



FEMISE RESEARCH  
PROGRAMME

2004-2005

***Obstacles to South-South Integration,  
to trade and to foreign direct investment:  
the MENA countries case***

**Research n°FEM22-36**

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**November 2005**



Ce rapport a  t  r alis  avec le soutien financier de la Commission des Communaut s Europ ennes. Les opinions exprim es dans ce texte n'engagent que les auteurs et ne refl tent pas l'opinion officielle de la Commission.

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**Economic Research Forum**

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# **PROJET FEMISE**

## **FEM22-36**

**Obstacles to South-South Integration, to trade and to  
foreign direct investment: the MENA countries case**

**RAPPORT FINAL – Octobre 2005**

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## Obstacles to South-South Integration, to trade and to foreign direct investment: the MENA countries case

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## *Executive summary*





## Executive summary

*Jacques Le Cacheux<sup>1</sup>*

MENA (Middle East and North Africa) countries occupy the South and East shores of the Mediterranean Sea and constitute a very heterogeneous and little economically integrated group of countries<sup>2</sup>. Some of them have long signed trade or other economic agreements with the European Union (EU), and have had long-standing economic links with EU countries. Others have been tempted by more protectionist and self-centered development strategies. They all have been included since 1995 in the so-called Barcelona process, by which the EU has been extending an economic and cooperation association strategy with its Mediterranean neighbors. In the field of trade, Turkey has been the first to sign bilateral liberalization agreements with the EU and has been on a customs union regime with the EU since 1994. And while the Barcelona process has been slow to yield tangible results, many MENA countries have now signed bilateral association agreements with extensive free-trade provisions with the EU. Simultaneously, a number of them, including Jordan and Morocco, have also signed free-trade agreements with the US, and most, but not all, are members of the World Trade Organization (WTO).

All these developments indicate that MENA countries are actively pursuing strategies of trade openness and of economic integration with their major trading partners and with the rest of the world. Except for Turkey and Lebanon, they are however highly protectionist and still remain relatively minor players in the international trade arena, with total exports barely exceeding .5% of total world exports for Turkey, the largest and most open MENA country. Differences in trade openness, geographical direction of trade and international specialization are very large indeed within the group. At the beginning of this century, Tunisia, Israel and Morocco were the most open of the MENA countries, Turkey being the largest and slightly less open (Cheval and Darrigues,

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<sup>2</sup> Lack of data or other difficulties with data have constrained the authors of the various chapters to retain only limited and not always identical lists of countries to study the various dimensions of international insertion of MENA countries. Most trade data used in this report are taken from the CEPII CHELEM data base, running up to 2002. More on data difficulties in the implementation report.

CD, Chap.1, Section 2). In 2002, the EU appeared to be a key trading partner for all MENA countries, but this was especially true for Tunisia, followed by Morocco and Algeria, whereas Egypt and Tunisia had a relatively less polarized external trade (Bouët, B, Chap.1, Section 1).

This report offers an in-depth analysis of MENA countries' international integration, including detailed comparisons with other countries or regions. However, contrary to most previous studies dedicated to international economic, monetary and financial relations of the MENA countries, the present report also focuses on intra-region integration.

**Chapter 1** is dedicated to an in-depth analysis of trade policies and their impact on trade flows, both composition and direction of MENA countries' trade. The measurement issue is extensively discussed in the *first section* (B, Ch.1, S1), where the major instruments used are presented and interpretation discussed. Using the MacMap database on trade protection policies, it is possible to construct a welfare-equivalent measure of effective protection of all protectionist measures and thus obtain a detailed assessment of each country's protection and market access on a fairly disaggregate level. Focusing on market access, this first part of the analysis in particular shows that MENA countries all face moderate protection for their exports, though the situation varies considerably from country to country, mostly due to the product composition of their export flows: hence for instance, Libya and Algeria, whose exports are essentially oil and gas, bearing little or no import duties in the majority of importing countries, face very low average protection on their exports. However, when assessed on a detailed, product-composition basis when due account is taken of preferential margins, preferential treatments, in particular those granted by the EU in the framework of the Euromed treaties, do appear to make a difference in market access: this is especially true for textile exports from MENA countries, mostly to the benefit of Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey.

In order to get precise and disaggregate measure of the potential effects of trade liberalization policies, the MIRAGE model, built and maintained in CEPPII, is then used for various experiments, the medium-to-long term outcomes of which can then be compared: a South-South free trade agreement, a series of South-North bilateral free trade agreements, and a multilateral full trade liberalization. The exercise focuses on three MENA countries: Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey, the others being lumped in a single zone due to lack of data in the MIRAGE model.

As could be expected from the initial structure of trade flows and their relative importance, the first experiment has almost no impact on the rest of the world; it however entails very significant welfare gains for Turkey and, to a lesser extent, for Tunisia, whereas Morocco is the major loser, being initially the most protectionist and the one suffering a deterioration in terms of trade due to trade diversion (mostly from EU to other MENA countries). Simultaneously, the sectoral structure of the MENA countries is altered, with large gains for Turkey in the textile and wearing industry, in meat and cereals, losses for Tunisia in milk, cereals, etc.

The second experiment (North-South liberalization) yields a mild deterioration in the terms of trade of the three MENA countries considered, but offset by significant GDP gains, due to large trade creation effects, especially for Morocco and Tunisia.

Imports from the rest of the world, especially the EU, also increase significantly. Turkey gains less, being initially the least protectionist country vis-à-vis the EU. Other MENA countries bear a small welfare loss, because their terms of trade deteriorate and trade effects are relatively less than for the three others. North-South liberalization entails very inter-sector shifts in These countries, especially in agriculture and textile and wearing.

A multilateral full trade liberalization yield larger welfare gains for all MENA countries than any of the two previously analyzed scenarios, but also entails larger shifts in industry structures, meaning that short-term costs are probably larger and that there would be larger distributional effects amongst winners and losers within the MENA countries.

Finally, when comparing the structural effects of the three liberalization scenarios, it should be emphasized that they are quite large and along very different patterns, meaning that liberalization is generally costly, but also that it may not be wise to start from regional liberalization if the final aim is to get full, multilateral liberalization. The first section of Chapter 1 gives detailed evaluations and comparisons of these sectoral effects in the MENA countries, and proposes a new measure of “structural congruence”, which allows assessing the various possible paths of liberalization for each MENA country. It shows that each country is facing different costs for each liberalization strategy.

The **second section** of Chapter 1 (CD, Ch.1, S2) offers a detailed analysis of MENA countries specialization, covering Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Morocco, Tunisia, and Turkey, over the period 1967-2002. The indicator used is the CEPII contribution to trade balance, with a sector disaggregation in 6 stages of the production process<sup>3</sup>, the construction of which is presented at the beginning of the Section 2. This indicator may be interpreted as measuring “revealed comparative advantage”. For all MENA countries except Israel, it shows a marked specialization in primary products at the beginning of the period. But, except for Algeria and Egypt, the pattern of specialization has changed significantly in time: Morocco, Tunisia and even more so Turkey, have witnessed a spectacular rise in their trade openness from the early 1980’s on, and this process has been accompanied by an increasing specialization in consumption goods exports. Israel has distinctly different pattern of specialization, more like other industrialized countries, with in particular a rising equipment sector contribution to external trade balance.

In a second step, the analysis is then carried out in terms of sector specialization. It is then shown that patterns have changed over time in all countries of the sample, except for Algeria, persistently stuck on a mono-sector specialization in energy. The pattern is more balanced for other countries, but it may be noted that three of them (Morocco, Tunisia, and Turkey) have progressively developed a strong specialization in Textile, making them vulnerable to competition form the rest of the world, in particular from China and Asia. Egypt, Israel, and, to a lesser extent, Morocco, have relatively balanced pattern.

The third indicator used in this Section 2 measures the similarity between each country’s structure of exports and those of other countries, thus assessing the degree of

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<sup>3</sup> Goods are grouped in six categories according to their degree of elaboration: primary, basic manufactured, intermediate, equipment, mixed, consumption. The detailed list is given in Section 2 of Chapter 1.

competition bearing on each country. It shows that national patterns are close to other countries': thus, for instance Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey have relatively close specialization patterns, but the former two also appear close to Romania, Macedonia and small Asian countries, whereas Turkey's pattern appears similar Southern European countries, China, India, etc., and Israel's closer to industrial countries' (US, The Netherlands, UK, etc.).

Two further indicators are analyzed in this section: one assesses each country's insertion in the international division of labor, vertical or horizontal, skilled or unskilled labor, etc.; the other is the market shares, both on world markets and on the EU market. The first indicator shows that MENA countries are very heterogeneous in terms insertion in the international division of labor. The second shows that MENA countries' shares in world and EU markets have reached a maximum in 1985, and then decreased afterwards, except for manufacturing. When decomposed in various components, these variations may be explained by structural effects.

In **Section 3 of Chapter 1** (CDM, Ch.1, S3), an analysis of intra-regional trade protection is offered, based on a synthetic indicator of tariff protection; the evaluation of protection effects is then carried out on the basis of a econometrically estimated gravity model. This section shows that the effects of tariffs and non-tariff barriers are rather high, and in particular that intra-regional protection is very significant. The results in this section suggest that trade liberalization may have significantly larger effects than what the first section tended to conclude, thus emphasizing the divergences in evaluation methods.

**Chapter 2** offers an analysis of exchange rate policies and their consequences, both on trade and investment flows, and on macroeconomic, business cycle fluctuations in MENA countries, in order to show how monetary policies and heterogeneity affect relative performances and macroeconomic fluctuations. In **Section 1 of Chapter 2** (LRM, Ch.2, S1), the gravity framework is again used to analyze the determinants of MENA countries' trade flows, including this time exchange-rate regimes, levels and volatility, in order to assess the specific impact of these developments on trade flows. Indeed, given the close commercial links between MENA countries and the EU, the theory of optimal currency areas would suggest that stabilizing bilateral exchange rates by pegging to the euro may be the preferred strategy for most MENA countries. Empirically though, when estimating a standard gravity model over a very large a diversified sample of countries, including MENA countries, the latter do not appear to behave differently from the rest, and determinants other than exchange rate levels and volatility seem to dominate. On the other hand, intra-area exchange-rate volatility appears higher than in other parts of the part, suggesting that this may be an important impediment to regional integration and the development of bilateral trade flows amongst MENA countries. Hence, it is not clear whether stabilizing exchange rates vis-à-vis the euro would make much difference in terms of trade flows, except as an indirect way of stabilizing intra-area exchange rates.

In **Section 2 of Chapter 2** (BI, Ch.2, S2), macroeconomic aspects of intra-area interdependences are investigated with the help of an analysis of business-cycle fluctuations. Using the standard method of Hodrick-Prescott filtering of time series, it is shown that cross-correlations between national fluctuations amongst MENA countries are extremely weak, even when the area is split in two, more homogeneous groups (Middle-East countries and Maghreb countries). Only long cycles seem to display more significant cross correlations. Interpreted in the light of the theory of optimal currency

areas, these results suggest that MENA countries are quite far from the minimum requirements in terms of regional integration.

**Chapter 3** (DDIL, Ch.3) offers an original empirical analysis of the impact transport costs on trade flows amongst MENA countries. In this chapter again, a gravity model of trade is estimated, this time including transport costs, and used to assess the potential impact of infrastructure building on trade flows. After investigating various methods for measuring transport costs, the authors point to the difficulties of getting appropriate direct evidence on transport costs and turn to an indirect, reduced-form approach, based on distance, time, topology and technology.

The Chapter shows that large transport costs due to poor infrastructures have a very significant depressing effect on MENA countries' trade flows. This seems to be especially true for maritime transports, where costs have been increasing over time. The estimates suggest that improving transport and telecommunication infrastructures in these countries may lead to an increase in trade volume between a 34% and 55%, analogous to the effect of a 512km to 709km reduction in distance between these countries.

**Chapter 4** (R, Ch.4) explores the issue of real and nominal convergence amongst MENA countries, this time covering a fairly large sample of 22 Southern and Eastern Mediterranean countries. The chapter starts with a review of existing regional trade and exchange-rate agreements. It then provides an extensive survey of convergence concepts and indicators, including most recent Kernel function techniques. The analytical tools are then applied to the measurement of real (per-capita GDP) and nominal (inflation rate) convergence amongst the countries of the sample, over fairly long periods of time (22 countries over 50 years for the former, 12 countries over 33 years for the latter). Regarding real convergence, the analysis shows that there exist convergence club, three of them being identified at the beginning of the period, and only remaining at the end. With respect to inflation dynamics, the results show divergence until the mid-1980s, then convergence afterwards, with all countries of the sample (except Egypt and Iran) having converged by the early 2000s. In terms of policy implications, the chapter concludes that, given the relative divergence of per-capita GDPs, the Balassa-Samuelson effect would make exchange-rate pegging policies ineffective and may even lead to increased nominal divergence.



## Chapter 1.

*Measuring trade barriers  
and their impact of trade flows*





PART 1.  
**The market access issue  
in Southern Mediterranean countries**

*Antoine Bouët*

## 1 Introduction

The recent evolution of the international trading system has prioritized two directions. Multilateralism is still a key dimension even if ongoing negotiations, led under the aegis of the WTO, are surprisingly slow. Regionalism is the second way by which most of trade policies are ruled. In 2001 only seven countries did not take part of a reciprocal or a non reciprocal regional trade agreement<sup>2</sup>.

Southern Mediterranean (SM) countries<sup>3</sup> trade policies might be considered are not uncommon. Some are WTO members: Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey since 1995, Jordan since 2000. All have been granted trade preferences from their very rich neighbor (European Union). Some signed a few bilateral agreements and the negotiation of a vast Euro-Mediterranean free trade area is in progress.

But as far as an in-depth assessment is carried out SM countries' trade policies appear unusual. Firstly these are (highly) protectionist countries: on the 147 countries available in the MacMap-HS6 database, Egypt is ranked 5<sup>th</sup> amongst the most protectionists, Libya 9<sup>th</sup>, Morocco 10<sup>th</sup>, Tunisia 11<sup>th</sup>. Only Turkey and especially Lebanon are open countries. Except for the latter, these countries have adopted an import - substitution strategy during the decades 1960/1970. In the case of Algeria, Egypt and Libya the objective was only the domestic market, but in Morocco and Tunisia production factors were reallocated in order to promote exports.

Their regional strategy is even more singular. SM countries have been receiving trade preference from Europe for a few decades, but it only concerns a non reciprocal free access for industrial products; they do not have any preference on exportation of agricultural goods and services to Europe. In 1995 the Barcelona declaration defined a

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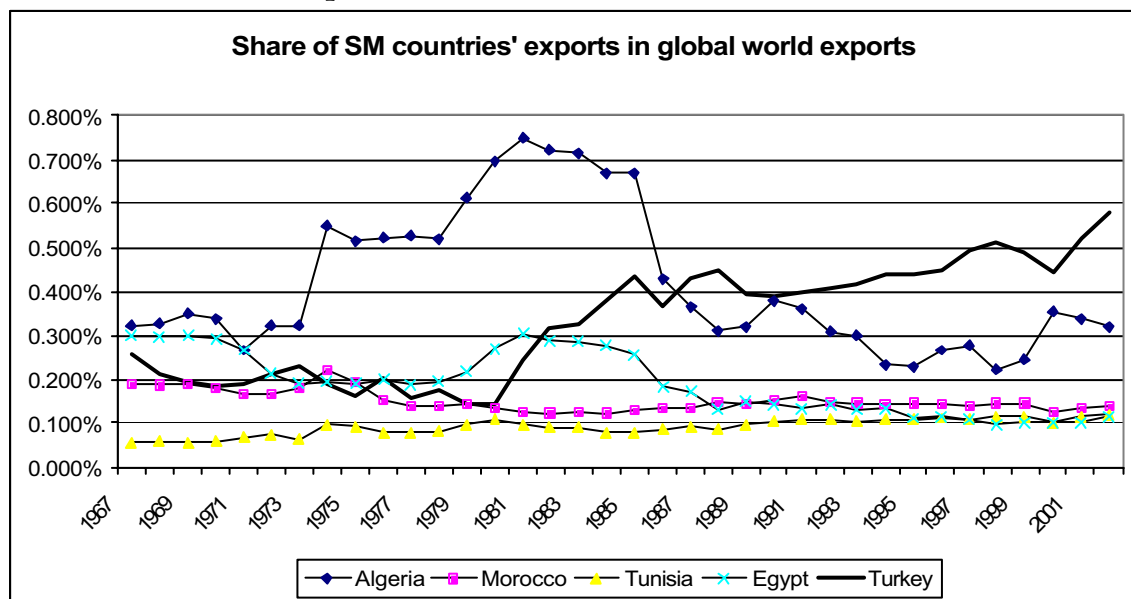
<sup>2</sup> See Bouet and Mayer, (2003).

<sup>3</sup> We define this zone as: Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon and Turkey.

new partnership between European Union and SM countries. From a mercantilist point of view this agreement is unfair; of course it contains positive elements (the agreement is perennial, the cumulating of rules of origin was extended) but it remains that SM countries will open their industrial sectors to European products, while Europe is already open. This is a quite singular feature of a North-South regional agreement<sup>4</sup>.

The European Union lost its position of unique regional partner with SM countries. Morocco and Jordan have signed a free trade agreement with the USA. Furthermore bilateral reciprocal agreements with rich countries are not the only axis by which SM countries have carried out regional partnerships: Morocco concluded free trade agreements with Algeria (Tariff convention, March 14<sup>th</sup>, 1989) and Libya (Tariff convention, June 29<sup>th</sup>, 1990). Finally a great pan-Arabian free trade area is in progress since the decision adopted by the Arabian League in 1997. Tariff dismantling started on January 1<sup>st</sup>, 1998, but it includes numerous exceptions.

**Graphic 1.**



(Source: CHELEM and author's calculation)

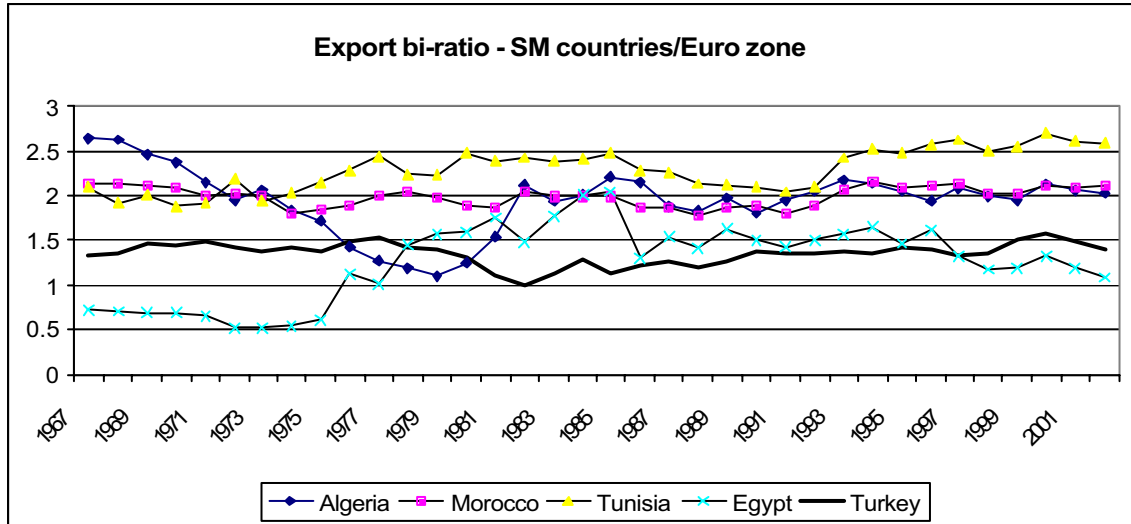
Graphic 1 indicates SM countries' share of global world exports. From 1987 to 2003 Turkey and Tunisia substantially increased this share, while this statistic decreased for Morocco and Egypt. The Algerian case is specific, as the statistic is highly volatile due to the evolution of the oil market<sup>5</sup>.

The external trade of these countries is strongly affected by close economic relations with Europe. Obviously it is due to geographic proximity and to the high level of European income, but trade agreements have also been playing a role. Graphic 2 is measuring this point.

**Graphic 2.**

<sup>4</sup> Turkey signed an industrial custom union agreement with Europe in 1995.

<sup>5</sup> Trade statistics are not available for Libya and Lebanon in the CHELEM database.



(Source: CHELEM and author’s calculation)

The statistic used here is an “export bi-ratio”<sup>6</sup>: 
$$\frac{X_{i,EU} / X_{i,\cdot}}{X_{\cdot,EU} / X_{\cdot,\cdot}}$$

$X_{i,j}^h$  is exports of good h from country i to country j; a dot indicates a sum. The numerator measures the share of exports towards Europe in country i’s exports<sup>7</sup>. The denominator is the share of exports towards in world exports. Thus if Europe is a relatively key destination for country i, this statistic is greater than unity.

As revealed by Graphic 2 Europe is clearly a key trade partner for SM countries. It has been even more and more the case for Egypt and Tunisia.

Table 1 indicates the product composition of SM countries’ exports and imports<sup>8</sup>. In the case of exports, the share of manufactures is prominent in Jordan, Morocco, Tunisia, and Turkey. Egypt and especially Syria export mostly mining products. On the other side manufactures represent between one half and three quarters of total imports.

**Table 1 Sector breakdown of SM countries’ exports and imports - 2003**

	Egypt		Jordan		Morocco		Syria		Tunisia		Turkey	
	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports
Agricultural products	15.3	29.6	14.4	19.3	23.2	14.3	17.0	23.2	7.7	11.2	10.9	7.5
Mining products	46.2	8.0	12.8	18.5	9.7	18.3	72.2	6.3	9.2	8.8	4.0	17.4
Manufactures	30.5	48.4	65.9	58.8	66.9	67.1	10.7	70.5	74.6	72.7	84.1	65.4

(Source: WTO)

Thus in a nutshell SM countries are giving the picture of historically protectionist nations which recently became converts to the virtue of free trade. But they are still hesitating on the strategy to adopt: multilateralism? regional agreements? With rich or middle income countries?

The object of this study is the market access issue for SM countries. We try to reply to three questions:

- (i) How restricted is market access in SM countries?
- (ii) How restricted is foreign market access for SM countries?

<sup>6</sup> For a presentation, see Freudenberg et al., 1998a and 1998b.

<sup>7</sup> On Figure 2 this is the zone France, Belgium, Luxembourg, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Austria, Spain, Finland, Portugal, Greece. The EU-15 is not available in the CHELEM database.

<sup>8</sup> Algeria, Lebanon and Libya are not available in the WTO database of national trade profiles.

- (iii) What are the best policy options for SM countries in order to open their economies to world competition?

We firstly intend to describe the degree of protectionism in these countries and the access they have been granted on world markets. Secondly we try to define the consistency of their trade strategy and the compatibility between a multilateral option and a regional one (either North/South or South/South).

After a brief exposition of methodological issues in section 2, section 3 gives an assessment of protection in SM countries and of their access to the world market. Section 4 studies the consistency of SM countries' trade policies. Section 5 concludes.

## 2 Methodological issues

Measuring market access has for decades been a real stake of economic research. Since Baldwin (1989), it is traditional to distinguish incidence-based and outcome-based measures of openness; the former evaluate the degree of restrictiveness of a trade policy directly from the level and the dispersion of tariffs and from an assessment of the implications of non-tariff barriers. The latter utilize trade data to reveal openness. This study will focus on the first methodological approach.

### 2.1 *Why is it so difficult to measure market access?*

Let us define firstly what protectionism is. It is any kind of action adopted by a government which impedes the importation of a good or a service, originated in a foreign country. This impediment is relative: access of domestic buyers to foreign goods becomes more costly than to domestic goods. It means that if domestic and foreign goods are equally taxed, this is not protectionism.

Policies which can fulfill this purpose are manifold. Some protectionist instruments are traditional (custom duties, quotas), others are quite new (tariffs quotas, sanitary and phyto - sanitary norms, technical norms, administrative regulations...) or have indirect effects (domestic support.) Thus measuring market access needs a comparative assessment of various policy instruments, some of which having unknown objective and/of uncertain impact (norms).

But more detailed information is needed: Northern countries' trade policies are revealing a very large dispersion of protection across goods and across partners.

- i) The first point (dispersion of protection across commodities) is well-known: market access in agriculture is quite restricted in countries like Japan, Switzerland, and Iceland and is frequently highly concentrated on a few products (meat, cereals, sugar, milk and dairy products, tobacco.) Recent studies highlight annually seasonal variations in protection<sup>9</sup>, but for capturing this effect a huge disaggregated database on tariffs is needed (HS14).
- ii) The second point (dispersion of protection across partners) has only been recently taken into account: regional agreements have been massively implemented in the last 15 years and developing countries have been granted numerous preferential schemes by rich countries. This intricate scheme is currently a major element of trade relations and this information needs to be incorporated in an assessment of protection. Of course, this is a central issue as it adds a supplementary dimension: market access must be measured on a four-dimensional basis

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<sup>9</sup> Gallezot, 2002.

(importing country \* product \* instrument \*exporting country<sup>10</sup>.)

## 2.2 A detailed and bilateral measure of protection is needed

The MacMap database is a joint effort done by the International Trade Centre – ITC– (United Nations Conference on Trade And Development –UNCTAD– & World Trade Organization –WTO–, Geneva) and the Centre d’Etudes Prospectives et d’Informations Internationales –CEPII– (Paris) to systematically collect detailed and exhaustive information on the level of applied trade barriers (see Bouet et alii, 2005).

Although a lot of information existed through different databases (TRAINS, WITS, ITAS...), no comprehensive assessment of AVE applied protection across the world was available. It resulted in most assessment of the level of worldwide protection or of the impact of multilateral trade liberalization being carried out without taking into account specific tariffs, nor trade preferences, even if the GTAP network has done considerable efforts in order to offering a consistent database.<sup>11</sup> Gathering such information in a consistent and tractable way has been the first motivation of the MAcMap database. Beyond proper collection and harmonization of information, however, the development of MAcMap also aimed at dealing with the main methodological hurdles encountered when trying to produce tariff data well-suited for large-scale analysis, in particular as far as the calculation of the AVEs of specific duties and the aggregation procedure are concerned.

Basically, MAcMap is a set of files at the tariff line level that can be mobilized for several purposes, noticeably single client studies and interactive web databases for the business community realized at the ITC. The dataset used in GTAP derives from one specific application of MAcMap, namely the construction and consolidation by the CEPII of a database at the HS-6 level, intended to provide a set of consistent and exhaustive AVEs of applied border protection across the world (165 reporting countries are covered, for 5,111 products, with 208 partners) in 2001, suitable to analytical purposes. MAcMap-HS6 is regularly improved and updated, and the corresponding information is available on the CEPII's website ([www.cepii.fr](http://www.cepii.fr)).

The construction of MacMap-HS6 has thus prioritized four issues:

- (i) the integration of all regional agreements and trade preferences;
- (ii) the assessment of ad valorem equivalent of specific tariffs according to a methodology which accounts for the differentiated protective impact of this instrument when product quality varies;
- (iii) the assessment of ad valorem equivalent of tariff quotas according to a methodology which accounts for the *marginal* impact of this instrument on trade flows;
- (iv) an aggregation procedure which takes into account the potential importance of trade flows on which tariffs are imposed while avoiding the well known endogeneity bias.

This study is using the MacMap database to estimate protection in SM countries.

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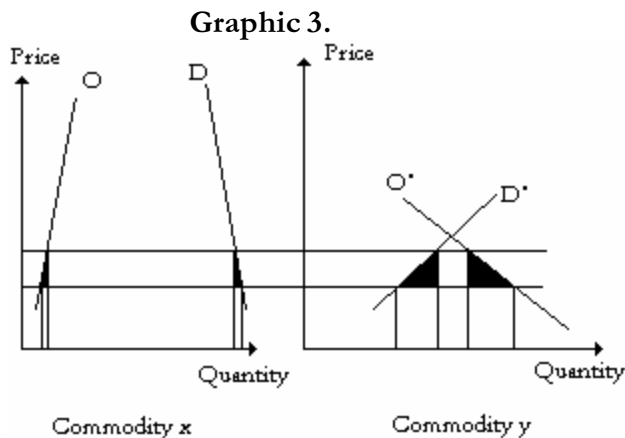
<sup>10</sup> For a detailed analysis of these methodological issues, see Balassa (1965), Laird (1996) and Bouet (2000).

<sup>11</sup> None of these two aspects were accounted for in the tariff data included in the GTAP 5 database (see Dimaranan and McDougall, 2002), which has been the workhorse for the empirical assessments of the impact of multilateral liberalization.

### 2.3 Finding a welfare (import) equivalent index

Progress has been realized about the measurement of trade barriers. K. Anderson and W. Martin (2005) argue for example that a major improvement in the understanding of the impact of trade liberalization comes from the fact that “*the new protection data include, for the first time, bound as well as applied tariffs, non-reciprocal as well as reciprocal tariff preferences, the ad valorem equivalents of specific tariffs... and the effects of agricultural tariff rate quotas.*” But this work is still far from perfect. Specific duties and tariff rate quotas are now much better taken into account, but they have not the same impact on trade as ad valorem tariffs. So evaluating ad valorem equivalents is somewhat misleading.

As far as aggregation is concerned, even if free trade imports could be perfectly assessed and taken into account when weighing tariffs, it would not tackle the distortions created by tariff barriers. On Graphic 3, the same ad valorem tariff is applied to two different commodities. Under free trade imports of commodity x would be much larger than imports of y. But tariff t creates a larger distortion when applied to imports of y due to different demand and supply elasticity. Thus when free trade imports are utilized to weigh tariffs on these two goods, x is over-represented while tariff on y is much more distorting.



The first impact of tariffs is a reduction in imports. Thus accounting for the trade impact of tariffs, and not the welfare impact would also be a consistent attitude. On Graphic 3, the cut in imports due to a tariff imposition is much larger in the case of commodity y; it means that it would be consistent to give this tariff a higher weight when aggregation is based on mercantilist concerns (that is to say the tariff impact on trade).

This is the reason why Anderson and Bannister (1992), Anderson, Bannister and Neary (1995), Anderson and Neary (1996 et 1999) have developed indexes which are consistent in terms of welfare or trade impact. For example when assessing the tariff policy of a specific country, a Trade Restrictiveness Index (TRI) is measuring the uniform tariff, applied to all commodities, which induces the same reduction in global welfare as the current tariff structure. Section 3 applies these methodological elements to the case of SM countries.

## 3 The market access issue in SM countries: an assessment by the MacMap\_HS6 database

This section is studying the market access issue in SM countries using firstly the MacMap-HS6 database. It assesses not only the level of protection from each importing country's perspective, but also the access to foreign markets (average duty on each country's exports). For every calculation comparisons with other countries are done.

### **3.1 Market access in SM countries**

Let us examine the level of protection from a global perspective before coming at a more detailed (sector and partner) level. Finally the gap between bound and applied duties is examined.

#### **3.1.1 A global perspective**

Table 2 gives a global picture of protection in SM countries, firstly for the entire economy, secondly differentiating agricultural and industrial activities. In order to evaluate the importance of these figures, the same indicators for other countries are given in the same table: three groups of countries are distinguished according to the level of per capita income (OECD countries, Middle Income –MI- countries, Least Developed Countries –LDC<sup>12</sup>.)

It is well-known that average levels of protection are low in rich countries, especially in the Quad. Nevertheless the sector dispersion of tariff protection is high in most OECD countries (Japan, Switzerland, EU, Canada): agriculture is highly protected, and industry is almost in free trade.

In developing countries overall protection is higher and less dispersed. Exceptions are Madagascar which conducts a free trade policy, and Lesotho which has different levels of protection from one sector to the other. Table 2 also points out uneven levels of protection between agriculture and industry in China, India and South Africa.

How restricted is market access in SM countries? Rather very restricted. Graphic 4 gives a ranking of countries throughout the world by their overall level of protection, as calculated by the MacMaps-HS6 database. Protection ranges from 0.0% in Hong-Kong to 46.0% in Bermuda.

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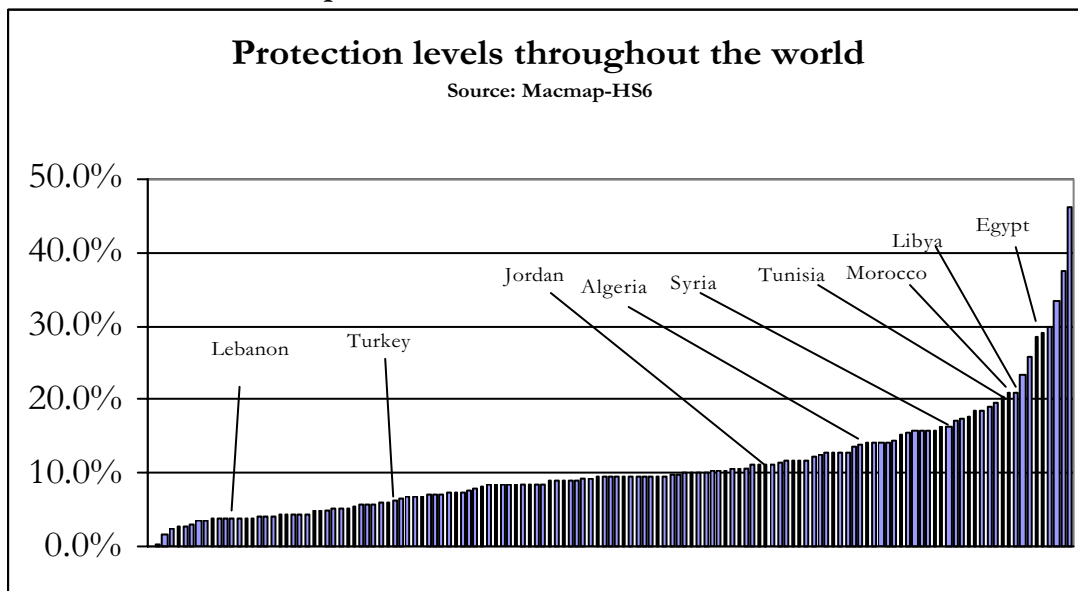
<sup>12</sup> Calculations for other countries are available if requested to the author.

Table 2 Global and sector-level protection in SM (and other) countries

		Global	Agriculture	Industry
<b>SM countries</b>	<i>Algeria</i>	13.8%	17.9%	13.5%
	<i>Egypt</i>	29.0%	13.8%	30.3%
	<i>Jordan</i>	11.2%	11.8%	11.1%
	<i>Lebanon</i>	3.9%	8.8%	3.4%
	<i>Libya</i>	21.0%	11.9%	21.8%
	<i>Morocco</i>	20.9%	43.9%	19.0%
	<i>Syria</i>	16.4%	12.1%	16.8%
	<i>Tunisia</i>	20.2%	57.5%	17.1%
	<i>Turkey</i>	6.1%	42.0%	3.1%
<b>OECD countries</b>	<i>Australia</i>	5.2%	1.2%	5.5%
	<i>Canada</i>	3.5%	15.2%	2.6%
	<i>EU</i>	3.5%	17.2%	2.6%
	<i>Japan</i>	4.1%	37.4%	1.5%
	<i>Switzerland</i>	3.9%	43.7%	1.0%
	<i>USA</i>	2.4%	5.1%	2.2%
<b>MI countries</b>	<i>Argentina</i>	12.5%	11.5%	12.6%
	<i>Brazil</i>	11.8%	10.2%	11.9%
	<i>China</i>	14.1%	23.6%	13.3%
	<i>India</i>	33.4%	59.2%	30.1%
	<i>Pakistan</i>	19.1%	26.9%	18.1%
	<i>South Africa</i>	8.5%	19.4%	7.4%
<b>LDC</b>	<i>Bangladesh</i>	17.4%	20.0%	17.1%
	<i>Cambodia</i>	12.9%	12.7%	13.0%
	<i>Chad</i>	15.8%	21.5%	14.7%
	<i>Ethiopia</i>	14.4%	17.0%	13.9%
	<i>Lesotho</i>	8.1%	20.7%	6.4%
	<i>Madagascar</i>	4.4%	4.8%	4.3%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

Graphic 4.



(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

SM countries are clearly in the protectionist group. The overall rate of protection is very high in Libya, Morocco, and Tunisia and especially in Egypt. Exceptions are Turkey whose protectionist trends have been dominated in the last decade by the



European influence, and Lebanon which has been supporting free trade for a long time. It is noteworthy that Turkish agriculture remains highly protected.

In other SM countries, market access is restricted. When comparing with the level of protection in middle income countries it is somewhat high (the case of India is exceptional.)

A very common feature of trade policies throughout the world is that agriculture is a more protected activity than industry: see the case of Japan and Switzerland on Table 2. Three SM countries do not observe this rule of conduct: Egypt, Libya and Syria. It obviously stems from an infant industries strategy.

### 3.1.2 A detailed approach

Previous tables are not enough informative as they do not reveal protection at the product level. Annex 1 indicates market access at the HS2 chapter level for the same set of countries.

**Table 3 Bilateral protection - 2001**

Reporter	Partner											
	Algeria	Egypt	EU	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Rest OECD	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	USA
Algeria		14.6%	14.6%	15.3%	18.4%	8.6%	0.0%	13.7%	12.8%	19.1%	19.7%	12.0%
Egypt	7.3%		28.6%	10.2%	17.6%	3.2%	14.0%	24.1%	23.8%	15.1%	77.2%	28.2%
Jordan	18.8%	5.8%	12.6%		7.9%	3.6%	4.5%	10.3%	5.0%	7.1%	16.2%	9.9%
Lebanon	2.0%	3.3%	4.7%	5.8%		2.3%	1.8%	3.0%	2.2%	4.5%	7.8%	3.8%
Libya	37.9%	7.6%	21.6%	5.2%	11.6%		0.0%	18.5%	24.0%	7.0%	18.7%	20.5%
Morocco	0.0%	20.5%	18.9%	11.1%	16.6%	0.0%		20.9%	12.7%	15.8%	34.1%	19.5%
Syria	10.1%	16.1%	20.0%	10.8%	17.2%	7.1%	9.7%		16.2%	18.3%	27.7%	14.0%
Tunisia	4.0%	15.9%	12.7%	15.7%	21.8%	4.7%	16.6%	23.2%	12.8%		40.1%	23.7%
Turkey	0.6%	12.0%	3.3%	5.4%	11.4%	1.3%	12.1%	6.2%	6.6%	16.1%		6.2%
Australia	2.7%	7.7%	5.8%	12.7%	4.4%	5.0%	10.4%	5.2%	5.7%	13.8%	12.0%	3.3%
Canada	0.0%	4.5%	4.7%	9.9%	4.7%	0.4%	8.0%	2.6%	1.1%	9.8%	8.0%	0.5%
EU	0.1%	1.7%	3.0%	2.6%	2.8%	0.3%	1.4%	3.9%	0.5%	2.1%	1.5%	3.8%
Japan	0.9%	7.2%	4.6%	6.3%	6.9%	0.2%	6.5%	3.0%	1.4%	6.4%	5.0%	3.0%
Switzerland	0.0%	6.7%	4.1%	18.2%	7.9%	0.0%	8.1%	3.9%	1.8%	3.5%	6.9%	5.4%
USA	0.2%	3.7%	2.7%	4.2%	2.3%	0.2%	5.8%	1.4%	1.1%	6.3%	5.9%	
Argentina	0.2%	13.0%	13.8%	10.7%	15.3%	1.0%	7.9%	12.9%	7.7%	9.5%	16.2%	13.2%
Brazil	0.4%	10.9%	13.9%	7.1%	10.3%	1.0%	7.9%	13.2%	5.0%	11.6%	15.7%	10.6%
China	4.6%	10.6%	16.4%	10.3%	13.8%	1.7%	9.8%	14.3%	6.8%	16.2%	19.2%	13.7%
India	15.6%	24.6%	32.9%	29.4%	32.1%	31.2%	30.4%	33.4%	13.4%	31.0%	34.1%	30.8%
Pakistan	9.6%	12.4%	19.4%	15.1%	17.6%	12.6%	12.6%	20.1%	7.8%	17.5%	21.1%	17.7%
South Africa	1.8%	10.3%	8.2%	4.7%	14.7%	0.4%	5.3%	7.9%	8.5%	6.0%	15.6%	8.0%
Bangla Desh	13.3%	21.3%	14.8%	13.0%	19.6%	17.3%	15.5%	15.8%	7.4%	14.4%	23.2%	15.8%
Cambodia	3.8%	9.1%	14.4%	9.6%	15.6%	6.4%	9.1%	12.9%	10.9%	9.5%	14.2%	15.7%
Chad	11.3%	15.9%	14.8%	11.5%	15.8%	7.5%	23.3%	13.3%	20.4%	24.0%	18.5%	11.9%
Ethiopia	5.9%	9.4%	14.8%	9.0%	15.1%	0.8%	26.4%	9.7%	27.3%	21.0%	16.8%	9.4%
Lesotho	3.6%	6.9%	7.3%	6.1%	9.2%	2.5%	3.1%	7.8%	15.5%	7.7%	13.2%	9.6%
Madagascar	0.7%	0.0%	4.5%	2.3%	4.9%	0.3%	5.8%	4.7%	5.8%	4.9%	3.7%	3.2%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

Rich countries are frequently blamed for the dispersion of their protection structure across products and the existence of tariff peaks in a few agricultural activities: meat, dairy products, cereals, sugar are frequently accused of being overprotected. Annex 1 confirms this point: meat is highly taxed when imported in Switzerland, dairy products in the case of Canada and Japan, cereals are taxed by a quasi – prohibitive duty in Japan... But the same reproach might be done to SM countries: not only those countries are imposing on average high duties, but tariffs are also extremely dispersed across products; market access is severely restricted in Morocco for meat and dairy products, in Syria for beverages, in Tunisia for meat, cut flowers, coffee, tea and spices, sugar, in Turkey for meat, sugar and cocoa.

Tariffs peaks also impede the importation of industrial products in a few countries: the Egyptian import duties on apparel and clothing products set up a record tax in the case of knitted and crocheted articles: 1427%! Duties are also high in the case of apparel and vehicles in Syria. The existence of these tariff peaks could mean either the adoption of some specific economic policies (a newborn industries strategy) or the influence of domestic political lobbies.

A key feature of the MacMap database is that it incorporates all regional agreements and trade preferences. It tackles the degree of trade discrimination which

characterizes trade policy throughout the world. Table 3 reports a measure of market access from a bilateral point of view. It measures access to the row country's market (reporter) for the column country (partner). For example, from a global point of view, Jordan imposes an average duty of 18.8% on products coming from Algeria.

Differences in protection imposed to partners do not reflect only regional integration and North – South preference. It also reflects differences in the product composition of trade flows; for example, a major part of Uruguay's exports is meat and meat products<sup>13</sup>. Trade preferences have been granted to this country by European Union, Japan, and EFTA countries, especially in industry. But it does not fully improve its market access to these countries as long as duties they impose on meat remain high.

So differences in average protection applied to a partner's products come from either a trade agreement or variations in the product composition of trade flows.

Bilateral agreements exist between Morocco and Algeria, and between Morocco and Libya. Due to these agreements trade is free between these countries. SM countries' exports to European Union are less taxed than those originating from other countries, thanks to the Euromed agreements.

Differences in product specialization also matter: due to a concentration of exports on gas and petroleum products Algeria and Libya get a quasi free market access in numerous countries. On the contrary Turkey is highly specialized in apparel and clothing products: this is why this country is very penalized when it exports, especially to Egypt.

From a global perspective SM countries conduct a large discrimination across their trade partners. It comes from a few trade agreements, but also, and it is the main explanation, from the heterogeneity of the tariffs they impose across products.

### 3.1.3 The binding overhang issue

The binding overhang is the difference between MFN bound duties and MFN applied duties. This gap is measuring the extent by which WTO members can raise their protection vis-à-vis other WTO members. Table 4 indicates the average binding margin for the same 27 countries. A few are not WTO members: Algeria, Lebanon, Syria, Libya, and Ethiopia. Middle income countries and especially LDCs are keeping a room for maneuver in their trade policy and their binding margin is on average large, while the converse is true for rich countries. A few exceptions emerge (Japan, China, and Egypt).

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<sup>13</sup> Of course the Uruguay case is not expressed on table 2, but this is a noteworthy example of country penalized by the structure of world protection.

**Table 4**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Binding margin</b>
<i>Algeria</i>	-
<i>Egypt</i>	0.0%
<i>Jordan</i>	2.8%
<i>Lebanon</i>	-
<i>Lybia</i>	-
<i>Morocco</i>	14.4%
<i>Syria</i>	-
<i>Tunisia</i>	16.2%
<i>Turkey</i>	24.8%
<i>Australia</i>	5.0%
<i>Canada</i>	0.6%
<i>EU</i>	0.0%
<i>Japan</i>	31.1%
<i>Switzerland</i>	4.6%
<i>USA</i>	0.0%
<i>Argentina</i>	18.8%
<i>Brazil</i>	21.1%
<i>China</i>	0.0%
<i>India</i>	25.1%
<i>Pakistan</i>	48.4%
<i>South Africa</i>	14.8%
<i>Bangladesh</i>	141.4%
<i>Cambodia</i>	-
<i>Chad</i>	58.3%
<i>Ethiopia</i>	-
<i>Lesotho</i>	80.0%
<i>Madagascar</i>	21.5%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

### **3.2 Market access for SM countries**

Protection is traditionally only measured from the perspective of the importing country. Nevertheless access to foreign markets is a key issue of trade negotiations and of related developments. As the MacMap-HS6 database has added the exporter dimension, it also allows for measuring market access from the perspective of the exporting country.

#### **3.2.1 A global perspective**

Table 5 indicates the average duty faced on exports for the 9 SM countries, then for the 18 others. A column global expresses an average duty for all products whilst the two following give this assessment for agriculture, then for industry.

In 2001 the 9 SM countries have been granted about the same preferences from Northern countries: the Euromed agreements in the case of Europe, the GSP in the case of USA and other OECD countries. A few exceptions exist: Morocco and Jordan have negotiated a free trade agreement with USA, but these two treaties are not taken into account in Table 5 as the first one has been signed on June 15, 2004 and the second one is being implemented from December 17, 2001 on a 10 years period. On the contrary, Libya, Algeria and Syria do not belong to the US GSP-beneficiaries list: they get a more restricted access on this market. Finally as already noted, Morocco has negotiated a free

trade agreement with Libya and Algeria: these trade flows are, however, minor as compared to those from Europe or USA.

Thus differences in average duties faced by SM countries on their exports are essentially coming from their product specialization. Exports from Algeria and Libya are little taxed (gas, petroleum.) Other SM countries are clearly taking advantage of the Euromed agreements and of the duty reduction on textile and apparel exports. Agricultural products are much more imposed but this is a less important concern for these countries as compared to large agro-food exporters: Argentina, Australia, Brazil (on this point the global figure must be compared to the two sector-level figures.)

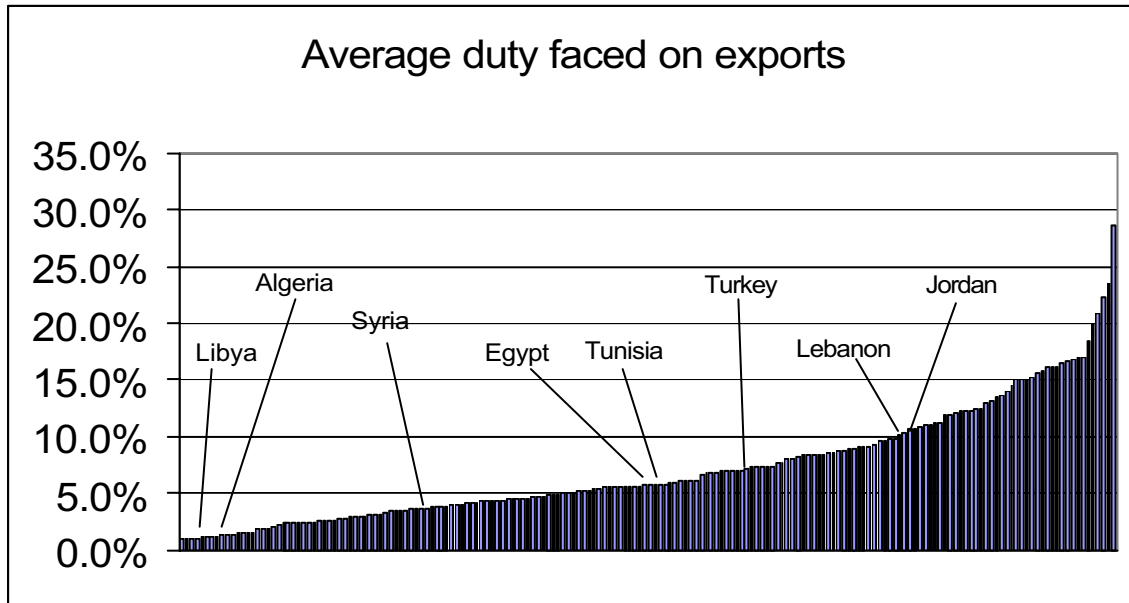
**Table 5 Average duty faced on exports**

		<b>Global</b>	<b>Agriculture</b>	<b>Industry</b>
<b>SM countries</b>	<i>Algeria</i>	1.2%	8.9%	1.2%
	<i>Egypt</i>	5.8%	17.7%	4.3%
	<i>Jordan</i>	10.7%	20.0%	9.6%
	<i>Lebanon</i>	10.2%	17.4%	8.4%
	<i>Libya</i>	1.1%	11.8%	1.1%
	<i>Morocco</i>	5.5%	8.5%	4.7%
	<i>Syria</i>	3.7%	11.4%	2.8%
	<i>Tunisia</i>	5.9%	20.9%	4.9%
	<i>Turkey</i>	7.2%	12.4%	6.6%
	<b>OECD countries</b>	<i>Australia</i>	9.0%	30.2%
<i>Canada</i>		4.2%	16.0%	3.3%
<i>EU</i>		5.9%	19.1%	4.9%
<i>Japan</i>		6.1%	13.0%	6.1%
<i>Switzerland</i>		3.4%	14.9%	3.1%
<i>USA</i>		5.9%	19.2%	4.7%
<b>MI countries</b>		<i>Argentina</i>	13.6%	17.9%
	<i>Brazil</i>	11.1%	23.2%	6.7%
	<i>China</i>	5.9%	16.8%	5.4%
	<i>India</i>	8.9%	17.5%	7.2%
	<i>Pakistan</i>	8.4%	32.3%	6.1%
	<i>South Africa</i>	8.0%	17.9%	6.9%
<b>LDC</b>	<i>Bangladesh</i>	5.3%	4.0%	5.4%
	<i>Cambodia</i>	6.1%	12.3%	6.1%
	<i>Chad</i>	2.0%	2.3%	1.9%
	<i>Ethiopia</i>	8.3%	10.7%	3.1%
	<i>Lesotho</i>	5.4%	7.0%	5.4%
	<i>Madagascar</i>	4.3%	4.0%	4.7%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

Graphic 5 illustrates the ranking of countries throughout the world according to the average duty faced on exports. It confirms a fairly good access to foreign markets for SM countries.

Graphic 5.



### 3.2.2 A detailed approach

Table 22 to Table 24 in annex 2 present average duty faced on exports by HS chapters, for the nine SM countries and the 18 others still ranked by level of income per capita. In agriculture, for all countries except LDCs, exports are facing severe tariff restrictions, especially in the case of meat, dairy products, edible vegetables, cereals, sugars and sugar confectionery, preparation of vegetable, fruit, nuts or other parts of plants, tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes. It is noteworthy that in agriculture SM countries are not benefiting from apparent preferential margins in their world exports, as compared to OECD and middle income countries.

For industrial products, foreign market access is better except a few products: soap, organic surface-active agents and washing preparation, albuminoidal substitutes, modified starches, paper, man-made staple fibers, and articles of apparel and clothing accessories. For the latter activity average duty faced on exports by SM countries are clearly lower than the ones supported by other countries except LDCs. It stems from the preferential access that SM countries have been granted for their exports to European Union.

**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.** indicates bilateral import duty, that is to say the average duty faced on exports of countries ranked in row, at destination of countries ranked in column. For example, Lebanon is facing a 18.4% tariff on its exports to Algeria.

A remarkable feature is the very low duty faced on SM countries' exports to European Union. It is quite similar to the excellent market access that LDCs have been granted in their exports to Europe. It comes from the Euromed agreement: even if its product coverage is far from complete it is quite positive in industry and especially in apparel and clothing where SM countries are competitive. This element is worthwhile as European Union is one of the richest markets throughout the world and as it is a close destination. It explains the geographical distribution of their exports.

Average duties faced on exports to other destinations are much higher; exceptions are the two free trade agreements between Morocco and Algeria and between Morocco and Libya, and liberal trade policies applied by Lebanon and especially USA.

### 3.2.3 The preferential margin issue

The international trade system is supposed to be multilateral, but exceptions to the Most Favored Nation clause are numerous and are for the most part coming from trade preferences and regional agreements.

**Table 6 Average preferential margin on global exports**

	Pref. Margin
<i>Algeria</i>	0.2%
<i>Egypt</i>	3.3%
<i>Jordan</i>	2.4%
<i>Lebanon</i>	2.0%
<i>Libya</i>	0.0%
<i>Morocco</i>	3.6%
<i>Syria</i>	1.5%
<i>Tunisia</i>	3.4%
<i>Turkey</i>	3.5%
<i>Australia</i>	2.4%
<i>Canada</i>	1.4%
<i>EU</i>	1.3%
<i>Japan</i>	0.0%
<i>Switzerland</i>	1.2%
<i>USA</i>	2.0%
<i>Argentina</i>	5.4%
<i>Brazil</i>	2.2%
<i>China</i>	0.9%
<i>India</i>	1.6%
<i>Pakistan</i>	3.8%
<i>South africa</i>	1.2%
<i>Bangladesh</i>	6.2%
<i>Cambodia</i>	5.9%
<i>Chad</i>	4.8%
<i>Ethiopia</i>	2.4%
<i>Lesotho</i>	7.0%
<i>Madagascar</i>	5.2%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

Furthermore trade policies frequently concentrate trade restrictions on a few products and comparative advantages differ amongst countries. All this implies large differences in average duty faced on exports as previously demonstrated. Another way of highlighting this issue is an assessment of preferential margins. These are national average of the difference between MFN applied duties and preferential duties faced on exports; for example for Tunisia, as far as exports to Europe are concerned, this figure is the difference between the duty by which Europe taxes imports from WTO members (the MFN applied duty) and the duty by which Europe taxes imports of the same product coming from Tunisia (the preferential duty). All these margins are aggregated from the exporter's point of view (Tunisia in the previous example) according to the MacMap-HS6 methodology. Preferential margins on global exports are indicated on Table 6 for the 27 countries on which this study focuses.

On average SM countries have obtained a preferential margin which is similar to MI countries. LDCs are benefiting from larger preferences, while OECD countries are getting smaller margins. But information from Table 6 must be carefully interpreted: differences in average preferential margins faced on exports clearly reflect several points: (i) trade preferences granted on exports; (ii) regional agreements; (iii) a geographical composition effect; (iv) a product composition effect (see Bouet, Fontagne et Jean, 2005 for a decomposition of these effects).

**Table 7 Average preferential margin on sectoral exports**

	<b>Agric.</b>	<b>Indus.</b>
<i>Algeria</i>	3.3%	0.2%
<i>Egypt</i>	9.0%	2.5%
<i>Jordan</i>	5.3%	2.1%
<i>Lebanon</i>	5.3%	1.2%
<i>Libya</i>	1.4%	0.0%
<i>Morocco</i>	5.4%	3.1%
<i>Syria</i>	4.5%	1.2%
<i>Tunisia</i>	4.5%	3.4%
<i>Turkey</i>	6.2%	3.2%
<i>Australia</i>	10.7%	0.6%
<i>Canada</i>	10.1%	0.7%
<i>EU</i>	8.7%	0.7%
<i>Japan</i>	2.1%	0.0%
<i>Switzerland</i>	6.6%	1.0%
<i>USA</i>	11.0%	1.3%
<i>Argentina</i>	11.2%	0.6%
<i>Brazil</i>	6.3%	0.6%
<i>China</i>	5.8%	0.7%
<i>India</i>	4.4%	1.1%
<i>Pakistan</i>	5.6%	3.6%
<i>South africa</i>	4.2%	0.8%
<i>Bangladesh</i>	5.8%	6.2%
<i>Cambodia</i>	4.9%	6.0%
<i>Chad</i>	0.3%	5.6%
<i>Ethiopia</i>	2.9%	1.3%
<i>Lesotho</i>	13.4%	6.9%
<i>Madagascar</i>	4.7%	5.9%

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

For a large extent regional agreements explain the differences between preferential margins obtained by OECD countries. The geographical composition effect comes from the fact that concluding a free trade agreement with a very protectionist partner gives birth to a high preferential margin. For example Canada's exports are concentrated in USA which means that NAFTA is a worthwhile stake for this country. But as the US trade policy is very liberal it does not imply a large average preferential margin. Similarly the product composition of exports matters: when a country exports highly taxed products, a preference, even minor, implies a large average preferential margin. A large part of Argentinean exports are meat; these are products amongst the most protected all around the world. Even if the GSP granted by USA and EU is not very large (it is very frequently defined in percentage of the MFN applied duty) it results in large preferential margins. In this sense preferential margins are endogenous.

The Euromed agreements have clearly given SM countries a large preference in the industrial activity. For Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey, a high part of their exports is apparel; as this product is significantly taxed in the European MFN regime, it results in a high preferential margin. Conversely the concentration of Algerian and Libyan exports in gas, on which imports duties are low all around the world, implies that their average preferential margin is low.

Table 7 decomposes this figure by sector of activity. It clearly demonstrates that average preferential margins are much greater in the agricultural sector.

Calculation of average protection is highly dependant on the aggregation procedure. As previously mentioned, taking into account the welfare impact of trade policy is possible. That is the object of the next section.

### ***3.3 The market access issue in SM countries: an assessment by the Mirage model***

After a brief presentation of the MIRAGE model, an evaluation of Trade Restrictiveness Indexes in the case of 4 SM zones is conducted.

**Table 8 Geographic and commodity decomposition**

<b>Trading zones</b>	<b>Commodities</b>
Turkey	Cereals
Morocco	Vegetable Fruit
Tunisia	Other agriculture
Rest of South Med countries	Sugar
European Union	Meat
NAFTA	Milk
Subsaharan Africa	Other primary
Rest of OECD	Textile Wearing
China	Other Industry
Rest of Asia	Vehicles
Latin America	Equipment
Rest of the World	Energy
	Other Services
	Transport

#### **3.3.1 A brief presentation of the MIRAGE model**

The MIRAGE (Modeling International Relationships in Applied General Equilibrium) model is a multi-sector, multi-region computable general equilibrium model devoted to trade policy analysis. It describes imperfect competition as well as perfect competition. It accounts for horizontal product differentiation linked to varieties, but also to geographical origin. A notion of vertical differentiation is introduced, by distinguished two quality ranges, according to the country of origin of the product. The model is done in a sequential dynamic set-up, where the number of firms adjusts progressively, either quickly (fragmented sectors) or slowly (segmented sectors). Installed capital is assumed to be immobile, even across sectors. Capital reallocation therefore only results from depreciation and investment. Finally Foreign Direct Investment is explicitly described<sup>14</sup>.

For this study 12 trading zones and 14 commodities are distinguished here (see Table 8). The source of the Social Accounting Matrix is the GTAP5 database; it supplies data for Turkey, Morocco and Tunisia. Others SM countries are aggregated in two zones “Rest of North Africa” and “Rest of Middle East” which are aggregated here.

As far as the product decomposition is concerned an emphasis has been put on agricultural commodities and on sectors on which protection is high.

#### **3.3.2 SM countries’ Trade Restrictiveness Index**

Table 9 indicates the Trade Restrictiveness Indexes (TRI) as it has been calculated by the MIRAGE model.

**Table 9 Trade Restrictiveness Indexes and average protection**

<sup>14</sup> See Bchir, Decreux, Guerin and Jean (2002) for a detailed presentation of MIRAGE.



	<b>MacMap-HS6 aver. duty</b>	<b>T.R.I.</b>
<i>Turkey</i>	6.1	5.4
<i>Morocco</i>	20.9	14.7
<i>Tunisia</i>	20.2	17.3
<i>Rest of Southern Med c.</i>	22.6	26.3

(Source: MacMap-HS6 and author's calculation)

Let us remind that a TRI is the uniform tariff, applied to all imported commodities, which entails the same level of welfare as the actual trade policy.

For Turkey, Tunisia and Morocco the average duty levied on imports is greater than the TRI. It means that in these three countries tariffs are high on commodities of relatively minor importance for the consumers' welfare, and low on important commodities. The converse is true in the aggregate zone Rest of Southern Mediterranean countries.

As concluding remarks of this section SM countries are protectionist but they profit from a fairly good access to world markets. Their average duty levied on imports is high, as compared to other countries. This is the heritage of import-substitution policies, adopted during the 1960's and 1970's. Good access to world markets stems from a specialization in weakly taxed products or from preferential schemes given by the European Union.

These countries are currently trying to break this isolation from the world market. Doing so, they have to define an openness strategy. The next section evaluates the degree of consistency of the possible options.

## **4 What trade strategy for South-Mediterranean countries?**

Different strategies are feasible for SM countries. From a political point of view, South-South trade integration could be attractive as far as it would concern association between Arabian countries. It remains to demonstrate if it is an economically founded solution, as compared to South-North integration (envisaged here as an association with the European Union) and/or a multilateral liberalization.

In this section the MIRAGE model is utilized in order to analyze these political options. Different experiments are carried out; each one represents a strategy which SM countries might choose in order to open their economies. In each case implication on welfare, economic activity, remunerations of productive factors and trade flows are studied and comparisons are done to formulate policy recommendations.

### **4.1 Experiment design**

Three experiments are designed.

#### **4.1.1 South-South agreement**

We are firstly studying the impact of a free trade agreement between SM countries; this is why this first experiment consists in the elimination of all tariff barriers between the following zones: Turkey, Morocco, Tunisia and the zone Rest of SM countries. Furthermore each country does not change its trade policy vis-à-vis the rest of the world: they constitute a Free Trade Area, and not a Custom Union. Tariffs are progressively cut through a 5-years period of time under a linear formula.

### 4.1.2 South - North agreement

A second experiment is a South-North free trade agreement: each SM country negotiates separately a free trade agreement with the European Union. Other trade policies are unchanged and the same progressive scheme is utilized.

### 4.1.3 Multilateral full trade liberalization

We complete this analysis by multilateral liberalization. Simulating a Doha Development Agenda would be feasible. This methodological option is however somewhat misleading as on September 2005 the final liberalizing package is unknown. In the July 2004 Geneva package, a sensitive products clause has been introduced. For every importing country it could exempt products from the liberalization process. It has been demonstrated that under this clause a major part of gains from liberalization could evaporate (see Anderson, Martin and Van der Mensbrugghe, 2005).

It means that simulating a Doha Agenda implies a design problem as the cut in tariffs, in domestic support and in export subsidies that it will entail is unknown. This is why we prefer to simulate full trade liberalization. It means that for each zone, except the “Rest of the World” one, tariffs, export subsidies and domestic support are annulled. The Rest of the World zone comprises WTO members and non members but it is dominated by Russia.

## 4.2 Results

### 4.2.1 Impact of a South – South free trade agreement

The achievement of a free trade agreement between SM countries has contrasting effects. The impact on macroeconomic variables is highlighted on Table 10<sup>15</sup>. This is a long term effect, to be effective through a 15 years period. While other zones of the Rest of the World are little affected by these trade negotiations (see macroeconomic results for European Union, NAFTA and Sub-Saharan Africa), the stakes are really important for SM countries. Amongst them, there are winners and losers from a national point of view.

The main beneficiary is Turkey of which welfare increases by almost 4%; this is a very large gain in this modeling exercise. It is due to a cut in distortion implied by liberalization and to increased economic activity, driven by more exports to SM countries. Turkey has a clear comparative advantage in textile and apparel. Market access in this sector is extremely restricted in these countries such that global Turkish exports of these products are increased by more than 9% (initially textile and apparel represent 35% of Turkish merchandise exports.) It represents a huge increase in South – South Turkish trade flows as it outweighs a substantial decrease (by more than 9%) of Turkish exports to the world’s two richest destinations (EU and NAFTA.) This decrease comes from a capacity constraint on supply, but also from a loss in price competitiveness: by assumption (the model’s closure) the current account is constant. Following this increase in demand for Turkish products due to the FTA, a real exchange rate appreciation is needed, in order to keep the current account unchanged.

**Table 10 Impact of a South-South agreement on macroeconomic variables (rate of growth - %)**

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<sup>15</sup> Results for other zones, for this experiment and the two others, are presented in annex 3.

Macroeconomic variables	Turkey	Morocco	Tunisia	Rest of South Med countries	European Union	NAFTA	Subsaharan Africa
Welfare	3.82	-0.33	1.80	1.11	0.00	0.00	-0.01
GDP (volume)	1.79	-0.19	0.99	0.82	0.00	0.00	-0.01
Terms of trade	4.26	-0.38	-0.80	-2.47	-0.03	0.00	-0.02
Real effective exchange rate	4.77	-0.31	-1.14	-3.28	-0.01	0.00	-0.02
Unskilled real wages	2.09	-0.25	-0.65	-0.47	0.00	0.00	-0.01
Skilled real wages	1.05	-0.20	1.80	-0.36	0.00	0.00	0.00
Real return to capital	2.19	-0.05	2.56	1.78	0.00	0.00	0.00
Real return to natural resources	-14.00	0.58	-0.61	6.91	-0.21	-0.04	-0.08
Real return to land	-0.56	-0.41	-8.50	2.81	-0.03	-0.04	-0.01
Exports (volume)	13.20	2.88	13.12	13.60	0.01	-0.01	-0.02
Imports (volume)	13.11	2.72	11.90	12.79	0.04	0.00	-0.02
Tariff revenue (points of GDP)	0.20	-0.34	-1.47	-1.40	0.00	0.00	0.00

(Source: author's calculation)

This free trade agreement between SM countries is also positive for Tunisia but in a lesser extent. The process is different as compared to Turkey. Initially Tunisian protection is high as compared to other signatory countries, especially in agriculture. The implementation of a FTA is reducing distortions.

As far as activity is concerned, free trading with other SM countries induces a huge increase in Tunisian imports. In order to maintain constant the current account, the real exchange rate depreciates. It boosts exports to Europe in the textile apparel sector. This is clearly a “*negative trade diversion effect*”: integration with SM countries expands trade with other zones due to macroeconomic factors.

The initial structure of protection and comparative advantage is detrimental to Morocco: it is initially a very protectionist economy as compared to other SM countries. The instauration of free trade between these 4 zones (Morocco, Tunisia, Turkey and other SM countries) does not entail a very large improvement in market access for Morocco's exporters except to Tunisia which is a relatively small area (it is by far the zone with the lowest initial GDP, with about 5% of total GDP of SM countries) or except for textile and apparel exports to other SM countries: initially this activity is very protected in this zone (the average protection duty is 78% according to MacMap calculation – see the evaluation of protection in this activity for Egypt and Syria in subsection 3.1.2). Thus imposing free trade in this sector and in this zone represents an actual improvement in foreign market access for all countries. But in the textile-apparel activity, Morocco is tremendously competed by Tunisia and especially Turkey. The latter country gains the largest share of this new market.

Furthermore the increase in Morocco's exports is only minor when compared to the one obtained by Turkey, Tunisia and other contracting countries. This clearly entails a small trade creation effect whilst the instauration of the free trade agreement between South-Mediterranean countries implies trade diversion for Morocco. Initially its imports from Europe represent 62% of its total imports; this agreement creates trade discrimination between European and other SM countries' suppliers. Imports of cereals, textile and apparel, vehicles, equipment from Europe are partially replaced by imports

from other SM countries. This substitution clearly means deterioration in Morocco's terms of trade.

Table 11 gives evidence of the production shifts across sectors in South Mediterranean countries and European Union; inter-sector reallocations of production factor are smooth in Morocco and the rest of Mediterranean countries (except those accompanying the huge decline of production in wearing/apparel.)

**Table 11 Impact of South-South agreements on sector production (initial level –USD bln- and rate of growth after 14 years - %)**

Production by sector (volume)	Turkey		Morocco		Tunisia		Ro Sth Med coun.		European Union	
	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14
<i>Cereals</i>	0.3	11.0	0.2	-1.0	0.1	-31.1	1.1	4.0	3.0	-0.5
<i>Vegetable Fruit</i>	1.0	-0.8	0.2	-0.6	0.2	-11.2	1.5	0.7	5.2	0.2
<i>Other agriculture</i>	1.1	-4.0	0.6	0.4	0.1	-2.2	1.8	0.0	54.9	0.0
<i>Sugar</i>	0.8	0.8	0.1	-0.2	0.0	0.7	0.4	0.8	2.8	0.0
<i>Meat</i>	0.3	11.9	0.2	-0.9	0.1	-36.3	1.4	0.9	25.5	0.0
<i>Milk</i>	0.5	2.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	14.2	0.4	3.6	16.1	-0.1
<i>Other primary</i>	0.4	-12.5	0.2	0.6	0.2	-1.9	3.5	3.3	12.5	-0.1
<i>Textile Wearing</i>	2.2	47.2	0.6	0.9	0.4	10.0	1.3	-52.3	29.9	-0.2
<i>Other Industry</i>	3.4	-7.0	1.1	-0.2	0.5	10.5	4.8	3.4	250.0	0.0
<i>Vehicles</i>	0.7	-11.5	0.1	-0.9	0.1	11.2	0.4	-2.2	66.1	0.0
<i>Equipment</i>	1.2	-11.3	0.2	1.2	0.1	15.9	0.5	3.6	116.0	0.0
<i>Energy</i>	0.7	1.9	0.1	-0.2	0.1	1.0	0.7	0.3	20.5	0.0
<i>Other Services</i>	5.4	-0.7	2.8	-0.1	1.0	0.2	11.0	0.5	677.0	0.0
<i>Transport</i>	6.3	-2.0	0.9	0.1	0.7	1.8	5.4	0.6	232.0	0.0

(Source: author's calculation)

#### 4.2.2 Impact of a North – South free trade agreement

Let us now consider the case of North – South integration; we study more precisely the impact of four free trade pacts signed separately by each SM zone with the European Union. Macroeconomic results are indicated on Table 12. They clearly differ from those derived from a South-South agreement as welfare increases for Turkey, Morocco and Tunisia. In the case of the fourth SM zone, welfare is reduced.

GDP is increased in each of the three SM countries and those augmentations are sufficiently large to offset deteriorations in terms of trade. These three free trade agreements have a large trade creation effect, especially in the case of Morocco (of which exports are increased by 54%) and Tunisia (by 48%). As in 2001, bilateral protection between Turkey and European Union is lower, except for sugar and milk in the case of European market access, and agricultural products in the Turkish one, trade creation effect is smaller between these two zones.

Skilled and unskilled labor (capital also in the Tunisian case) makes the most of the benefits derived from this huge trade creation. It is noteworthy that the loss of tariff revenue on imports from the first trade partner has a tremendous negative effect on public receipts.

**Table 12 Impact of North-South agreements on macroeconomic variables (rate of growth - %)**

	Turkey	Morocco	Tunisia	Rest of South Med countries	European Union	NAFTA	Subsaharan Africa
<i>Welfare</i>	1.8	2.7	6.0	-1.5	0.1	0.0	-0.1
<i>GDP (volume)</i>	0.9	1.7	3.6	-0.7	0.1	0.0	-0.1
<i>Terms of trade</i>	-0.7	-2.5	-0.6	-1.8	0.3	0.0	-0.1
<i>Real effective exchange rate</i>	-0.5	-0.7	1.7	-2.1	0.3	0.0	-0.2
<i>Unskilled real wages</i>	0.4	2.5	2.8	-1.1	0.1	0.0	-0.1
<i>Skilled real wages</i>	1.5	4.3	3.3	-2.1	0.0	0.0	-0.1
<i>Real return to capital</i>	1.0	1.6	6.7	-0.9	0.1	0.0	0.0
<i>Real return to natural resources</i>	0.5	-12.5	-16.8	2.2	-0.8	-0.2	0.0
<i>Real return to land</i>	-1.8	-11.3	-14.5	1.5	-0.1	0.0	0.1
<i>Exports (volume)</i>	9.6	54.1	48.1	16.0	1.7	-0.1	-0.3
<i>Imports (volume)</i>	9.6	50.9	43.6	15.1	1.7	0.0	-0.3
<i>Tariff revenue (points of GDP)</i>	-0.3	-4.6	-5.5	-1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0

(Source: author's calculation)

Table 13 points out the impact of these free trade agreements on bilateral trade: exporting country is in column and the importing one in row. For each exporting country a first column indicates the initial level of bilateral trade, the second one expresses the rate of growth after 14 years (in volume). European Union is by far the first destination of exports from Turkey, Morocco and Tunisia. Access to this very rich market is still restricted in agriculture. This is why concluding a free trade agreement with this country is creating so much trade. It largely offsets the implied trade diversion in the relation between SM countries and NAFTA: for example Tunisian imports from North America fall by 25%.

**Table 13 Impact of North-South agreements on bilateral external trade (initial level –USD bln- and rate of growth after 14 years - %)**

	Turkey		Morocco		Tunisia		R.o Sth Med count.		European Union		NAFTA	
	Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14	
Exports to:												
Turkey			0.0	4.6	0.0	-4.0	0.1	5.9	1.7	23.2	0.4	-3.3
Morocco	0.0	-17.7			0.0	-20.2	0.0	-1.5	0.6	96.5	0.1	-17.5
Tunisia	0.0	-20.4	0.0	15.1			0.0	4.3	0.62	66.0	0.1	-24.7
Rest of South Med countries	0.1	-13.4	0.0	2.0	0.0	-23.8			1.46	61.1	0.6	-23.5
European Union	2.1	16.2	0.6	87.0	0.6	70.5	1.9	23.1			25.7	0.6
NAFTA	0.5	5.5	0.1	15.0	0.1	-0.3	0.5	7.5	29.98	-0.7		
Subsaharan Africa	0.1	2.1	0.0	30.2	0.0	-7.4	0.0	7.2	3.38	-0.8	1.1	0.0
Rest of OECD	0.2	2.3	0.1	8.1	0.0	6.9	0.2	7.0	20.48	-0.6	14.5	0.1
China	0.1	7.8	0.0	2.0	0.0	-3.0	0.0	6.8	5.64	-1.0	3.9	-0.5
Rest of Asia	0.1	1.4	0.1	-2.6	0.0	-10.4	0.1	7.2	7.38	-1.1	5.7	-0.3
Latin America	0.1	1.8	0.0	6.4	0.0	-2.0	0.1	7.6	5.4	-0.9	6.3	-0.1
Rest of the World	0.6	3.9	0.0	11.9	0.0	-10.5	0.2	6.7	13.5	-1.0	4.1	-0.3

(Source: author's calculation)

These agreements clearly imply large shifts in production structure as illustrated on Table 14. North-South agreements provoke large contractions of some sector output and expansions of others. Specialization is not done under a general scheme South/agriculture vs. North/industry: Turkey's milk and meat sectors are contracting while sugar, textile and wearing, and other industry sectors are expanding. Sectors negatively affected are meat and other industry in Morocco and Tunisia, textile and wearing and other agricultural products in other SM countries; sectors positively affected are other agricultural products and textile and wearing in Morocco, textile and wearing in Tunisia, cereals and other primary activities in other SM countries.

**Table 14 Impact of North-South agreements on sectoral production (initial level –USD bln- and rate of growth after 14 years - %)**

	Turkey		Morocco		Tunisia		R.o. Sth Med count.		European Union	
	Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14		Initial level t+14	
Cereals	0.3	-23.1	0.2	-19.8	0.1	-45.6	1.1	20.3	3.0	-2.6
Vegetable Fruit	1.0	3.0	0.2	7.2	0.2	-24.7	1.5	0.4	5.2	0.0
Other agriculture	1.1	-2.8	0.6	17.0	0.1	22.3	1.8	-4.7	54.9	0.3
Sugar	0.8	16.2	0.1	0.8	0.0	34.0	0.4	-1.2	2.8	-6.1
Meat	0.3	-61.1	0.2	-51.0	0.1	-41.3	1.4	-1.8	25.5	2.1
Milk	0.5	-33.9	0.1	-68.8	0.0	-38.9	0.4	-13.1	16.1	2.5
Other primary	0.4	-0.2	0.2	-13.2	0.2	-16.1	3.5	2.3	12.5	-0.7
Textile Wearing	2.2	8.2	0.6	148.0	0.4	108.0	1.3	-14.8	29.9	1.6
Other Industry	3.4	3.0	1.1	-12.5	0.5	-17.5	4.8	-1.4	250.0	0.0
Vehicles	0.7	1.0	0.1	-18.2	0.1	-23.1	0.4	-14.3	66.1	0.1
Equipment	1.2	1.0	0.2	-9.7	0.1	-21.1	0.5	-4.8	116.0	-0.3
Energy	0.7	1.2	0.1	-1.5	0.1	-5.5	0.7	-0.7	20.5	0.0
Other Services	5.4	0.2	2.8	-2.8	1.0	-2.1	11.0	-0.1	677.0	0.0
Transport	6.3	0.4	0.9	-3.4	0.7	-4.1	5.4	-0.4	232.0	0.0

(Source: author's calculation)

Bilateral agreements between Mediterranean countries and the European Union appear beneficial for the former, at least for Tunisia, Turkey and Morocco. The price to pay is substantial inter-sector shifts in production factors.

Nevertheless the global efficiency of this set of agreements is questionable. It clearly adds up four segmented free trade agreements, which **might** move away the global economy from optimum. This possibility is derived from the second-best theory. Table 15 illustrates the impact of these agreements on European Union's bilateral trade in the textile-wearing sector: these are variations after 14 years (\$ bln).

**Table 15 Impact of EU/SM countries free trade agreements on European Union's bilateral external trade in textile and wearing (\$ bln)**

<b>Textile-wearing</b>	European Union's imports from:	European Union's exports to:
Morocco	+0.794	+0.231
Tunisia	+0.437	+0.187
Turkey	+0.069	-0.0003
Other SM countries	+0.012	+0.272

(Source: author's calculation)

Bilateral free trade increases the exchange of textile and wearing products, except in the EU-Turkey case. This is clearly intra-industry trade. But due to comparative advantages, these augmentations are uneven: in this sector, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey have got a large competitiveness. Setting free trade implies an increase in the net sector trade balance for these three countries. Competitiveness of other SM countries in this industry is lower. Free trade between these countries and European Union improves the European net trade balance. This is clearly a trade diversion; without discrimination the zone "Other SM countries" would have prioritized imports from Turkey, Tunisia or Morocco and not from the EU. It means deterioration in terms of trade for this zone and it undermines global efficiency.

#### **4.2.3 A multilateral full trade liberalization**

The third simulation is a full trade liberalization applied on a multilateral basis. This is clearly the most efficient way to improve national welfare in Mediterranean countries. The rest of South Mediterranean countries, Tunisia and Morocco are the main beneficiaries of this process but it is also positive for Turkey. This optimistic picture might hide negative impacts of this liberalization process on specific households or production factors. Table 16 indicates that landowners are negatively affected by liberalization in Tunisia, Morocco and Turkey. The impact is also negative for natural resources owners in Morocco and Tunisia.

Let us also remind that by assumption mobility of labor is perfect. It can be considered as a medium-long term hypothesis; short term imperfect mobility may imply that labor is negatively affected in sectors where import competition is high. This is all the most plausible in Turkey and Tunisia where long term benefits for unskilled labor is weak (less than 1% after 14 years). Finally there is no disaggregating of households such that detailed impact on poverty is not accounted for and labor is only split into two categories.

**Table 16 Impact of multilateral full trade liberalization on macroeconomic variables (rate of growth - %)**

	Turkey	Morocco	Tunisia	Rest of South Med countries	European Union	NAFTA	Subsaharan Africa
Welfare	2.4	5.3	6.0	6.8	0.4	0.0	0.4
GDP (volume)	1.3	3.2	3.6	4.6	0.3	0.0	0.2
Terms of trade	-1.3	-6.2	-4.4	-3.0	0.7	0.4	-2.0
Real effective exchange rate	-1.1	-5.7	-4.1	-3.2	0.7	0.3	-2.5
Unskilled real wages	0.7	1.9	0.6	5.0	0.3	0.0	-0.7
Skilled real wages	2.1	7.9	3.6	3.8	0.5	-0.1	-0.3
Real return to capital	1.1	2.6	5.8	3.1	0.3	0.1	0.2
Real return to natural resources	1.5	-0.2	-5.0	6.5	-1.8	-1.2	5.7
Real return to land	-1.8	-10.6	-15.2	11.0	-3.0	1.6	-1.2
Exports (volume)	13.9	58.5	40.2	47.6	14.0	17.4	29.2
Imports (volume)	15.2	55.8	37.0	45.3	15.4	13.4	29.4
Tariff revenue (points of GDP)	-0.8	-6.0	-7.4	-3.4	-0.3	-0.3	-2.9

(Source: author's calculation)

Full trade liberalization also implies large reallocations of production factors. These shifts in production are highlighted on Table 17. They are larger than the one implied by regional agreements. It clearly means that this process is costly.

**Table 17 Impact of a full trade liberalization on sectoral production (initial level –USD bln- and rate of growth after 14 years - %)**

Production by sector (volume)	Turkey		Morocco		Tunisia		Rest of South Med		European Union	
	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14	Initial lev	t+14
Cereals	0.3	-23.8	0.2	-30.9	0.1	-43.2	1.1	51.0	3.0	-34.1
Vegetable Fruit	1.0	1.9	0.2	8.3	0.2	-24.7	1.5	0.6	5.2	-7.9
Other agriculture	1.1	-3.7	0.6	17.4	0.1	24.9	1.8	-8.8	54.9	1.6
Sugar	0.8	3.2	0.1	-5.1	0.0	10.9	0.4	-1.7	2.8	-37.5
Meat	0.3	-51.9	0.2	-51.9	0.1	-41.9	1.4	-8.5	25.5	-9.7
Milk	0.5	-18.4	0.1	-33.4	0.0	20.2	0.4	-10.0	16.1	12.7
Other primary	0.4	0.3	0.2	-2.1	0.2	-5.6	3.5	3.4	12.5	-1.4
Textile Wearing	2.2	-3.2	0.6	62.1	0.4	35.2	1.3	-46.4	29.9	-2.2
Other Industry	3.4	6.8	1.1	2.9	0.5	7.6	4.8	-2.1	249.6	0.5
Vehicles	0.7	2.5	0.1	-14.9	0.1	-7.9	0.4	-23.5	66.1	1.1
Equipment	1.2	2.9	0.2	17.7	0.1	14.8	0.5	-14.3	115.5	0.8
Energy	0.7	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.1	-0.6	0.7	-0.5	20.5	-0.2
Other Services	5.4	0.4	2.8	0.7	1.0	-0.6	11.0	1.0	677.4	-0.1
Transport	6.3	1.5	0.9	1.9	0.7	2.0	5.4	-0.5	231.7	0.8

(Source: author's calculation)

Nevertheless it is worth emphasizing that **multilateral full trade liberalization is the most efficient outcome for South Mediterranean countries**. It allows for a large reduction in domestic distortions and it stimulates GDP growth especially in Tunisia, Morocco and other Mediterranean countries. This GDP increase offsets deterioration in terms of trade. Expansion of production comes mainly from the



textile/wearing sector in Morocco and Tunisia, cereals in other SM countries, the other industry sector in Turkey.

### 4.3 *Trade agreements and structural congruence*

For the advocates of regionalism, a regional agreement is an attractive step towards multilateral liberalization. This last trade regime appears to be the most efficient and a Free Trade Area or a Custom Union might be a first step in the process of opening an economy to international competition.

It is true that trade liberalization is costly. The scarce factor of production is harmed; immobile factors in imports-competing sectors are negatively affected. Even abundant mobile factors could pay a short term cost in reallocating from contracting sectors to expanding ones. All these considerations legitimate gradualism in a liberalization process.

Thus if regionalism is a first step in free trade, it might be an attractive decision for policy – makers. Nevertheless this intuition needs to be examined carefully and any form of regionalism does not necessarily pave the way of multilateralism.

If the short-medium term cost of free trade is reallocation of production factors, it means that a free trade agreement or a custom union is a first step towards multilateral free trade only if this regional agreement implies the same shifting process of output as the one which will be implied by multilateral free trade. Then regionalism would pave the way of multilateralism.

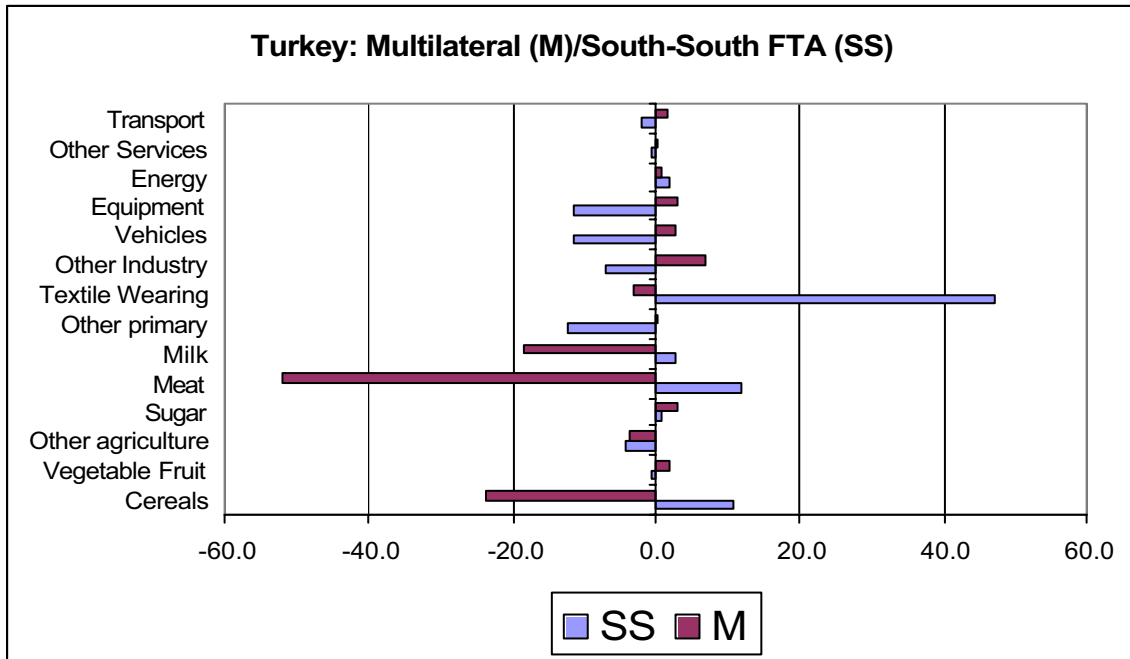
But if it is not, if establishing a free trade agreement with neighbor countries cause a contracting/expanding sectors movement that is quite different that the one implied by multilateralism, the above intuition is clearly misleading and a regional agreement might be inefficient.

In order to analyze this idea we use the notion of ***structural congruence***. It has been defined by David Roland-Holst and Dominique van der Mensbrugghe (2003) as “*a similarity in the composition of real sectoral output within a country under two different regimes*” (Roland-Holst and van der Mensbrugghe, 2003).

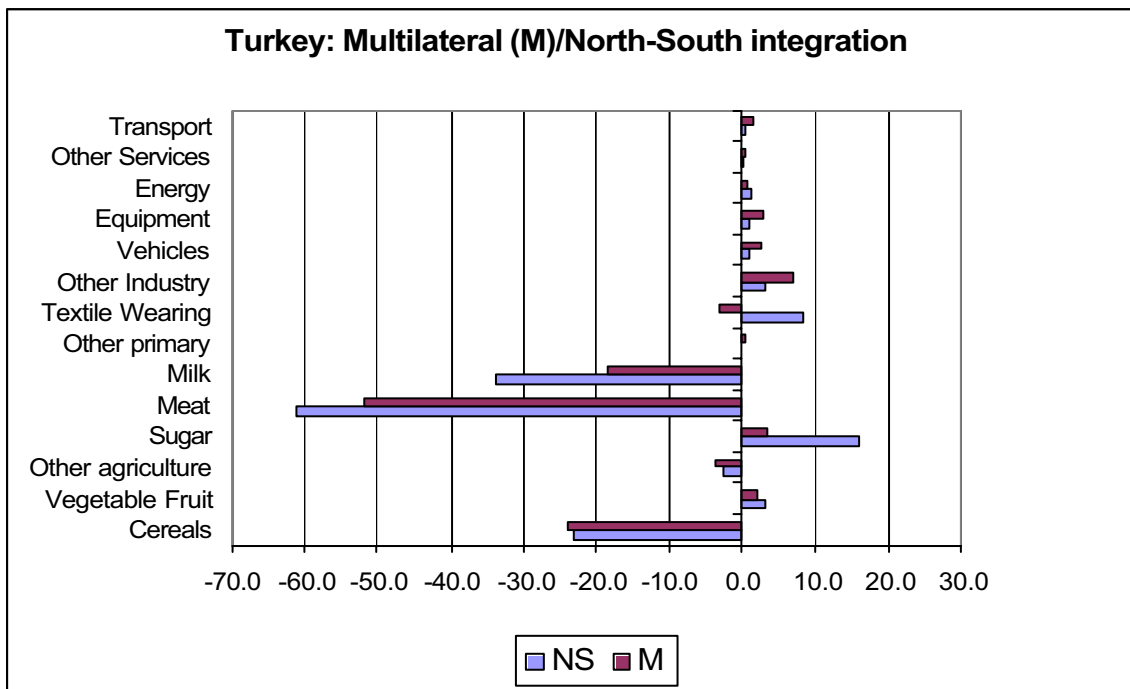
Graphic 6 illustrates structural congruence of the three trade regimes previously studied in the Turkish case. It compares successively the South/South agreement and the South/North one with multilateral free trade, pointing out in each case the implied rate of growth in sector output (in % and in volume.)

Under a free trade agreement between South Mediterranean countries the Turkish economy may clearly diverge from the path of multilateral free trade: in this case the structural congruence is negative as shifts of output implied by the two trade regimes are in the opposite direction in 11 cases on 14. On the contrary, when comparing a free trade association with European Union and multilateral full trade liberalization shifts in sector productions are quite parallel, except in textile/wearing case. It is noteworthy that expansions/ contractions are often larger in the regional option (see the case of milk, meat and sugar in the bottom graphic 4).

Graphic 6. Structural congruence in the Turkish case



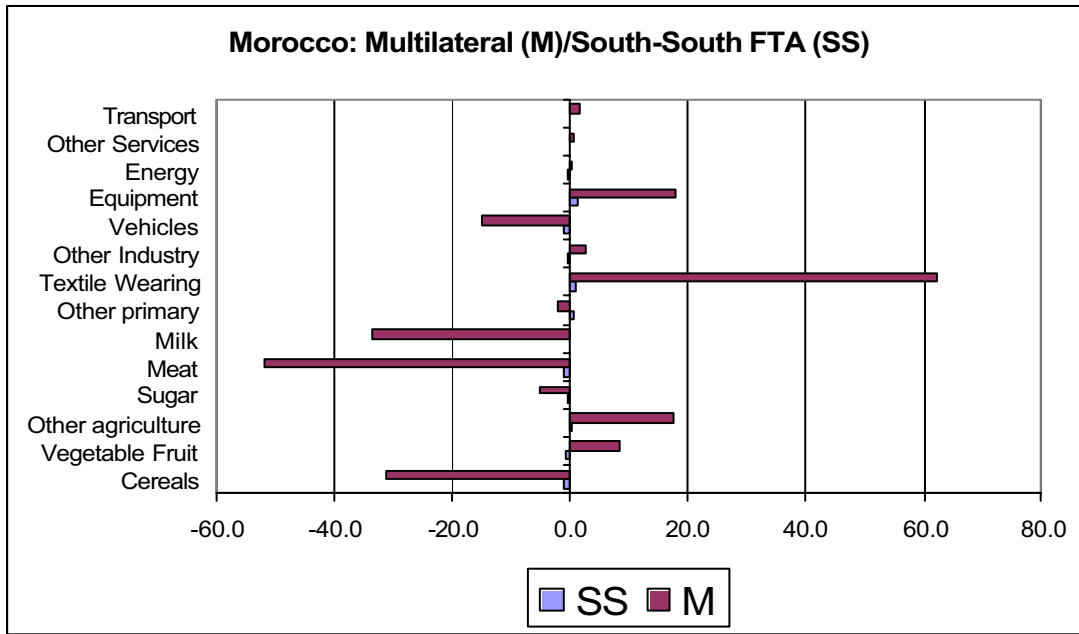
(Source: author's calculation)



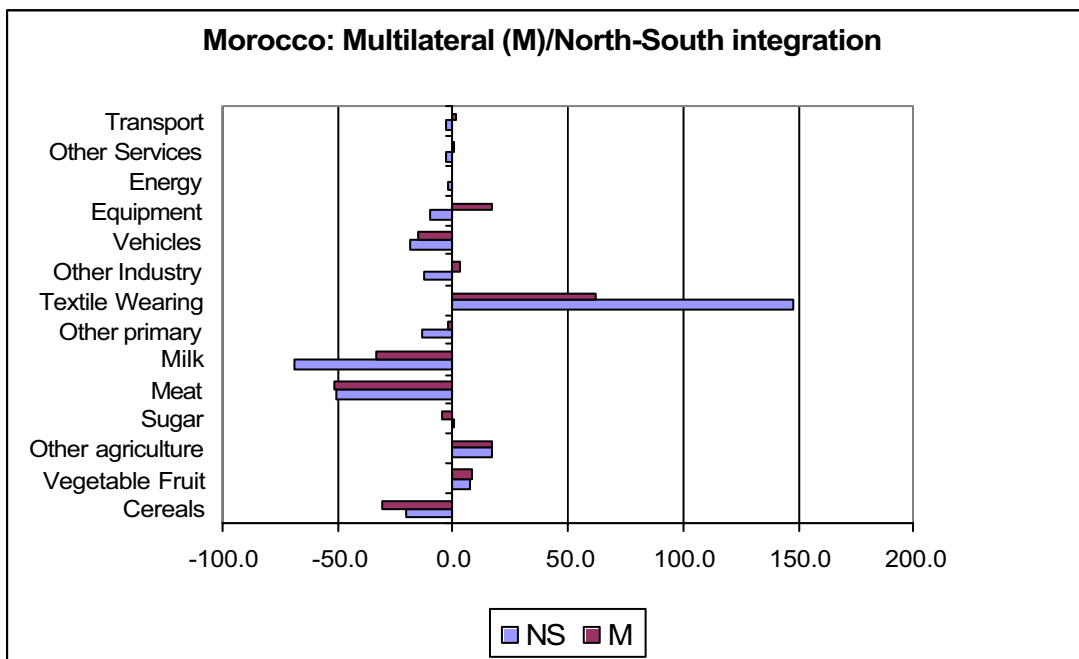
(Source: author's calculation)

This is less the case for Morocco: a South/South agreement only implies very smooth readjustment of production. On Graphic 7 these shifts are spectacularly smaller than the one implied by full trade liberalization under the aegis of WTO. Freeing trade with Europe is in this matter a better way to prepare multilateralism, but structural congruence is not very large, smaller than in the Turkish case as in 6 sectors on 14, shifts are opposite. It is worth mentioning that large variations of sector output are parallel, except in the equipment industry's case: see textile/wearing, milk and meat.

Graphic 7. Structural congruence in the Moroccan case



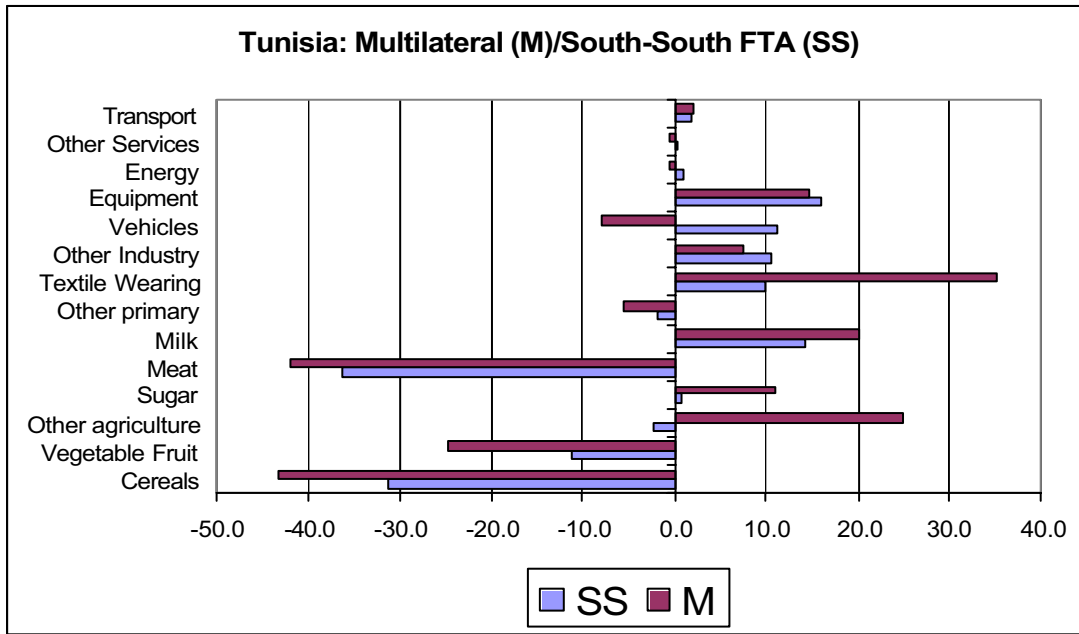
(Source: author's calculation)



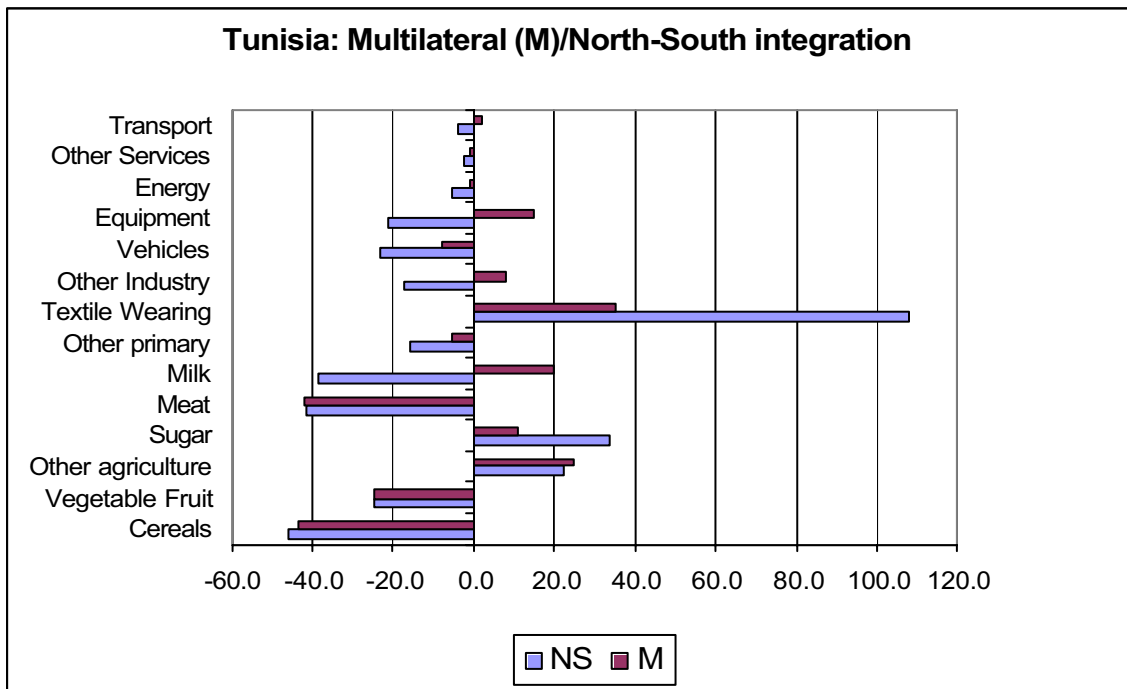
(Source: author's calculation)

In the Tunisian case neither South/South regionalism nor North/South association have high degree of structural congruence. In the former case divergence is coming from the sectors “Other services”, Energy, Vehicles and “Other agriculture”. In the latter: transport, equipment, other industry and milk. For Tunisia regionalism has no similarity with multilateralism in patterns of output adjustment.

Graphic 8. Structural congruence in the Tunisian case



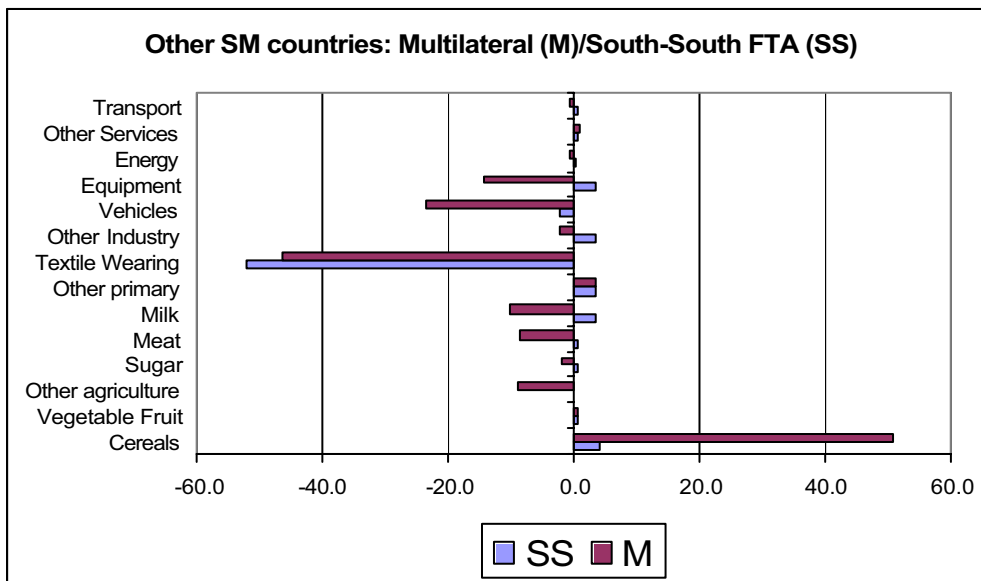
(Source: author's calculation)



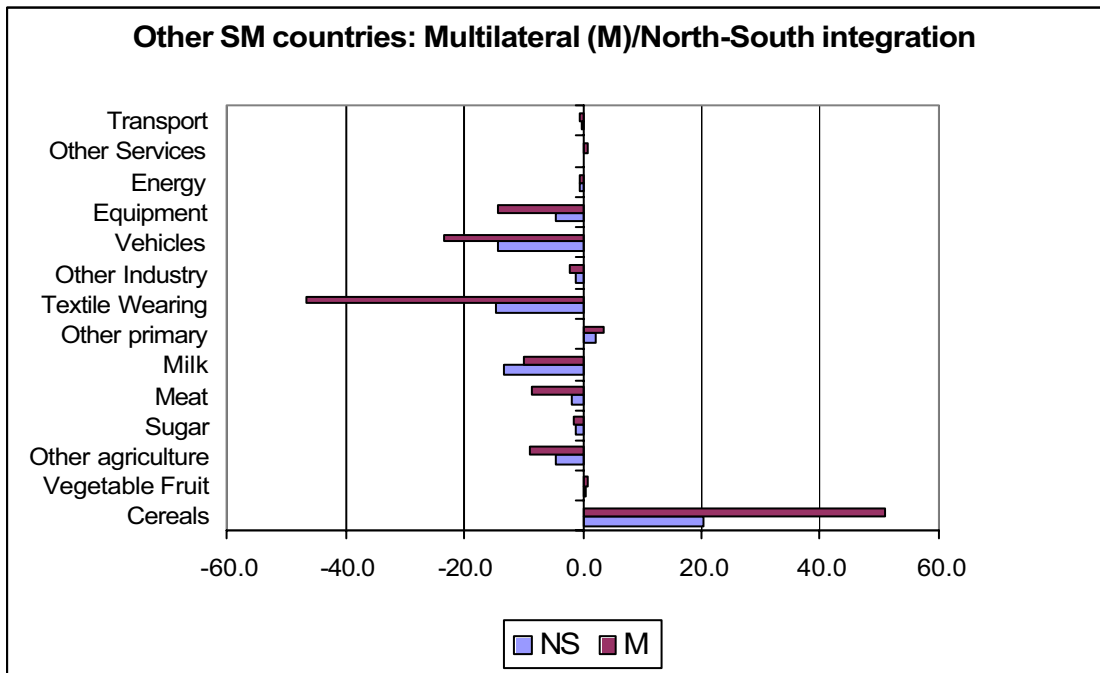
(Source: author's calculation)

Finally for other SM countries structural congruence of multilateral free trade is weak with South/South regionalism, high in the North/North case. In the latter comparison, shifts are in the same direction in all sectors except in the other services one (but the sector output decrease implied by a North/South agreement is only 0.1 %). It is obviously difficult to put this case forward as it is a composite zone; divergence from the multilateral path has to be examined at a national level. But it is noteworthy that once again two forms of regionalism have not the same degree of structural congruence with multilateralism.

Graphic 9. Structural congruence in other SM countries



(Source: author's calculation)



(Source: author's calculation)

#### 4.4 A new measure of structural congruence

Comments of previous graphics are not sufficient to formulate a policy recommendation: they are only founded on the visual comparison of evolutions in sector production, not accounting for the importance of each sector and without any way of synthesis. This is why we propose in this subsection an original **indicator of structural congruence**.

We construct an index of similarities between two trade regimes, one being multilateral free trade. Let  $X_{i,k}^r$  be the production of commodity k done by country i

under trade regime  $r$  and  $X_{i.}^r$  be its total production under the same trade regime. The similarity<sup>16</sup> between trade regimes  $r$  and  $r'$  for country  $i$  is measured by:

$$IS_i^{r,r'} = \sum_k \min \left( \frac{X_{i,k}^r}{X_{i.}^r}; \frac{X_{i,k}^{r'}}{X_{i.}^{r'}} \right)$$

The more similar two trade regimes are, the higher this index is; its maximum is 1. It is thus possible to assess if a regional agreement reduces the distance towards multilateral free trade. This indicator also allows for comparison between current production structure and the one implied by full multilateral liberalization. It conversely reflects the degree of national protection as it is 98.2% for Turkey, 94.4% for Morocco, 94.2% for Tunisia and 96.8% for the “rest of south Mediterranean countries”.

**Table 18 Indicators of structural congruence**

	Turkey	Morocco	Tunisia	Rest of South Med countries
<i>South South / Multil.</i>	94.1%	94.5%	96.3%	97.7%
<i>North South / Multil.</i>	98.5%	93.5%	91.5%	98.1%

Table 18 calculates these indicators for the four zones studied with the MIRAGE model. For each country/zone the first line gives the value of the similarity index between the creation of a free trade area amongst South Mediterranean countries and multilateral full trade liberalization. The following row concerns similarity between a free trade agreement with the European Union and full multilateralism.

This indicator clearly shows that for Turkey, concluding a free trade agreement with Europe is a first step towards multilateral full trade liberalization while a free trade agreement with other South Mediterranean countries is not. As previously mentioned the similarity index between current trade regime and multilateral full free trade is 98.2%. It means that an association with Europe does not bring Turkey much closer to this objective. On the contrary an agreement with other South Mediterranean countries would move away Turkey from multilateral free trade.

For Morocco it is difficult to formulate a policy recommendation as on one side a South/South agreement increases only very slightly the similarity index (from 94.4% to 94.5%) while an association with Europe decreases it significantly. Graphic 7 confirms that variations in production are only minor in the case of a South Mediterranean Free Trade Area.

Tunisia could find a South /South association more attractive as it brings it closer to multilateral free trade. Looking at Table 14 and Graphic 8 shows that integration with Europe implies industrial de-specialization (Equipment, Transport, other industry) while either a South Mediterranean Free Trade Area or multilateral free trade area means the converse.

Finally for the zone “Rest of South Mediterranean countries” the similarity index increases in each case, but more under a North/South trade arrangement.

<sup>16</sup> The construction of this index has been inspired by the Finger – Kreinin index on similarities of export structure (see Finger and Kreinin, 1979).

The construction of a similarity index allowed for more clear-cut conclusion. For Turkey and the zone “Other SM countries” a North South agreement is a first step towards multilateral free trade, while from this point of view a South/South agreement is more interesting for Tunisia and to a lesser extent for Morocco.

## 5 Concluding remarks

South Mediterranean countries could be at a turning point of their economic history. Import-substitution policies have failed, but they still largely isolate these economies from the world market. Trade openness appears attractive but it can be done under different options: unilateralism, multilateralism or regional agreements either with rich countries or between middle income countries.

These options are not equivalent. A regional agreement between Arabian countries could imply specific reallocations of productive factors, quite different to those derived from a multilateral option or from integrating the European Union. It means that any form of partial openness does not pave the way to a total multilateral liberalization. In opening an economy to bolster exports and economic growth gradualism is needed. But it has to be done under a consistent strategy which avoids replication of adjustment costs. In that sense this study has highlighted that for some countries integrating the European Union is a much more consistent economic option than a South/South association. This conclusion can not be extended to all countries. For Tunisia, for example, a free trade agreement with Europe would imply de – industrialization, which could move this economy further off multilateral free trade. Of course political concerns matter when a regional agreement is envisaged: it has been clearly demonstrated in the European case.

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## 7 Annex 1

Table 19 : protection levels by HS Chapters

	SM countries										OECD countries										LDC									
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EU	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Bangladesh	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar				
Live animals	13.2%	8.1%	3.3%	2.3%	12.9%	168.3%	3.4%	70.3%	71.7%	0.0%	7.8%	7.9%	44.2%	7.6%	0.3%	2.0%	7.4%	35.0%	8.6%	0.0%	6.7%	4.3%	22.0%	28.9%	0.0%	0.0%				
Live animals: Live animals																														
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal	30.0%	38.7%	20.6%	28.3%	24.1%	126.3%	10.9%	103.4%	149.3%	0.0%	25.0%	19.9%	56.7%	151.2%	3.5%	9.9%	11.0%	60.9%	16.2%	30.8%	30.8%	20.0%	43.4%	21.3%	4.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Fish & crustacean, mollusc & other aquatic invertebrate	29.8%	17.7%	22.8%	5.0%	0.0%	49.6%	9.4%	40.9%	40.6%	0.0%	0.3%	19.4%	4.4%	0.2%	0.2%	11.0%	10.1%	32.8%	9.3%	24.5%	16.1%	20.3%	6.4%	10.0%	0.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Daily prod. birds: eggs, natural honey, edible prod. nes	14.3%	15.9%	10.4%	11.9%	2.0%	89.3%	11.7%	71.1%	106.4%	0.7%	104.1%	19.0%	87.4%	87.1%	18.2%	16.3%	19.2%	51.0%	24.2%	34.8%	34.2%	15.2%	43.0%	45.2%	3.2%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Products of animal origin, nes or included	28.5%	8.2%	11.6%	0.5%	23.7%	34.2%	10.9%	27.6%	5.8%	0.0%	4.6%	2.5%	0.2%	18.8%	0.1%	6.6%	7.5%	35.0%	12.7%	16.1%	14.6%	29.2%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Live tree & other plant, tub, root, cut flowers etc	12.2%	14.9%	18.5%	27.8%	14.3%	33.7%	11.2%	136.9%	17.6%	0.0%	4.6%	2.5%	0.2%	36.4%	2.6%	7.1%	4.4%	14.4%	11.8%	10.2%	15.0%	9.2%	4.6%	3.2%	0.5%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers	18.7%	10.4%	13.7%	18.5%	25.0%	39.6%	14.5%	127.1%	23.1%	1.1%	4.7%	11.7%	16.2%	63.5%	5.0%	8.8%	6.6%	38.9%	6.0%	15.2%	8.5%	7.0%	13.6%	16.3%	8.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Edible fruit and nuts, peel of citrus fruit or melons	30.0%	36.8%	27.8%	51.8%	29.1%	50.4%	34.1%	158.9%	62.8%	0.0%	1.1%	14.7%	9.4%	13.6%	1.7%	11.3%	11.1%	55.6%	22.6%	36.7%	30.1%	29.4%	18.5%	3.2%	8.2%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Coffee, tea, mat- and spices	30.0%	3.6%	1.8%	0.7%	10.3%	39.4%	1.8%	61.4%	35.0%	0.0%	0.7%	10.8%	230.5%	79.6%	2.2%	7.9%	6.4%	81.9%	16.1%	16.8%	4.3%	10.9%	13.8%	18.8%	0.4%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Cereals	29.7%	16.7%	6.4%	1.0%	12.8%	52.2%	11.1%	92.9%	51.4%	0.0%	0.0%	9.8%	70.0%	71.3%	1.9%	10.3%	11.3%	55.6%	22.6%	14.3%	36.7%	10.8%	29.5%	17.2%	6.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Prod mill indust. malt, starches, inulin, wheat gluten	6.1%	2.9%	3.2%	0.7%	12.8%	14.0%	3.5%	26.9%	4.6%	0.3%	0.2%	9.4%	1.1%	18.5%	2.8%	4.3%	3.6%	33.4%	10.0%	2.7%	7.1%	14.5%	10.1%	0.6%	1.2%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Oil seed, oleag fruits, miscel grain, seed, fruit etc	5.0%	16.4%	12.8%	2.0%	20.8%	30.7%	10.8%	16.8%	1.8%	0.9%	0.0%	11.0%	2.5%	1.2%	0.8%	8.9%	9.2%	34.6%	24.9%	4.6%	12.0%	26.1%	10.0%	2.5%	2.7%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Lac, gums, resins & other vegetable saps & extracts	11.1%	9.8%	9.1%	3.2%	3.7%	24.1%	14.5%	30.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.9%	1.9%	0.9%	0.4%	7.5%	7.4%	35.0%	39.6%	1.3%	22.3%	15.0%	10.0%	0.2%	4.3%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Vegetable plating materials, vegetable products nes	26.1%	12.1%	13.1%	11.4%	8.9%	17.5%	7.2%	38.5%	15.3%	1.6%	3.9%	18.7%	8.2%	46.6%	4.1%	10.8%	9.4%	76.6%	52.0%	8.4%	24.6%	7.0%	28.5%	8.8%	16.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Animal/veg fats & oils & their cleavage products etc	29.2%	25.1%	21.0%	6.2%	36.0%	50.6%	24.3%	90.2%	83.2%	1.7%	20.6%	19.3%	16.3%	24.5%	3.4%	16.6%	17.3%	47.7%	23.9%	13.6%	26.8%	24.7%	30.0%	15.1%	11.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Prep of meat, fish or crustaceans, molluscs etc	21.9%	12.7%	14.9%	7.0%	20.3%	36.2%	18.3%	25.9%	93.7%	3.5%	4.1%	15.3%	141.3%	38.3%	23.4%	17.8%	18.0%	55.4%	24.7%	87.1%	27.3%	29.3%	79.0%	74.7%	11.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Sigers and sugar confectionery	21.3%	32.8%	22.4%	12.4%	14.0%	32.9%	49.3%	52.4%	4.6%	3.0%	32.8%	17.4%	22.6%	16.1%	5.9%	16.2%	17.1%	35.0%	23.3%	10.5%	36.4%	33.7%	29.4%	5.0%	14.2%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Cocoa and cocoa preparations	24.1%	27.6%	20.7%	9.5%	22.5%	30.5%	33.5%	89.2%	5.7%	4.6%	7.0%	17.6%	33.2%	34.4%	4.5%	17.7%	17.8%	39.9%	23.3%	19.3%	35.9%	11.4%	24.1%	14.8%	19.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Prep of cereal, flour, starch/milk, pastyproducts: prod	28.4%	31.8%	26.3%	38.5%	25.4%	47.0%	32.5%	91.9%	62.0%	4.6%	4.3%	19.9%	17.4%	34.0%	6.8%	14.9%	15.9%	34.9%	24.7%	16.4%	37.9%	33.4%	29.7%	16.3%	9.6%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Prep of vegetable, fruit, nuts or other parts of plants	24.4%	20.0%	20.6%	15.8%	20.0%	46.7%	43.0%	41.4%	15.0%	2.8%	25.8%	17.1%	23.4%	17.1%	9.5%	16.3%	17.1%	108.9%	24.6%	11.5%	26.2%	19.1%	20.7%	9.8%	9.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Miscellaneous edible preparations	30.0%	14.5%	136.0%	28.4%	135.5%	35.8%	100.9%	51.0%	15.1%	12.9%	5.1%	11.8%	27.1%	16.2%	2.6%	8.6%	6.6%	35.0%	15.7%	6.4%	0.0%	7.5%	11.0%	7.5%	4.4%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Beverages, spirits and vinegar	27.3%	6.8%	5.0%	3.7%	27.1%	27.1%	1.0%	28.5%	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	11.8%	16.2%	2.6%	20.8%	21.0%	130.4%	89.1%	19.8%	37.4%	44.1%	27.3%	13.7%	8.3%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Residues & waste from the food indust. prep. ani fodder	24.1%	59.4%	49.4%	2.8%	0.0%	20.7%	22.5%	28.6%	36.4%	6.1%	6.7%	17.2%	6.9%	20.5%	4.5%	16.9%	18.2%	25.0%	27.8%	27.8%	33.2%	14.1%	25.8%	27.3%	37.8%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes	11.0%	15.7%	15.1%	16.4%	11.7%	21.6%	9.0%	23.6%	0.6%	0.5%	0.2%	4.2%	0.6%	2.9%	0.2%	4.7%	5.0%	24.7%	16.6%	1.0%	16.3%	14.5%	16.9%	0.5%	3.7%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Salt, sulphur, earth & ston, plastering mat. lime & cement	5.0%	4.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.8%	3.1%	19.2%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	4.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	3.0%	3.6%	6.9%	5.5%	0.0%	0.0%	7.0%	9.9%	0.0%	0.0%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Mineral fuels, oils & product of their distillation etc	8.8%	5.9%	10.4%	2.3%	45.0%	18.1%	8.3%	5.6%	0.4%	3.4%	0.4%	7.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.2%	0.2%	0.1%	25.1%	10.2%	0.9%	27.1%	9.8%	9.9%	0.3%	1.6%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Inorgn chem. compds of prec met, radioact elements etc	15.0%	12.1%	6.5%	0.6%	20.7%	2.8%	17.0%	4.1%	4.1%	0.4%	1.0%	5.0%	1.9%	0.5%	1.5%	6.6%	7.5%	31.2%	14.9%	1.9%	15.9%	7.0%	10.0%	2.8%	2.4%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Organic chemicals	5.6%	8.9%	5.2%	1.3%	3.5%	15.0%	1.3%	16.8%	3.8%	0.8%	2.2%	4.8%	1.2%	0.1%	3.2%	7.9%	9.8%	29.2%	10.5%	1.1%	9.7%	12.2%	9.5%	2.6%	0.9%					
Live animals: Meat and edible meat offal: Pharmaceutical products	5.6%	6.3%	4.3%	5.0%	0.0%	15.4%	1.8%	7.6%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	5.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	10.8%	6.7%	34.4%	13.3%	0.1%	6.3%	0.0%	5.0%	0.1%	0.0%					

Table 20 . Protection levels by HS Chapters – cont.

	ISM countries										OECD countries										IIC countries										LDC									
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EU	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Argentina	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Indonesia	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar													
Fertilisers.	14.7%	10.3%	4.8%	4.8%	0.0%	2.1%	1.0%	17.1%	3.4%	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%	5.0%	2.8%	4.3%	23.5%	5.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	5.0%	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%														
Tanning/dyeing extract, tannins & dyes, pigm etc	18.6%	18.9%	5.7%	5.8%	11.6%	25.2%	10.5%	18.0%	3.4%	4.6%	9.7%	3.1%	0.6%	4.1%	13.9%	14.0%	11.5%	34.4%	20.6%	4.1%	12.5%	13.1%	10.2%	3.9%	3.4%	1.5%														
Essential oils & resins, perf, cosmet/coloret prep	24.7%	33.1%	20.2%	11.1%	50.1%	44.3%	40.6%	30.8%	0.9%	4.6%	4.8%	0.6%	1.5%	0.8%	17.9%	17.5%	29.5%	64.3%	22.9%	13.9%	29.6%	19.4%	20.0%	1.9%	10.7%	7.0%														
Soap, organic surface-active agents, washing prep, etc	25.4%	23.1%	15.3%	13.5%	16.0%	32.9%	15.6%	27.9%	1.8%	4.5%	14.0%	0.4%	1.5%	1.9%	15.5%	15.9%	18.5%	34.7%	22.9%	15.4%	31.0%	9.5%	27.5%	1.9%	16.4%	5.6%														
Albuminoid subst, modified starches, gums, enzymes, etc	22.4%	15.3%	11.5%	3.5%	21.7%	38.8%	14.9%	16.1%	5.1%	1.7%	3.2%	12.5%	2.9%	1.8%	15.1%	15.4%	14.7%	35.0%	19.8%	0.4%	16.9%	20.3%	11.8%	6.2%	0.3%	3.5%														
Explosives, pyrotechnic prod, matches, pyrop alloy, etc	19.6%	30.5%	17.7%	4.9%	51.1%	36.4%	13.8%	30.9%	5.5%	4.1%	3.3%	3.5%	4.6%	2.7%	13.4%	13.8%	8.4%	35.0%	25.0%	1.5%	37.3%	17.5%	17.7%	4.9%	4.6%	5.1%														
Photographic or cinematographic goods.	15.0%	22.7%	16.9%	4.0%	45.3%	10.6%	13.4%	16.5%	4.0%	4.6%	3.6%	9.3%	0.0%	0.1%	11.5%	10.9%	21.8%	27.0%	9.8%	3.8%	19.4%	14.2%	17.2%	5.0%	4.6%	8.0%														
Miscellaneous chemical products.	16.7%	13.3%	13.0%	3.4%	7.4%	27.7%	8.8%	15.3%	3.0%	2.8%	2.7%	7.5%	0.7%	2.9%	11.1%	10.3%	9.9%	33.4%	16.3%	3.1%	21.6%	6.0%	9.6%	2.7%	2.8%	0.2%														
Plastics and articles thereof.	16.4%	12.6%	7.9%	1.9%	7.6%	34.6%	9.2%	19.9%	5.8%	5.4%	3.5%	3.8%	1.0%	4.4%	15.1%	14.5%	15.9%	35.0%	20.8%	7.2%	22.2%	9.7%	12.5%	4.3%	7.8%	2.0%														
Rubber and articles thereof.	17.0%	19.3%	17.6%	3.1%	17.9%	35.8%	11.8%	25.2%	1.7%	10.3%	4.1%	10.4%	0.7%	1.8%	14.0%	12.7%	26.6%	33.9%	19.8%	16.9%	23.6%	20.8%	14.6%	2.0%	15.7%	5.5%														
Articles of leather, saddlery/harness, travel goods etc	11.9%	20.8%	0.4%	6.4%	14.9%	33.8%	23.5%	23.9%	2.6%	2.7%	0.8%	9.2%	0.5%	1.7%	7.9%	8.0%	7.2%	20.8%	6.4%	6.4%	0.3%	31.3%	10.0%	1.5%	6.5%	4.3%														
Furskins and artificial fur, manufactures thereof.	30.0%	37.8%	27.1%	20.5%	28.6%	49.3%	37.7%	38.0%	10.7%	9.0%	6.7%	19.0%	0.5%	7.7%	21.3%	21.2%	21.7%	35.0%	24.8%	28.2%	36.8%	28.8%	29.6%	4.5%	28.3%	3.9%														
Wood and articles of wood, wood charcoal.	13.0%	14.9%	7.8%	1.2%	9.8%	30.8%	16.0%	25.2%	1.5%	3.7%	1.0%	9.9%	1.9%	1.6%	9.3%	7.6%	5.3%	15.4%	13.4%	6.4%	8.8%	17.1%	29.9%	1.3%	2.8%	2.5%														
Cork and articles of cork.	25.6%	17.7%	11.2%	4.3%	15.1%	46.7%	9.7%	20.9%	0.6%	1.8%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	0.1%	11.1%	10.1%	8.4%	35.0%	16.9%	0.0%	21.1%	21.9%	10.0%	1.3%	0.0%	4.6%														
Manufactures of straw, esparto/other plying mat, etc	30.0%	34.8%	20.4%	4.9%	40.1%	48.4%	25.8%	37.0%	2.9%	0.0%	2.4%	19.9%	2.6%	0.3%	13.5%	13.5%	9.0%	35.0%	25.0%	18.4%	26.3%	35.0%	30.0%	0.8%	19.7%	5.0%														
Pulp of wood/other fibrous cellulosic mat, waste etc	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	19.8%	8.6%	16.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.4%	0.5%	4.8%	5.0%	0.0%	9.2%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	18.9%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%														
Paper & paperboard, art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard	21.4%	21.4%	19.3%	6.5%	10.3%	42.7%	12.4%	30.7%	2.8%	4.0%	0.5%	11.6%	0.5%	3.2%	14.3%	14.3%	15.7%	31.4%	20.1%	9.5%	25.3%	7.0%	11.4%	1.3%	8.8%	3.1%														
Printed books, newspapers, pictures & other product etc	20.1%	9.7%	6.1%	2.8%	5.8%	27.5%	10.6%	14.2%	0.5%	2.2%	0.6%	5.5%	0.0%	0.1%	4.3%	4.2%	3.2%	23.4%	7.0%	1.7%	9.3%	5.6%	8.9%	0.5%	1.8%	1.6%														
Wool, fine/coarse animal hair, horsehair yarn & fabric	23.9%	24.6%	0.1%	0.0%	72.5%	26.5%	43.4%	26.3%	38.4%	0.8%	0.0%	16.2%	8.9%	0.5%	18.9%	16.5%	20.6%	34.7%	13.6%	0.0%	22.6%	7.0%	30.0%	4.2%	0.0%	8.9%														
Other vegetable textile fibres, paper yarn & woven fab	17.1%	30.2%	4.5%	0.0%	22.2%	18.5%	14.8%	14.2%	9.1%	7.5%	4.2%	14.2%	3.1%	0.5%	14.4%	13.6%	18.5%	24.5%	10.5%	13.6%	18.5%	7.0%	11.9%	2.0%	7.4%	0.5%														
Cotton.	21.5%	37.9%	0.2%	0.0%	7.0%	29.2%	38.8%	18.6%	4.1%	10.3%	5.8%	15.3%	4.9%	2.4%	14.6%	16.2%	11.9%	22.4%	16.6%	19.1%	21.6%	7.0%	23.1%	3.7%	19.3%	4.4%														
Man-made filaments.	24.4%	41.8%	4.9%	0.0%	11.3%	34.3%	19.0%	29.7%	6.9%	0.3%	2.7%	15.9%	4.6%	0.5%	13.6%	15.4%	13.6%	30.8%	17.6%	5.5%	35.1%	7.0%	12.9%	3.9%	7.4%	3.5%														
Man-made staple fibres.	18.0%	32.6%	5.6%	0.0%	8.6%	23.9%	14.8%	16.0%	5.1%	9.1%	5.5%	17.0%	5.7%	7.0%	17.9%	17.9%	24.1%	24.0%	22.9%	20.3%	26.5%	7.0%	20.1%	5.2%	17.6%	0.0%														
Wooling, felt & nonwoven, yarns, twine, cordage, etc	19.3%	17.9%	9.8%	0.0%	14.3%	34.6%	20.9%	24.0%	8.9%	4.7%	6.4%	14.4%	3.5%	2.2%	16.2%	16.4%	20.8%	25.4%	23.6%	15.9%	26.7%	31.8%	14.8%	3.8%	16.4%	5.3%														
Carpets and other textile floor coverings.	30.0%	39.4%	29.5%	17.2%	55.0%	49.0%	68.2%	38.9%	6.3%	9.8%	9.8%	19.9%	6.2%	3.7%	21.2%	21.4%	23.4%	35.0%	30.6%	30.0%	37.5%	35.0%	30.0%	6.0%	29.4%	14.8%														
Special woven fab, tufted tex fab, lace, lace-shies etc	26.9%	32.2%	6.8%	0.0%	26.2%	39.3%	28.9%	31.9%	30.3%	9.1%	9.7%	19.9%	5.6%	3.3%	19.2%	19.5%	23.2%	31.6%	25.0%	20.4%	37.4%	35.0%	29.6%	5.6%	19.1%	5.8%														
Impregnated, coated, coverlaminated textile fabric etc	26.0%	21.7%	4.0%	0.0%	19.0%	30.1%	30.1%	28.9%	12.4%	11.0%	5.7%	17.5%	3.6%	1.8%	17.0%	17.2%	15.5%	26.6%	20.0%	12.9%	28.0%	11.8%	22.0%	5.3%	13.3%	4.8%														
Knitted or crocheted fabrics.	30.0%	51.0%	20.0%	0.0%	22.6%	40.0%	49.2%	30.9%	8.1%	13.9%	9.5%	19.8%	7.9%	8.1%	19.3%	19.5%	20.3%	33.1%	25.0%	22.0%	37.5%	12.3%	20.0%	7.2%	22.5%	12.3%														

