7.8	7.2	7.4	8.4	8.7
HS74	3.2	5.4	4.5	2.8	3.8	6.1	5.0	4.8	5.9	8.4	8.2	7.3
SADC to COM												
HS26	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.6	2.2
HS27	0.5	0.6	1.5	0.5	4.5	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.7	1.8
HS72	4.2	5.2	6.4	5.8	7.6	5.8	6.7	7.1	7.0	6.5	5.7	5.7
HS84	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.4	1.1	1.1	2.1	2.6	1.9	1.6	1.3	1.1
HS87	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.4	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.0	0.9

Source: Own calculations from Trade Map (2019).

Notes: Revealed trade barriers were calculated for top 5 exports to each regional bloc

EAC= East African Community

SADC= Southern African Development Community

COM= Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa.