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ADB Working Paper Series on Regional Economic Integration



ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea: A Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis

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Contents

Abstract	v
1. Introduction	2
2. Global Financial Crisis and Intra-East Asian Integration	4
3. Qualitative Assessment of ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea	8
4. Quantitative Assessment of ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea—Computable General Equilibrium Model	16
4.1. Computable General Equilibrium Model and Analysis of the Impact of Free Trade Agreements—A Brief Overview	16
4.2. Empirical Framework and Results	17
5. Concluding Observations	20
References	23
ADB Working Paper Series on Regional Economic Integration	25
Figures	
1. Exports as share of GDP—ASEAN-6, 2007 and 2008	2
2. GDP of ASEAN-9, the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea	3
3. Annual GDP Growth of ASEAN-6 and ASEAN, 2005–2011	6
4. Quarterly GDP Growth Rates, 2008Q1–2010Q1	6
5. Quarterly Export Volumes to the US and ASEAN-6, 2008Q1–2010Q1	7
6. GDP Growth in Developing East Asia versus the G3, 2007–2010	7
7. Quarterly Export Volumes to the People's Republic of China and ASEAN-6, 2008Q1–2010Q1	8
Tables	
1. Country and Free Trade Area Comparisons, 2008	9
2. Per Capita Income, 2008	10
3. Geographical Proximity (km)	11
4. Intra-Regional Exports, 2006–2008	12
5. Intra-Regional Imports, 2006–2008	13
6. Intra-Regional Trade, 2006–2008	13
7. Substitutability of Products—Revealed Comparative Advantage, 2006–2008 (Average)	15
8. Complementarity Index, 2006–2008 (% Average)	15
9. Applied Tariff Rate (Simple Mean of all Products, %)	16
10. Model Aggregations	18
11. Output and Welfare Effects of ACFTA, AJFTA, AKFTA and A+3FTA	19

Abstract

Expanding trade with East Asia's "Big Three" economic giants—the People's Republic of China (PRC), Japan, and the Republic of Korea—offers a new potential source of growth for ASEAN in the post-global-crisis period. In fact, ASEAN has been actively pursuing trade liberalization with the Big Three. The central objective of this paper is to qualitatively and quantitatively assess the different permutations of ASEAN's free trade agreements (FTAs) with the Big Three (e.g., ASEAN–PRC, ASEAN–Japan, ASEAN–Republic of Korea, and ASEAN+3). Our qualitative analysis is based on the theory of economic integration, and our quantitative analysis is based on a CGE model. The two types of analyses both suggest that an ASEAN+3 FTA would deliver the largest benefits for the region.

Keywords: ASEAN, People's Republic of China (PRC), Japan, Republic of Korea, trade, free trade agreement, free trade area, CGE model

JEL Classification: F10, F14, F15

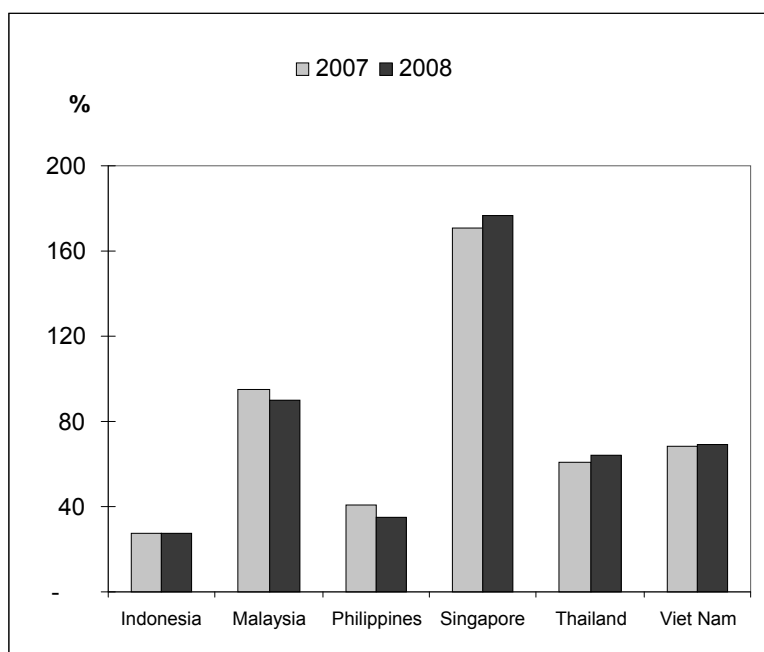
1. Introduction

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) represents one of the fastest growing regions in the developing world.¹ Singapore is a first-generation, newly industrialized economy (NIE) with one of the highest per capita incomes in the world. Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand are second-generation tigers that were integral parts of the World Bank-designated “East Asian Miracle,” along with Japan; the Republic of Korea; Taipei, China; Hong Kong, China; and Singapore. The Philippines has long lagged the other major market economies of the region, but its performance has improved in recent years. Viet Nam has been one of the world’s fastest-growing economies since it adopted doi moi market reforms in the late 1980s.² ASEAN is far from monolithic and there is a great deal of heterogeneity within the group in terms of income and development level. Nevertheless, the region as a whole has grown rapidly on a sustained basis for decades. While there are a number of reasons for ASEAN’s success, one central element has been a high-degree of openness to trade (Figure 1). Sustained rapid growth has enabled the region to reduce poverty on a widespread scale and spread the fruits of growth to a broad segment of the population.

Although ASEAN’s overall track record of economic performance has been broadly impressive, especially in comparison with other parts of the developing world, the 1997/98 Asian financial crisis dealt a severe blow to the region’s previously sky-high self confidence. The crisis was kicked off by the devaluation of the Thai baht in May 1997 and spread like a wildfire to the rest of the region. Indonesia and Thailand were forced to go to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) for bailout packages, whereas Malaysia resorted to capital controls to restore investor confidence. For a region that had grown accustomed to continuous fast growth and boundless optimism, the contraction of output and an upturn in poverty and other social problems came as a rude shock. It is true that the region staged a V-shaped recovery from that crisis, fueled by robust exports to the United States (US) and other markets outside the region. Nevertheless, there has been a tangible loss of dynamism and momentum since the crisis from which the region has yet to fully recover. For example, investment rates have fallen markedly throughout the region and while growth performances have been strong, they are still below the very high rates of the immediate pre-crisis period. Even if we account for the possibility of pre-crisis over-investment and general over-heating, there has been a widespread perception of a drop-off in the region’s potential GDP growth rate since the crisis.

¹ ASEAN is a geopolitical and economic organization established in 1967 by Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. ASEAN has since been expanded to include Cambodia, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), Myanmar, and Viet Nam. Therefore, ASEAN now covers the whole of Southeast Asia.

² The ASEAN 6—Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam—account for the lion’s share of ASEAN’s gross domestic product (GDP). Cambodia and the Lao PDR are also liberalizing their economies and growing faster as a result. The two other smaller economies of the region—Myanmar and Brunei Darussalam—are special cases. Myanmar is isolated from the world economy, while the latter is a wealthy, oil-rich micro-state.

Figure 1: Exports as Share of GDP—ASEAN-6, 2007 and 2008

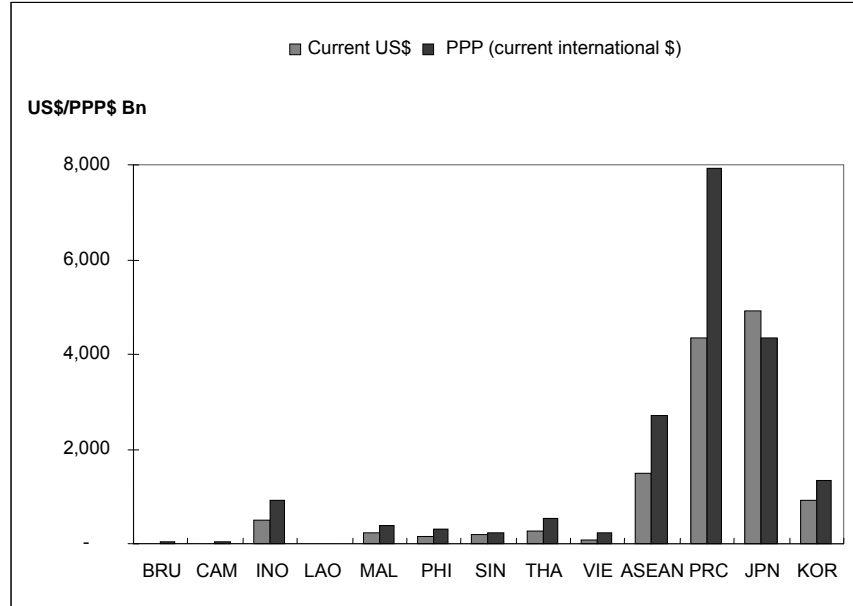
ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, GDP = gross domestic product.

Source: Asian Development Outlook database.

Giving further cause for pessimism within ASEAN is the explosive rise of the People's Republic of China (PRC) and India as competitive threats. The PRC in particular is viewed as a serious threat to the region's traditional engine of growth—export-oriented manufacturing. The stunning rise of the PRC as a global manufacturing center—initially powered by an abundant pool of industrious low-wage workers, but now fast moving up the technology ladder and producing an ever-wider range of more sophisticated products—poses a threat not only to market shares in key third-country markets such as the US, but also to domestic market shares. Another major sphere of potential competition between ASEAN and the PRC is over foreign direct investment (FDI). This matters for ASEAN because the region has relied heavily on FDI from industrialized countries for its export-oriented industrialization in the past. While the PRC, India, Viet Nam and other late-starters are fast closing the gap with ASEAN, deep-seated structural problems are preventing ASEAN from closing the gap with the NIEs and Japan. For example, Malaysia and Thailand face a critical shortage of well-educated workers and professionals, which are required for the transition to more skill- and technology-intensive industries. Indonesia and the Philippines face a more general problem of a poor investment climate, in particular rigid labor markets and weak governance, even though Indonesia has made big strides in the last few years. In short, within ASEAN, there is a genuine fear of being sandwiched and stranded in a middle-income trap between the PRC and the NIEs.

One possible channel for reviving the region's economic dynamism and enhancing the region's competitive position in the world economy is to invigorate intra-regional trade. In fact, ASEAN countries have forcefully been promoting trade with each other for quite some time. Although ASEAN economies are individually small, collectively they form the world's ninth largest economy, which implies substantial gains from trade. The primary institutional framework for intra-ASEAN trade liberalization is the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA), which got under way with the signing of the ASEAN Free Trade Agreement in 1992. Tariffs have come down sharply within ASEAN as a result of AFTA, which is now more or less fully established. While ASEAN is collectively sizable, it is dwarfed by the Big Three of East Asia—the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea. The PRC and Japan are the world's second and third largest economies, respectively, and the Republic of Korea ranks among the world's fifteen largest economies (Figure 2). Therefore, an attractive strategic option for ASEAN is to expand trade with the Big Three. In fact, ASEAN has been pursuing trade liberalization with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea, and those efforts are yielding fruit. The ASEAN–PRC Free Trade Area (ACFTA) and the ASEAN–Republic of Korea Free Trade Area (AKFTA) are already in effect. There has been less progress on the ASEAN–Japan Free Trade Area (AJFTA) and the ASEAN+3 Free Trade Area (A+3FTA), which would bring together ASEAN and the Big Three, but both remain plausible and realistic avenues for intra-regional trade liberalization.

Figure 2: GDP of ASEAN-9, the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea



ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, BRU = Brunei Darussalam, CAM = Cambodia, GDP = gross domestic product, INO = Indonesia, JPN = Japan, KOR = Republic of Korea, LAO = Lao People's Democratic Republic, MAL = Malaysia, PHI = Philippines, PPP = purchasing power parity, PRC = People's Republic of China, SIN = Singapore, THA = Thailand, VIE = Viet Nam, US = United States.

Source: World Bank, World Databank, <http://databank.worldbank.org/ddp/home.do?Step=12&id=4&CNO=2> (accessed 7 September 2010); Authors' estimates.

The central objective of our paper is to qualitatively and quantitatively assess the four different permutations (actual and potential) of ASEAN's FTAs with the Big Three: ACFTA, AJFTA, AKFTA, and A+3FTA. Our qualitative analysis is based on the theory of economic integration and our quantitative analysis is based on a computable general equilibrium (CGE) model. The results of our analysis can provide guidance for ASEAN policymakers about the relative merits of the different permutations. The results will also inform us about the division of benefits from an FTA between ASEAN and its FTA partner(s). A large and growing empirical literature has used the CGE model to estimate the output and welfare effects of FTAs among East Asian countries, including ASEAN. [See Cheong (2003), Ando (2009), Ando and Urata (2006), Kawai and Wignaraja (2008), and Lee and van der Mensbrugghe (2007)]. The overall evidence from the literature indicates that an A+3FTA would deliver bigger output and welfare gains for ASEAN and the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea than bilateral FTAs between ASEAN and individual members of the Big Three. Our study extends the literature in two ways. First, we augment the CGE-based quantitative analysis used by the existing studies with qualitative analysis that looks at how well the different FTAs satisfy various theoretical criteria for integration. Second, we use a CGE model that not only captures the usual static effects of FTAs, but also the effects of FTAs on capital accumulation over time. This expanded CGE model takes into account the relationship between trade, investment, and growth.

2. Global Financial Crisis and Intra-East Asian Integration

Since well before the global financial crisis, ASEAN countries have sought to promote trade with each other and with the Big Three. The primary motivation for such efforts lay in seeking new sources of dynamism and growth after the 1997/98 Asian financial crisis deprived the region of its momentum and self-confidence. A further contributory factor were concerns that the region was heading toward a middle-income trap between a fast rising PRC and the technologically-more-advanced Japan and NIEs. In addition, the lack of progress at the multilateral Doha Round of World Trade Organization (WTO) talks drove countries around the world to pursue bilateral and regional FTAs. ASEAN was no exception to this global trend. Finally, the 1997/98 Asian crisis served as a catalyst for regional cooperation and integration in East Asia. There was a widespread perception that the IMF mishandled this crisis and, more fundamentally, served the interests of industrialized countries outside the region. The immediate consequence was the Chiang Mai Initiative, which sought to pool the foreign exchange reserves of countries in the region in order to protect the region from a currency crisis. The broader consequence was a generalized trend toward deeper integration of the regional economies. Trade liberalization among East Asian countries is a concrete example of this trend.

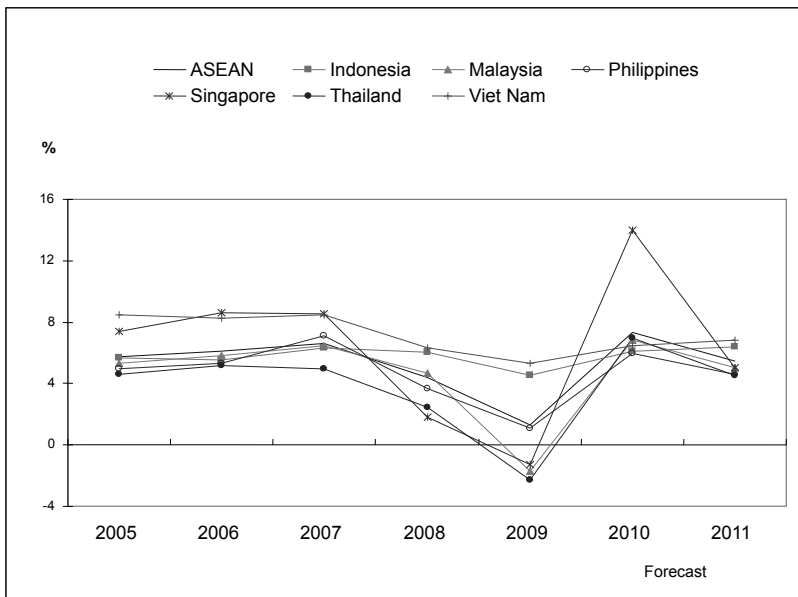
Although regional cooperation and integration in East Asia was well under way before the global crisis, the crisis has given it a big additional push. The recent crisis has had a severe negative short-run impact on the exports and growth of ASEAN countries (Figures 3 and 4). For ASEAN as a whole, growth slowed down markedly from a 3-year average of 6.1% in 2005–2007 to 4.4% in 2008, and to 1.3% in 2009. The most open and successful economies of the region— Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand—were the hardest hit by the crisis and experienced a GDP contraction. In contrast to the Asian

crisis, ASEAN was by and large spared from financial instability during the global crisis. Instead trade was the primary channel that transmitted the global crisis from the US and the European Union (EU) to ASEAN. More specifically, the export-dependent region suffered a collapse of exports to the US and other major markets, especially during 4Q08 and 1Q09. Except for Indonesia and Viet Nam, export volumes had not recovered to their 4Q08 levels by 1Q10 (Figure 5).

ASEAN's experience during the global crisis highlights the risks of excessive dependence on extra-regional demand for exports and growth. The global crisis did nothing to invalidate ASEAN's outward-looking, export-oriented growth strategy, which has delivered rapid sustained growth and substantial poverty reduction. As such, the region should continue to maintain and nurture its vital trade links with the industrialized countries and the rest of the world. At the same time, however, the transformation of East Asia from a stagnant, low-income region to a dynamic middle-income region—and, in fact, one of the three centers of gravity of the world economy, along with the US and the EU—suggests that intra-East Asian trade offers the promise of a new, additional engine of demand and growth. Strengthening intra-regional trade will enable the region's economies to exploit potentially large but hitherto under-realized gains of trade (see ADB, 2009a). A complementary strategy is for each country to rebalance growth toward domestic demand (see ADB, 2009b). While intra-East Asian trade integration has grown rapidly, much of the trade is trade in parts and components, which is ultimately geared to demand for final goods in the US and other markets outside the region. More dynamic domestic economies can stimulate more substantive intra-regional trade based on trade in final goods.

Developing East Asia's unexpectedly speedy and robust recovery is lending further credibility to the potential of intra-regional trade as an engine of demand and growth. East Asia, excluding Japan, has staged a V-shaped rebound reminiscent of the region's bounce back from the 1997/98 Asian financial crisis. But unlike the 1997/98 crisis, the region was unable to export its way out of a recession this time around. In fact, what makes the region's recovery all the more remarkable is that it has taken place against the background of persistent fragility and uncertainty in the US, Europe, and Japan (Figure 6). The wide gap between developing East Asia and the G3 during the global crisis marks the continuation of a sustained trend prior to the crisis. While it would be going too far to view the region's superior post-crisis performance as definitive proof of decoupling between the region and the industrialized countries, it does suggest that the region's economy has a life of its own to a much greater degree than previously thought. Within the region, the PRC has turned in by far the most resilient performance, growing by a whopping 8.7% in 2009 when the crisis peaked. This matters a lot for ASEAN and the rest of East Asia because the center of gravity of the region's economy has been visibly shifting toward the fast-growing PRC in recent years. There is some evidence that exports to the PRC have helped the rest of the region recover from the global crisis and, more generally, the PRC is becoming an engine of growth for the region. Thus, although ASEAN's exports to the PRC fell sharply during the crisis, they have recovered more strongly than exports to the US and have helped to support ASEAN's growth (Figure 7).

Figure 3: Annual GDP Growth of ASEAN-6 and ASEAN, 2005–2011

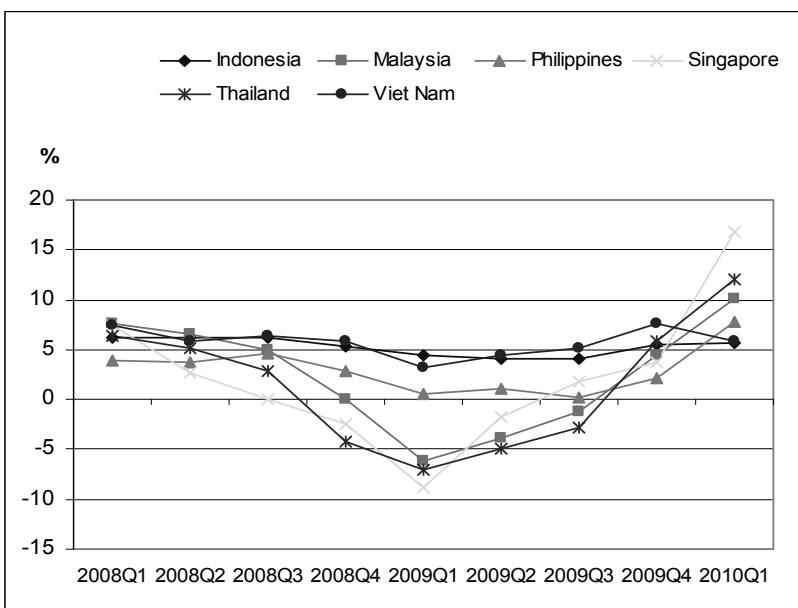


ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, GDP = gross domestic product.

Note: ASEAN includes Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), and Myanmar in addition to the ASEAN-6. The figures for 2010 and 2011 are ADB projections.

Source: Asian Development Outlook database.

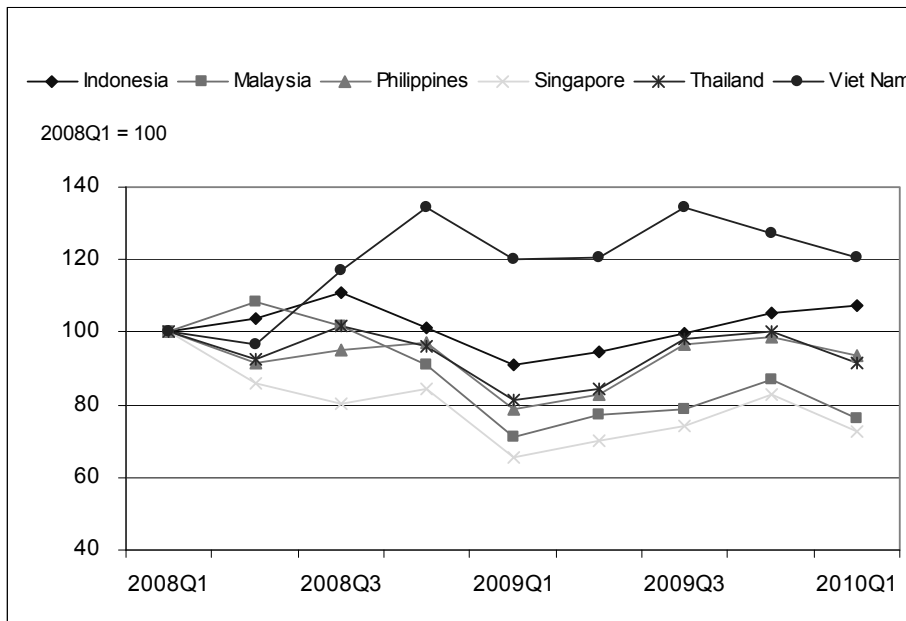
Figure 4: Quarterly GDP Growth Rates, 2008Q1–2010Q1



GDP = gross domestic product.

Source: CEIC Data Company (accessed 6 September 2010).

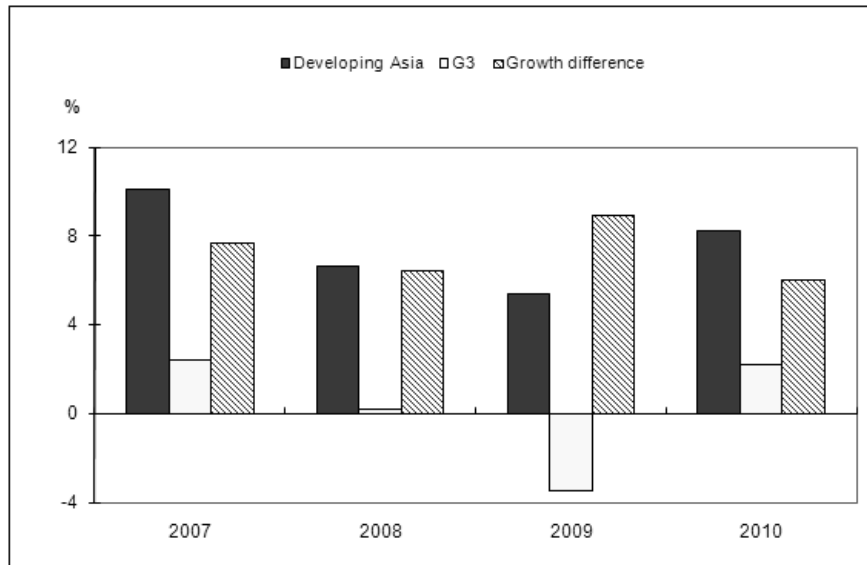
Figure 5: Quarterly Export Volumes to the US and ASEAN-6, 2008Q1–2010Q1



ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, US = United States.

Source: CEIC Data Company (accessed 6 September 2010).

Figure 6: GDP Growth in Developing East Asia versus the G3, 2007–2010

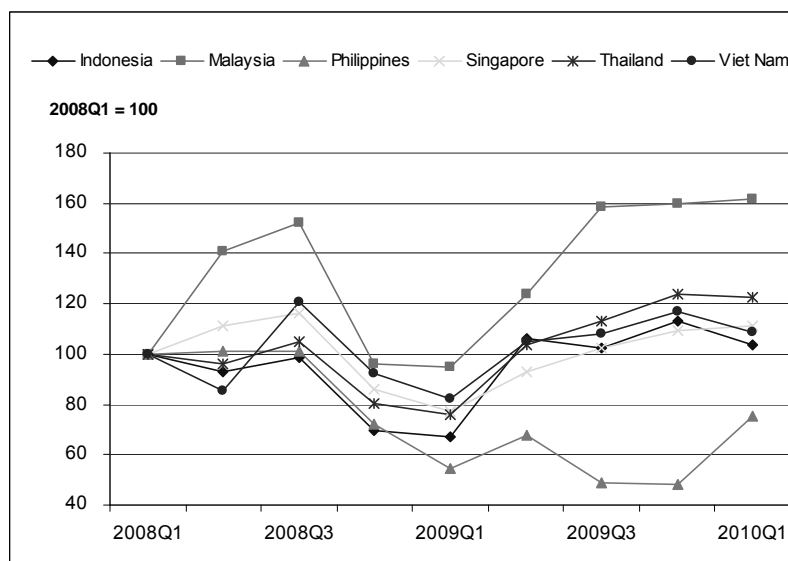


GDP = gross domestic product.

Note: G3 refers to the United States, eurozone, and Japan; figures for 2010 are ADB projections.

Sources: Asian Development Outlook database; Oxford Economics.

Figure 7: Quarterly Export Volumes to the People's Republic of China and ASEAN-6, 2008Q1–2010Q1



ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations.

Source: CEIC Data Company (accessed 6 September 2010).

3. Qualitative Assessment of ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea

The preceding two sections should have made it abundantly clear that ASEAN has a long-standing self-interest in pursuing trade liberalization with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea. Furthermore, the global crisis and the consequent acceleration of the shift of global economic power to developing East Asia has given further impetus to ASEAN's efforts to expand trade with the Big Three. In this section, we draw upon the theory of economic integration to evaluate and compare the extent to which each of ASEAN's potential FTAs with the Big Three would satisfy the theoretical criteria for successful integration. The theory of economic integration is anchored in the theory of customs union, formally developed by Viner (1950). The defining feature of regional economic integration is the progressive removal of barriers to the free movement of goods, services, capital, and labor among the economies of a region. The initial stage of ASEAN's integration with the Big Three will revolve around the liberalization of the goods trade.

Members of a customs union agree to phase-out tariffs and quantitative restrictions on imports from within the union, and impose a set of common external tariffs on imports from outside the union. In theory, a customs union has both positive and negative welfare effects. In the example of AKFTA, the positive effect—trade creation—arises from Malaysia's replacement of higher cost domestic products with lower cost imports

from the Republic of Korea. The negative effect—trade diversion—occurs when the Republic of Korea replaces low cost imports from the US with higher cost imports from Thailand. Whether a customs union is beneficial on the whole depends on which effect is larger. Static factors are important in assessing the one-off change in welfare arising from the establishment of a customs union. These include the size of the free trade area, geographical proximity, levels of economic development, complementarity of economic structures, tariff structures, and the substitutability between products of members and products of non-members. We now apply the various static criteria to ASEAN's potential FTAs with the Big Three.

(a) Size of the FTA

The larger the size of the FTA, the larger the potential gains from trade. Table 1 shows the size of the different permutations (actual and potential) of ASEAN's FTAs with the Big Three. In terms of current US dollar GDP, the A+3FTA is almost twice as big as AJFTA, the next largest FTA. The next two biggest FTAs are ACFTA and AKFTA. In terms of purchasing power parity (PPP) GDP, ACFTA replaces AJFTA as the second largest FTA, while A+3FTA is more than 50% bigger than ACFTA. In terms of population, A+3FTA exceeds 2 billion people and ACFTA has close to 2 billion people. Table 1 indicates that A+3FTA is by far the biggest union, with AJFTA and ACFTA more or less the same size, and AKFTA by far the smallest union. However, it should be noted that even AKFTA has quite a sizable combined GDP.

Table 1: Country and Free Trade Area Comparisons, 2008

	Population (million)	GDP (current US\$, billion)	GDP (PPP, billion)
Brunei Darussalam	0.4	14.5	20.2
Cambodia	14.7	9.6	28.0
Indonesia	228.2	514.4	907.3
Lao PDR	6.2	5.2	13.2
Malaysia	27.0	194.9	383.7
Myanmar	49.2	—	—
Philippines	90.3	166.9	317.1
Singapore	4.8	181.9	238.5
Thailand	67.4	260.7	519.0
Viet Nam	86.2	90.7	240.1
ASEAN	574.5	1,438.9	2,667.2
PRC	1,325.6	4,326.2	7,903.2
Japan	127.7	4,909.3	4,354.6
Korea, Rep. of	48.6	929.1	1,358.0
ASEAN–PRC FTA	1,900.2	5,765.1	10,570.4
ASEAN–Japan FTA	702.2	6,348.1	7,021.7
ASEAN–Republic of Korea FTA	623.1	2,368.0	4,025.2
ASEAN+3 FTA	2,076.5	11,603.5	16,283.0

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, FTA = free trade agreement, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = purchasing power parity, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: World Development Indicators Online database (accessed 22 January 2010).

(b) Income and development level

Similarity in income and development levels is conducive for integration. The basic intuition is that countries at similar income levels have similar consumption patterns, which means there is scope for intra-industry trade. This goes a long way toward explaining the robustness of intra-regional trade within the EU. Table 2 confirms there is considerable heterogeneity of income and development levels within ASEAN itself. Table 2 also shows that ASEAN as a whole has a similar income level to that of the PRC, but lags far behind Japan and the Republic of Korea. This suggests that the scope for intra-industry for ASEAN as a whole may be greater for ACFTA than either AJFTA or AKFTA. However, there is scope for intra-industry trade between more developed ASEAN countries (e.g., Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand) and Japan and the Republic of Korea. If we view the Big Three as a single economy, it is considerably richer than ASEAN, but this reflects the influence of Japan and the Republic of Korea.

Table 2: Per Capita Income, 2008

	GDP per capita (current US\$)	GDP per capita (PPP)
Brunei Darussalam	36,634.3	50,919.1
Cambodia	651.3	1,904.6
Indonesia	2,253.6	3,974.9
Lao PDR	837.3	2,134.1
Malaysia	7,221.5	14,215.4
Myanmar	–	–
Philippines	1,847.4	3,509.9
Singapore	37,597.3	49,283.6
Thailand	3,868.6	7,702.6
Viet Nam	1,052.1	2,785.0
ASEAN	2,713.4	5,042.5
PRC	3,263.5	5,961.8
Japan	38,442.6	34,098.8
Korea, Republic.of	19,115.0	27,939.1
PRC–Japan–Republic of Korea	6,767.6	9,065.4

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nation, GDP = gross domestic product, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PPP = purchasing power parity, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: The figures for ASEAN and PRC–Japan–Republic of Korea are weighted by population.

Source: World Development Indicators Online database (accessed 22 January 2010).

(c) Geographical proximity and transport infrastructure

Geographical proximity promotes economic integration since it reduces transportation costs. For some goods, transportation costs can be a major component of total trade costs. Table 3 shows that the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea are geographically much closer to ASEAN than the other two heavyweights of the world economy, the US and the EU. The southern parts of the PRC are closer to ASEAN than Japan or the

Republic of Korea, and they also have some land links to ASEAN. This gives ACFTA a competitive advantage over AJFTA and AKFTA. However, the dominant transport links between ASEAN and the Big Three are air and sea links, and these are relatively well developed in all of the Big Three countries. A large number of commercial flights and extensive commercial shipping routes connect ASEAN with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea, which bodes well for intra-regional trade.

Table 3: Geographical Proximity
(km)

	PRC	Japan	Korea, Rep. of	EU-27	NAFTA
Brunei Darussalam	3,877	4,248	3,819	10,340	14,999
Cambodia	3,336	4,403	3,629	9,066	14,414
Indonesia	5,194	5,772	5,278	10,695	16,357
Lao PDR	2,757	4,125	3,208	8,379	13,706
Malaysia	4,335	5,318	4,609	9,549	15,350
Myanmar	–	–	–	–	–
Philippines	2,840	2,990	2,614	9,916	13,794
Singapore	4,457	5,313	4,667	9,845	15,547
Thailand	3,282	4,603	3,719	8,563	14,163
Viet Nam	2,321	3,670	2,744	8,346	13,367
ASEAN average	3,600	4,494	3,810	9,411	14,633
PRC		2,103	962	7,474	11,172
Japan	2,103		1,153	9,096	10,928
Korea, Rep. of	962	1,153		8,273	11,187
EU-27	7,474	9,096	8,273		6,917
NAFTA	11,172	10,928	11,187	6,917	

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, NAFTA = North American Free Trade Association, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Note: The distance is the theoretical air distance (great circle distance) between the capital cities of countries/regions. For the European Union (EU), the reference city is Prague, Czech Republic, which lies near the geographical center of the EU. The reference city for NAFTA is Washington DC, United States.

– = data not available/included.

Source: timeanddate.com. <http://www.timeanddate.com> (accessed 22 April 2010).

(d) Pre-FTA trade

While the very purpose of an FTA is to stimulate trade among members, the level of pre-FTA trade among member countries has a significant effect on the incentives of countries to form an FTA. Intuitively, countries that trade heavily with each other—or have the potential to do so—stand to gain the most from removing barriers to trade. Table 4 shows that intra-regional exports are large for East Asian countries in both absolute and relative terms. Tables 5 and 6 show that this is also true for imports and total trade, respectively. The trade patterns resoundingly confirm the conventional wisdom that trade integration among East Asian countries has already reached fairly

high levels. This suggests that ASEAN's FTAs with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea will yield substantial dividends for both parties. In comparative terms, intra-FTA trade is by far the biggest for A+3FTA, followed by ACFTA and AKFTA, which are more or less equal. Even for AKFTA, intra-FTA trade is quite substantial. Intra-A+3FTA trade had reached almost US\$2,600 billion, or more than 37% of the members' total trade, by 2008. For ACFTA, AJFTA, and AKFTA, intra-FTA exceeded 20% in 2008. Overall, the amount of trade between ASEAN and the Big Three is large enough for substantial gains to be made from further liberalization.

(e) Substitutability of products

Substitutability is defined as the production of similar but differentiated products. The substitutability of products of FTA members for those of outsiders increases the chances of trade creation. For example, in A+3FTA, Malaysia can theoretically substitute cars from the US and the EU with similar but differentiated cars from Japan and the Republic of Korea. Table 7 shows the revealed comparative advantage of ASEAN, the PRC, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the US, the EU, and the rest of the world in nine sectors. The table suggests that there is substantial scope for ASEAN to substitute products from the Big Three for products from the rest of the world. This is especially true for Japan and the Republic of Korea, which are technologically at similar levels as the US and the EU, and thus produce many similar manufacturing goods. In addition, there is also significant potential for Japan and the Republic of Korea to substitute agricultural and food products from ASEAN for those from the rest of the world.

Table 4: Intra-Regional Exports, 2006–2008

Level (US\$ billion)				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	191.4	216.7	251.4	219.8
ASEAN–PRC FTA	329.4	389.9	454.1	391.2
ASEAN–Japan FTA	350.5	392.2	461.5	401.4
ASEAN–Republic of Korea FTA	251.8	287.4	339.5	292.9
ASEAN+3 FTA	924.3	1,066.2	1,246.5	1,079.0
As share of total exports				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	24.9	25.2	25.6	25.2
ASEAN–PRC FTA	19.0	18.8	18.8	18.8
ASEAN–Japan FTA	24.8	24.9	26.1	25.3
ASEAN–Republic of Korea FTA	23.0	23.3	24.1	23.5
ASEAN+3 FTA	34.1	33.7	34.4	34.1

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, FTA = free trade area, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from International Monetary Fund, Direction of Trade Statistics, January 2010.

Table 5: Intra-Regional Imports, 2006–2008

Level (US\$ billion)				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	165.3	188.5	231.3	195.0
ASEAN-PRC FTA	331.6	392.4	461.3	395.1
ASEAN-Japan FTA	326.4	364.5	440.8	377.2
ASEAN-Republic of Korea FTA	228.1	259.5	322.1	269.9
ASEAN+3 FTA	1,007.5	1,151.8	1,335.6	1,165.0
As share of total imports				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	24.7	24.7	24.4	24.6
ASEAN-PRC FTA	22.7	22.8	22.2	22.6
ASEAN-Japan FTA	26.2	26.3	25.8	26.1
ASEAN-Republic of Korea FTA	23.3	23.2	23.3	23.3
ASEAN+3 FTA	42.9	42.7	40.8	42.1

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, FTA = free trade area, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from International Monetary Fund, Direction of Trade Statistics, January 2010.

Table 6: Intra-Regional Trade, 2006–2008

Level (US\$ billion)				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	356.7	405.2	482.6	414.8
ASEAN–PRC FTA	661.0	782.4	915.4	786.3
ASEAN–Japan FTA	676.8	756.7	902.3	778.6
ASEAN–Republic of Korea FTA	479.9	546.9	661.6	562.8
ASEAN+3 FTA	1,931.8	2,218.0	2,582.2	2,244.0
As share of total trade				
Region	2006	2007	2008	2006–2008
ASEAN	24.8	25.0	25.0	24.9
ASEAN–PRC FTA	20.7	20.6	20.4	20.6
ASEAN–Japan FTA	25.4	25.6	26.0	25.7
ASEAN–Republic of Korea FTA	23.2	23.2	23.7	23.4
ASEAN+3 FTA	38.2	37.8	37.4	37.8

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, FTA = free trade area, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from International Monetary Fund, Direction of Trade Statistics, January 2010.

(f) Complementary economic structures

According to Meade (1955), there will be greater trade creation if pre-FTA economic structures are competitive but post-FTA economic structures are complementary. Due to high trade barriers, FTA members may produce similar goods before the FTA. After the FTA, more efficient producers replace less efficient ones and the number of similar goods produced falls. This leads to welfare gains associated with specialization and economies of scale. Table 8 shows the degree to which one country's exports are complementary with another country's structure of imports. The table indicates that ASEAN's exports are highly complementary with the PRC's import pattern and vice versa. Furthermore, the PRC's exports are significantly more complementary with ASEAN's import pattern than with other countries. Therefore, economic structure favors ACFTA over AJFTA and AKFTA. However, both Japan and the Republic of Korea also have economic structures that are relatively complementary with those of ASEAN, although still less so than the economic structure of the PRC.

(g) Pre-FTA tariff rates

The level of tariffs against non-members suggests some scope for trade diversion. According to theory, the net welfare gains from an FTA will be larger the higher the pre-FTA tariff rates among members and the lower and less disparate the tariff rates against non-members. Table 9 shows the applied tariff rate, as a simple mean of all products, for ASEAN countries, the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea. The tariff rates of the PRC and the Republic of Korea are higher than those of Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, and Singapore, but lower than the rates of Thailand and Viet Nam. On the other hand, the tariff rate of Japan is lower than all of the ASEAN countries except free-trading Singapore. The overall pattern of tariff rates does not clearly favor ACFTA, AJFTA, or AKFTA. This is because there are two opposing effects. Whereas the higher tariff rates of the PRC and the Republic of Korea bode well for trade creation under ACFTA and AKFTA, the lower tariff rate of Japan reduces the scope for trade diversion.

Table 7: Substitutability of Products—Revealed Comparative Advantage, 2006–2008 (Average)

Sectors	ASEAN	PRC	Japan	Korea, Rep. of	NAFTA	EU-27	ROW
1 Agriculture	0.84	0.49	0.10	0.15	1.50	1.06	1.10
2 Beverage and food products	1.51	0.41	0.08	0.15	0.69	1.28	1.08
3 Textile and apparel	1.05	3.27	0.25	0.74	0.40	0.84	0.96
4 Chemical products	0.67	0.45	0.80	0.90	0.97	1.33	0.89
5 Metal and steel products	0.56	1.00	0.91	1.01	0.81	1.03	1.14
6 Vehicle and other transport equipment	0.33	0.40	2.23	1.87	1.42	1.22	0.62
7 Electronic products	2.17	2.28	1.33	1.84	0.99	0.77	0.60
8 Machinery	0.49	0.65	1.65	0.73	1.09	1.22	0.83
9 Other manufacturing	1.00	0.63	0.58	0.60	0.99	0.82	1.39

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, EU = European Union, NAFTA = North American Free Trade Agreement, PRC = People's Republic of China, ROW = rest of the world.

Note: The Revealed Comparative Advantage (RCA) index is defined as the ratio of the share of a country's total exports of a commodity in its total exports to the share of world exports of the same commodity in total world exports.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the United Nations ComTrade Database (accessed 6 April 2010).

Table 8: Complementarity Index, 2006–2008 (% Average)

Importing region/country	Exporting region/country						
	ASEAN	PRC	Japan	Korea, Rep. of	EU-27	NAFTA	ROW
ASEAN		79.5	72.1	81.1	77.2	82.8	79.5
PRC	83.9		70.8	82.1	75.9	78.8	75.2
Japan	77.3	65.1		62.9	73.4	76.9	89.3
Korea, Rep. of	75.4	66.2	65.5		74.3	80.1	87.0
EU-27	76.9	66.1	69.9	74.6		89.4	88.0
NAFTA	79.2	68.3	73.5	75.8	83.2		85.8
ROW	78.8	68.9	69.4	73.4	83.8	87.8	

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, EU = European Union, NAFTA = North American Free Trade Agreement, PRC = People's Republic of China, ROW = rest of the world.

Note: The index measures the degree to which the export pattern of one country matches the import pattern of another. It is derived by getting the sum of the absolute value of the difference between the import shares and the export shares for each product category of two countries, then dividing by two and multiplying by 100.

Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the United Nations ComTrade Database (accessed 6 April 2010).

Table 9: Applied Tariff Rate
(Simple Mean of all Products, %)

Country	2004	2005	2006	2007
Brunei Darussalam	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.1
Cambodia	–	14.1	–	12.5
Indonesia	6.1	6.0	6.0	5.8
Lao PDR	8.7	7.1	6.5	5.8
Malaysia	–	7.5	6.3	5.9
Myanmar	4.5	4.5	4.4	4.1
Philippines	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.0
Singapore	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Thailand	–	10.5	10.8	–
Viet Nam	13.9	13.0	11.9	11.7
PRC	9.8	9.2	8.9	8.8
Japan	3.3	3.3	3.5	4.1
Korea, Rep. of	9.1	–	9.1	8.3

Lao PDR = Lao People's Democratic Republic, PRC = People's Republic of China.

Source: World Bank, World Databank. <http://databank.worldbank.org/ddp/home.do?Step=3&id=4> (accessed 29 April 2010).

4. Quantitative Assessment of ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea—Computable General Equilibrium Model

In this section, we apply the CGE model to the various permutations (actual and potential) of ASEAN's FTAs with the Big Three in order to estimate their quantitative effects on welfare and output. In addition to looking at static, one-time effects, we also examine dynamic effects based on the ramifications of FTAs for capital accumulation. Before we delve into the CGE analysis, we provide a brief overview of the CGE model and studies that use the model to evaluate intra-East Asian FTAs.

4.1. Computable General Equilibrium Model and Analysis of the Impact of Free Trade Agreements—A Brief Overview

A large and growing literature uses the CGE model and database of the Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) to quantify the economic impact of FTAs. In general, the studies find that members of FTAs enjoy welfare gains due to trade creation, while nonmembers suffer welfare losses due to trade diversion. Studies using the CGE model often adhere to assumptions of constant returns to scale, perfect competition, the Armington structure, and in some cases, account for increasing returns to scale and firm-level imperfect competition. Some studies only analyze static effects while others examine both static and welfare effects. The static model evaluates the one-off impact of trade liberalization,

which assumes elimination of merchandise tariffs among members and, in some cases, accounts for the removal of nontariff barriers and liberalization of services. The dynamic model incorporates efficiency gains from resource re-allocation and capital accumulation, which often results in higher welfare gains for FTA members compared with the static model. As the studies differed in their specifications and underlying assumptions, it is not surprising that their results vary as to who are likely to gain or lose, and which FTA makes one country or region better off. The discussion below focuses on the results of CGE analysis of ASEAN's FTAs with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea.

Regardless of whether static effects alone or dynamic impacts are considered, a common finding is that the larger the FTA, the bigger the total welfare gains accruing to its members. A bigger collective economic size enables larger gains from trade creation. This is true for studies that look only at static effects as well as studies that also consider dynamic effects. [See Cheong (2003); Ando and Urata (2006); Ando (2009); Lee, Roland-Holst, and van der Mensbrugghe (2004); Gilbert, Scollay, and Bora (2004); Francois and Wignaraja (2008); Lee and van der Mensbrugghe (2007); and Kawai and Wignaraja (2008)]. In terms of the distribution of income and welfare gains from an FTA, some studies find that ASEAN as a group fares better than the Big Three [Ando and Urata (2006), and Cheong (2003)]. Other studies find that the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea outgain ASEAN [Choi, Park, and Lee (2003); and Lee and van der Mensbrugghe (2007)]. Studies that look at individual ASEAN economies also differ as to which economy would benefit the most. The literature clearly shows that ASEAN stands to gain the most from an ASEAN+3 FTA. However, the literature is still divided in terms of which of the Big Three is the most ideal bilateral partner for ASEAN. There are studies that find the best partner for ASEAN to be the PRC [Lee and van der Mensbrugghe (2007), Kawai and Wignaraja (2008)], but for other studies it is Japan [Ando and Urata (2006)] or the Republic of Korea [Cheong (2003)].

4.2. Empirical Framework and Results

In addition to the traditional static model which analyzes the one-off effect of an FTA on output and welfare, we also ran a capital accumulation CGE model, which is designed to capture capital accumulation effects over time as well as static effects. This model takes into account the positive relationship among trade, investment, and growth, a relationship that has been fairly well established by some empirical studies. The capital accumulation CGE model is especially relevant for the high-savings, high-investment economies of East Asia where capital accumulation has been a major source of economic growth. The standard GTAP model has been modified to capture the medium-run growth effects of trade liberalization. That is, this second CGE model incorporates possible changes to capital formation due to FTAs. Baldwin (1989, 1992) suggests that static efficiency gains induce higher savings and investment, which in turn yield more output. Francois, McDonald, and Nordstrom (1999) present a useful approach to capture the capital accumulation effects of trade liberalization in the context of the neoclassical growth model. Following Francois, McDonald, and Nordstrom (1999), we assume that economies are initially in a steady state. Under this assumption, the magnitudes of changes in the capital stock and output can be obtained by comparing two steady states.

With respect to data, the world economy was aggregated into 10 sectors and 7 regions in our CGE model analysis. These are described in Table 10. The social accounting data are based on the GTAP version 7 database, which provides global production and trade data with 2004 as a base year. In order to quantitatively measure the effects of the various potential FTAs in East Asia, we assume that both import tariffs and export taxes between members are eliminated, but trade barriers between members and nonmembers remain.

We now report and discuss the results of applying the CGE model to assess the output and welfare effects of the various proposed FTAs, which are shown in Table 11. We first assess the results of the static CGE model, which looks at the static or one-off effects of the FTAs. ACFTA delivers higher GDP gains for ASEAN, relative to the baseline, than either AJFTA or AKFTA. ACFTA also delivers higher GDP gains for ASEAN than A+3FTA. From the viewpoint of the Big Three, AKFTA delivers bigger GDP gains for the Republic of Korea than ACFTA does for the PRC, or AJFTA does for Japan. For both Japan and the Republic of Korea, A+3FTA delivers bigger GDP gains than their respective bilateral FTAs with ASEAN. In terms of welfare gains, ACFTA is more beneficial for ASEAN than either AJFTA or AKFTA, but A+3FTA is the most beneficial for all. Among the three bilateral FTAs, the Republic of Korea experiences the highest welfare gains in percentage terms while Japan is the biggest welfare winner in dollar value terms. Both Japan and the Republic of Korea enjoy higher welfare gains from A+3FTA than from their bilateral FTAs with ASEAN. However, for the PRC, the welfare gains from ACFTA are substantially higher than those from A+3FTA. Overall, the results imply that ASEAN, Japan, and the Republic of Korea would prefer A+3FTA, whereas the PRC would prefer ACFTA. At the same time, ASEAN's most preferred bilateral FTA is ACFTA.

Table 10: Model Aggregations

Economies	Sectors
ASEAN (9)*: Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam	Agriculture/fishing/forestry Beverage and food products Textile and apparel Chemical products
China, People's Republic of	Metal and steel products
Japan	Vehicle and other transport equipments
Korea, Rep. of	Electronic products
EU (27)	Machinery
NAFTA (3): Canada, Mexico, United States	Other manufactures
ROW	Services

ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, EU = European Union, NAFTA = North American Free Trade Agreement, ROW = rest of world.

Note: Brunei Darussalam is excluded because of the data problem in GTAP.

Source: Authors' aggregations.

Table 11: Output and Welfare Effects of ACFTA, AJFTA, AKFTA, and A+3FTA**ASEAN-PRC FTA**

	Static CGE model			Capital accumulation CGE model		
	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)
ASEAN	0.65	0.31	2,104	1.34	1.09	7,444
PRC	0.57	0.13	1,942	0.90	0.46	6,981
Japan	-0.15	-0.03	-1,092	-0.16	-0.05	-1,807
Korea, Rep. of	-0.29	-0.12	-688	-0.37	-0.20	-1,200

ASEAN-Japan FTA

	Static CGE model			Capital accumulation CGE model		
	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)
ASEAN	-0.13	0.19	1,317	0.87	1.33	9,091
Japan	0.65	0.10	3,824	0.69	0.17	6,705
PRC	-0.19	-0.06	-966	-0.21	-0.09	-1,417
Korea, Rep. of	-0.20	-0.07	-447	-0.25	-0.13	-747

ASEAN-Republic of Korea FTA

	Static CGE model			Capital accumulation CGE model		
	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)
ASEAN	0.16	0.15	993	0.49	0.53	3,616
Korea, Rep. of	1.40	0.44	2,606	1.90	0.97	5,775
PRC	-0.11	-0.05	-716	-0.12	-0.07	-1,021
Japan	-0.07	-0.01	-471	-0.06	-0.01	-409

ASEAN+3 FTA

	Static CGE model			Capital accumulation CGE model		
	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)	GDP (%)	Welfare (%)	Welfare (US\$ million)
ASEAN	0.15	0.44	3,010	1.83	2.36	16,179
PRC	0.53	0.04	674	1.30	0.81	12,260
Japan	1.51	0.25	9,850	1.54	0.40	15,844
Korea, Rep. of	2.76	0.91	5,442	4.31	2.54	15,157

AJFTA = ASEAN-Japan Free Trade Agreement, AKFTA = ASEAN-[Republic of] Korea Free Trade Agreement, A+3FTA = ASEAN plus the "Big Three" Free Trade Agreement, ASEAN = Association of Southeast Asian Nations, CGE = computable general equilibrium, EU = European Union, NAFTA = North American Free Trade Agreement, ROW = rest of world.

Note: % refers to percentage deviation from the baseline; US\$ million refers to the value of deviation from the baseline. Estimated gross domestic product (GDP) and welfare effects of the FTAs on NAFTA, the EU, and ROW are available from authors upon request.

Source: Authors' estimates.

We now report and discuss the results of the dynamic CGE model which incorporates the effects of FTAs on capital accumulation. As noted earlier, this model has a special resonance for East Asia, which has traditionally relied on high savings and investment rates to power its growth. Results indicate that the positive dynamic effects of FTAs on their member countries outweigh their static effects, consistent with *a priori* expectations. As in the static model, the dynamic model shows that ACFTA delivers higher GDP gains for ASEAN, relative to the baseline, than either AJFTA or AKFTA. This is indeed plausible for the following reasons: (i) ACFTA is bigger than the other two bilateral FTAs in terms of population and GDP PPP; (ii) ACFTA offers a wider scope for trade creation since the PRC's tariffs are higher than either the Republic of Korea or Japan's tariffs; (iii) there is a higher degree of complementarity between ASEAN's exports and the PRC's imports than with either imports of the Republic of Korea or Japan; and (iv) ASEAN has closer per capita incomes with the PRC, thus, offering wider scope for intra-industry trade. However, given its size, A+3FTA delivers substantially larger GDP gains for ASEAN than ACFTA. AKFTA delivers bigger GDP gains for the Republic of Korea than either ACFTA for the PRC or AJFTA for Japan, which is a reflection of how trade with ASEAN is more important for the Republic of Korea than for the other two members of the Big Three. The value of the Republic of Korea's net exports with ASEAN is higher as a share of GDP than the respective shares of the PRC and Japan. However, for all three countries A+3FTA delivers much bigger GDP gains than their respective bilateral FTAs with ASEAN. In terms of welfare, AJFTA is more beneficial for ASEAN than either ACFTA or AKFTA; in the CGE's baseline year (2004), the value of ASEAN's imports from Japan was higher than imports from the PRC or the Republic of Korea, and thus the model may be capturing marked improvements in ASEAN's welfare due to lower import prices from Japan with the tariff reductions as well improvements in productivity given enhanced competition with such a technologically advanced country as Japan. Overall, A+3FTA is the most beneficial of all on the basis of welfare changes. Among the three bilateral FTAs, the Republic of Korea gains the most in percentage terms while the PRC is the biggest winner in dollar value terms. For all three countries, A+3FTA delivers far larger welfare gains than their respective bilateral FTAs with ASEAN. Overall, the results strongly imply that A+3FTA is the most beneficial of the FTAs for ASEAN as well as the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea in terms of both GDP and welfare. Among the three bilateral FTAs, ACFTA is ASEAN's most preferred FTA in terms of GDP but AJFTA is ASEAN's most preferred FTA in terms of welfare.

5. Concluding Observations

For ASEAN, the global crisis highlighted the substantial risk of excessive dependence on exports to markets outside the region, in particular the US and the EU. At a broader level, ASEAN has suffered a palpable loss of economic momentum since the Asian financial crisis of 1997/98. The rapid rise of the PRC and India as potential competitors is also causing widespread concern within the region. As a result, ASEAN countries are actively seeking new sources of dynamism to revitalize their economies. There is no need for ASEAN to look far for potential sources of demand and growth. There are three large economies in the region's own backyard: the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea.

The PRC and Japan are the world's second and third largest economies, and the Republic of Korea also ranks among the world's fifteen biggest economies. Therefore, the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea are collectively large enough to offer ASEAN huge potential gains from trade. In fact, ASEAN members trade extensively with the Big Three as the level of trade between ASEAN and each of the Big Three has grown rapidly in recent years. However, much of this trade is trade in parts and components, which is driven by demand from outside the region. While there are elements of competition between ASEAN and the Big Three (especially the PRC), as well as elements of partnership, the dramatic rise of Asia as the third center of the world economy implies a corresponding expansion of the scope for intra-Asian trade.

The central objective of this paper is to qualitatively and quantitatively analyze the feasibility and desirability of four different possible options for ASEAN to further liberalize trade with the Big Three: ACFTA, AJFTA, AKFTA, and A+3FTA. This is of more than passing interest since ASEAN is going all-out to pursue freer trade with the Big Three. In fact, both ACFTA and AKFTA have already entered into force. According to the results of our qualitative analysis and quantitative analysis, ASEAN will gain the most from A+3FTA, which is by far the largest FTA among East Asian countries. Furthermore, the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea will also gain more from A+3FTA than from their respective bilateral FTAs with ASEAN. Our finding of the primacy of A+3FTA is consistent with earlier CGE studies. It is also consistent with economic intuition since a larger FTA generates more trade opportunities and larger dynamic efficiency gains, which is why multilateral WTO liberalization is always preferable to regional liberalization. Among the three bilateral FTAs, the balance of evidence from both types of analysis indicates that ACFTA will deliver bigger benefits for ASEAN than AJFTA or AKFTA. A comparison of ACFTA, AJFTA, and AKFTA is meaningful in that it allows us to see the relative magnitude of the benefits for ASEAN from the three FTAs. However, the broader, more fundamental finding from our analysis is that all three bilateral FTAs will deliver substantial output and welfare gains for ASEAN. The PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea also experience sizable benefits from their bilateral FTAs, which suggests that bilateral FTAs are also in their self-interest.

In an ideal world, ASEAN and the Big Three would be working together to establish A+3FTA, which would bring together virtually all the major economies of East Asia into a single free trade area. The rise of East Asia as the most dynamic component of the world economy, in conjunction with large and growing intra-East Asian trade, renders A+3FTA a logical culmination of the region's efforts to strengthen intra-regional trade integration. While intra-East Asian trade integration has already reached fairly high levels, setting up the A+3FTA would give a further push to trade integration. In particular, A+3FTA could help galvanize intra-regional trade in final goods and services.

In the real world, as opposed to an ideal world, special interest groups with vested interests stand in the way of freer trade. For example, farmers in Japan and the Republic of Korea, which have a comparative disadvantage in agriculture, are likely to oppose trade liberalization that would expose them to competition from cheaper foreign products. Furthermore, negotiating A+3FTA is much more difficult than negotiating bilateral FTAs since it requires reconciling not just the interests of ASEAN and a bilateral partner, but

the interests of ASEAN and the Big Three, which are complicated by historical and geopolitical factors.

The natural policy implication for ASEAN policymakers is to concentrate their efforts on bilateral FTAs. They have already made a lot of progress in this regard, having concluded bilateral FTAs with the PRC and the Republic of Korea. Since our evidence indicates that AJFTA will deliver substantial benefits for ASEAN, policymakers should also prioritize AJFTA. Our finding that AJFTA is also beneficial to Japan is conducive for ASEAN's pursuit of AJFTA. Finally, our analysis of ASEAN's FTAs with the Big Three is predicated on the premise that ASEAN's pursuit of closer trade links with its large neighbors should not compromise its vital trade links with the outside world.

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ASEAN's Free Trade Agreements with the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea: A Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis

Expanding trade with East Asia's "Big Three" economic giants—the People's Republic of China, Japan, and the Republic of Korea—offers a new potential source of growth for ASEAN. The central objective of this paper is to qualitatively and quantitatively assess the different permutations of ASEAN's free trade agreements (FTAs) with the Big Three. The two types of analyses both suggest that an ASEAN+3 FTA would deliver the largest economic benefits for the region.

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