Table 21. Protection levels by HS Chapters – cont.

	SM countries										OECD countries										IUC countries										LDC									
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EU	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Argentina	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Guatemala	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar													
Knitted or crocheted fabrics.	30.0%	51.0%	20.0%	0.0%	22.6%	40.0%	49.2%	39.4%	8.1%	13.9%	9.5%	19.4%	7.9%	8.1%	10.9%	19.3%	19.5%	33.1%	25.0%	22.0%	37.5%	12.3%	20.0%	7.2%	22.5%	19.3%														
Art of apparel & clothing access. knitted or crocheted.	30.0%	142.5%	28.4%	5.0%	16.5%	49.4%	70.4%	10.2%	23.3%	17.2%	19.4%	10.1%	3.3%	10.3%	13.9%	21.1%	21.5%	23.0%	35.0%	25.0%	38.5%	37.2%	34.3%	30.0%	40.1%	12.4%														
Art of apparel & clothing access. not knitted/crocheted	30.0%	54.2%	27.9%	5.0%	14.1%	49.7%	69.8%	34.3%	11.0%	23.4%	16.6%	19.7%	9.9%	4.0%	10.9%	21.2%	21.4%	23.4%	34.7%	25.0%	37.6%	37.1%	30.0%	7.4%	37.3%	19.0%														
Other made up textile articles. sets. worn clothing etc.	28.3%	63.9%	28.5%	10.1%	66.2%	46.2%	41.5%	37.2%	21.3%	14.6%	14.7%	19.6%	4.4%	7.6%	7.4%	19.1%	20.2%	23.5%	33.5%	14.2%	32.1%	36.6%	27.5%	6.4%	27.1%	6.7%														
Footwear, galiers and the like. parts of such articles.	23.9%	36.9%	17.7%	22.3%	5.2%	49.9%	60.5%	12.3%	11.9%	13.7%	17.8%	20.1%	0.4%	13.5%	7.4%	19.4%	21.6%	23.7%	34.9%	24.8%	28.0%	18.1%	29.5%	8.9%	24.6%	9.3%														
Headgear and parts thereof.	37.9%	37.9%	30.0%	16.7%	36.6%	41.1%	30.3%	34.8%	1.9%	3.5%	6.1%	18.7%	2.6%	0.7%	5.5%	21.3%	21.1%	24.0%	35.0%	20.0%	25.5%	34.9%	30.0%	2.5%	22.3%	9.3%														
Umbrellas, walking-sticks, seat-sticks, whips, etc	25.3%	36.9%	27.9%	3.5%	24.8%	46.7%	35.4%	4.1%	3.4%	4.8%	18.5%	1.1%	0.7%	5.1%	5.1%	21.2%	20.9%	14.0%	28.7%	23.4%	28.7%	15.7%	30.0%	4.8%	26.3%	9.6%														
Prepr feathers & down, arti flower, articles human hair	30.0%	39.5%	30.0%	5.0%	151.6%	11.4%	50.0%	41.7%	2.9%	0.0%	2.4%	18.0%	1.0%	0.8%	5.4%	17.5%	17.5%	25.8%	35.0%	22.1%	18.8%	37.5%	28.6%	4.0%	18.3%	9.8%														
Art of stone, plaster, cement, asbestos, mica&sm mat	21.4%	25.6%	24.1%	9.7%	26.8%	36.7%	28.2%	26.7%	0.6%	4.9%	3.1%	13.9%	0.6%	0.7%	1.4%	9.3%	10.1%	14.3%	35.0%	23.2%	24.7%	18.0%	26.1%	1.1%	5.7%	4.8%														
Ceramic products	24.8%	25.4%	25.1%	9.6%	18.0%	38.7%	41.4%	25.7%	4.2%	4.8%	3.9%	12.8%	1.1%	0.9%	6.6%	14.4%	14.7%	27.5%	31.3%	22.6%	13.6%	28.1%	7.2%	27.5%	13.7%	4.9%														
Glass and glassware.	18.2%	24.2%	14.6%	4.8%	16.3%	29.9%	28.3%	24.8%	3.2%	4.0%	1.0%	10.5%	1.0%	1.9%	4.7%	13.2%	13.0%	15.9%	34.8%	22.7%	7.0%	13.3%	22.1%	3.2%	6.3%	7.2%														
Natural/cultured pearls, prec stones & metals, coin etc	15.1%	5.6%	6.0%	0.0%	34.6%	12.2%	2.8%	37.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	9.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	6.5%	4.8%	1.7%	35.0%	5.0%	0.1%	5.2%	0.4%	30.0%	0.1%	0.0%	1.3%													
Iron and steel.	16.0%	13.0%	4.4%	2.7%	0.0%	17.9%	1.7%	19.0%	10.7%	4.1%	0.3%	5.4%	0.7%	0.8%	1.0%	11.8%	11.9%	7.2%	34.7%	18.3%	3.8%	18.5%	14.9%	5.4%	3.3%	0.2%														
Articles of iron or steel.	17.0%	24.7%	21.2%	5.5%	17.6%	34.9%	20.0%	23.0%	2.4%	6.5%	2.6%	13.6%	0.7%	1.1%	1.6%	16.9%	16.3%	11.8%	34.8%	23.2%	7.5%	28.2%	11.6%	16.5%	2.1%	7.3%	5.0%													
Copper and articles thereof.	15.2%	11.0%	8.9%	2.0%	5.7%	15.9%	5.1%	20.9%	1.8%	2.6%	0.6%	6.3%	1.5%	0.4%	1.3%	11.3%	9.5%	4.3%	35.0%	10.7%	3.1%	11.2%	7.8%	10.9%	1.3%	2.0%	2.9%													
Nickel and articles thereof.	16.3%	12.4%	11.3%	2.0%	9.7%	16.9%	7.2%	16.6%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	3.4%	0.1%	0.4%	11.3%	10.7%	4.7%	15.8%	6.4%	0.0%	10.1%	11.2%	10.0%	0.2%	0.0%	4.5%													
Aluminium and articles thereof.	14.4%	7.7%	8.1%	0.7%	0.7%	28.8%	2.7%	21.8%	2.0%	0.4%	1.0%	4.7%	1.9%	0.1%	0.4%	10.2%	9.4%	3.8%	35.0%	6.5%	0.0%	7.6%	7.6%	14.1%	1.8%	0.0%	1.7%													
Lead and articles thereof.	14.4%	7.7%	8.1%	0.7%	0.7%	28.8%	2.7%	21.8%	2.0%	0.4%	1.0%	4.7%	1.9%	0.1%	0.4%	10.2%	9.4%	3.8%	35.0%	6.5%	0.0%	7.6%	7.6%	14.1%	1.8%	0.0%	1.7%													
Other base metals, cermets, articles thereof.	15.0%	7.7%	9.2%	2.2%	4.0%	28.2%	10.3%	16.0%	2.4%	0.0%	0.6%	6.4%	1.3%	0.6%	3.6%	5.5%	4.8%	6.4%	34.2%	6.4%	0.0%	19.5%	7.0%	10.8%	2.5%	0.0%	1.4%													
Tool, implement, cutlery, spoon & fork, of base metal	15.2%	12.3%	14.7%	3.1%	5.7%	8.1%	11.0%	20.7%	1.9%	4.3%	2.9%	10.7%	0.2%	0.6%	3.2%	18.0%	18.1%	9.8%	35.0%	13.8%	6.5%	13.5%	14.2%	19.3%	2.8%	6.0%	5.8%													
Miscellaneous articles of base metal.	21.5%	26.9%	16.3%	5.1%	19.5%	42.8%	14.9%	30.5%	1.4%	7.4%	2.8%	14.0%	1.5%	1.2%	2.5%	17.3%	17.3%	15.0%	35.0%	24.7%	14.7%	30.9%	24.7%	1.9%	12.0%	4.2%														
Nuclear reactors, boilers, mchy & mech appliances. parts	8.2%	10.4%	7.0%	3.2%	14.6%	8.5%	11.8%	8.8%	0.8%	2.4%	0.7%	5.3%	0.0%	0.2%	0.6%	12.7%	12.1%	12.4%	23.5%	12.7%	2.3%	7.1%	14.4%	11.9%	0.8%	3.4%														
Electrical mchy equip parts thereof. sound recorder etc	13.6%	13.4%	13.5%	3.1%	26.0%	10.0%	14.9%	20.9%	1.3%	2.3%	0.7%	7.4%	0.1%	0.5%	0.9%	11.3%	12.2%	11.5%	22.9%	16.4%	3.9%	16.3%	17.8%	16.2%	1.4%	5.3%														
Radio/gram/locum, rolling-stock & parts thereof. etc	5.0%	6.1%	2.9%	5.0%	7.1%	5.2%	8.6%	7.9%	0.8%	4.3%	4.4%	8.9%	0.0%	0.4%	2.9%	14.7%	13.5%	4.8%	30.4%	10.0%	0.0%	20.1%	15.0%	10.0%	0.0%	2.7%														
Vehicles of rail/tram/rail/stock, pts & accessories	15.8%	42.3%	18.7%	5.0%	79.6%	27.9%	63.2%	17.9%	6.0%	15.9%	4.4%	13.7%	0.0%	0.9%	2.9%	17.9%	25.4%	44.6%	58.5%	68.0%	21.7%	20.0%	27.5%	20.9%	15.9%	7.3%														
Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof.	0.0%	5.0%	2.2%	0.0%	40.9%	12.0%	12.1%	13.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.2%	14.0%	7.9%	6.3%	5.0%	0.0%	1.9%	9.3%	0.0%	4.3%	0.0%														
Ships, boats and floating structures.	0.7%	6.9%	0.3%	0.0%	2.6%	2.3%	10.4%	9.9%	1.4%	2.5%	18.2%	4.8%	0.0%	1.5%	0.2%	16.2%	14.0%	7.9%	26.8%	11.3%	1.2%	12.0%	14.7%	10.1%	1.1%	5.0%														
Optical photo. one. meas. checking. precision. etc	9.7%	8.7%	13.9%	4.9%	16.7%	7.8%	13.4%	11.0%	1.1%	1.0%	0.5%	7.7%	0.1%	1.2%	1.2%	13.8%	13.1%	11.0%	24.1%	10.5%	0.4%	7.4%	11.6%	9.9%	1.3%	0.5%	4.6%													
Musical instruments, parts and access of such articles	30.0%	29.9%	29.9%	5.0%	40.9%	27.0%	36.6%	30.4%	2.6%	1.4%	2.1%	10.2%	0.0%	0.5%	3.3%	17.3%	17.6%	22.5%	35.0%	18.7%	0.0%	37.5%	30.0%	2.2%	0.0%	4.7%														
Arms and ammunition. parts and accessories thereof	8.3%	16.1%	27.8%	5.7%	26.2%	38.9%	35.1%	24.2%	1.5%	1.2%	2.1%	18.5%	6.8%	0.2%	0.6%	19.1%	21.5%	13.0%	35.0%	25.0%	20.2%	34.2%	27.1%	22.2%	20.0%	9.9%														
Furniture, bedding, mattresses, matt support, cushion etc	30.0%	36.0%	26.4%	22.5%	23.0%	47.4%	42.8%	33.3%	3.4%	5.2%	4.2%	17.5%	0.2%	1.0%	1.0%	18.8%	19.0%	20.8%	28.9%	20.4%	15.1%	33.7%	25.2%	23.7%	1.5%	12.7%	8.1%													
Toys, games & sports requisites, parts & access thereof	30.0%	13.7%	29.5%	5.2%	23.0%	8.1%	26.0%	32.6%	2.7%	3.4%	1.0%	19.7%	0.9%	0.6%	0.7%	21.3%	21.0%	16.9%	28.9%	20.0%	2.3%	29.4%	30.0%	2.6%	2.0%	6.0%														
Miscellaneous manufactured articles.	23.2%	17.2%	12.5%	4.9%	25.0%	39.8%	20.7%	33.9%	3.3%	4.1%	5.7%	15.7%	2.1%	1.4%	4.3%	18.9%	19.4%	20.6%	35.0%	23.3%	12.8%	35.3%	27.8%	3.0%	14.1%	5.7%														

## 8 Annex 2

Table 22 . Average duty faced on exports by HS Chapters.

	SI countries							OECD countries										LDC									
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EJ	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Argentina	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Bangladesh	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar	
Live animals	29.4%	4.1%	8.2%	6.1%	2.2%	2.2%	5.7%	5.9%	10.6%	30.1%	12.7%	1.9%	4.5%	9.9%	3.1%	9.3%	20.4%	7.9%	3.7%	9.5%	50%	9.4%	22.6%	6.2%	7.1%	1.1%	
Meat and edible meat offal	81.2%	52.4%	22.6%	49.6%	11.3%	45.9%	43.5%	24.9%	45.0%	26.4%	27.3%	43.0%	25.9%	30.0%	31.7%	46.7%	33.5%	48.3%	20.1%	26.3%	17.0%	3.3%	2.5%	8.5%	18.1%	11.2%	
Fish & crustacean molluscs & other aquatic invertebrates	25%	8.3%	8.8%	14.5%	5.3%	3.0%	4.9%	2.2%	8.0%	7.4%	6.6%	11.0%	8.5%	8.9%	7.8%	5.4%	5.6%	6.6%	7.1%	7.3%	3.1%	3.3%	2.5%	15.6%	2.8%	2.6%	
Dairy prod. (incl. eggs natural honey, edible prod./meat)	41.0%	38.7%	28.9%	41.4%	13.1%	42.9%	33.5%	28.5%	36.5%	32.2%	37.5%	34.2%	33.6%	28.6%	29.5%	32.2%	26.4%	27.7%	17.9%	21.2%	53.9%	37.4%	3.9%	14.1%	37.5%	12.0%	
Products of animal origin, nes/including	0.7%	4.4%	13.6%	6.7%	4.4%	4.5%	5.6%	4.8%	6.6%	2.6%	5.7%	3.9%	3.5%	5.3%	6.7%	3.9%	2.9%	3.4%	4.8%	4.8%	1.1%	0.5%	1.7%	1.7%	2.2%	2.2%	
Live trees & other plant, bulb, root, cut flowers etc	3.2%	5.0%	7.0%	23.8%	7.8%	10.0%	10.0%	6.6%	8.2%	4.6%	6.3%	5.1%	4.1%	6.1%	6.6%	3.1%	3.6%	5.0%	7.3%	5.6%	3.0%	5.8%	3.9%	3.9%	2.9%	2.9%	
Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers	5.5%	14.8%	15.9%	27.4%	21.0%	15.1%	14.9%	18.8%	19.2%	15.9%	14.2%	10.2%	12.6%	15.0%	23.1%	13.7%	20.9%	14.7%	22.0%	23.2%	7.2%	15.1%	28.4%	19.3%	7.0%	14.3%	
Edible fruit or tree prod of other fruit or tree	7.9%	12.1%	15.1%	18.8%	26.4%	9.8%	17.1%	7.0%	14.1%	10.8%	9.9%	13.0%	11.7%	11.2%	14.4%	8.4%	14.6%	4.7%	19.3%	11.2%	34.4%	28.5%	16.1%	31.9%	1.8%	9.9%	
Coffee, tea, mate- and spices	36.1%	12.1%	6.2%	10.8%	17.8%	4.1%	7.1%	5.8%	7.7%	5.1%	6.0%	6.2%	5.1%	7.4%	9.2%	2.3%	12.0%	7.2%	9.8%	8.6%	16.0%	0.9%	0.4%	3.4%	1.7%	1.7%	
Cereals	32.9%	87.9%	8.5%	17.7%	14.4%	7.7%	12.3%	18.7%	26.2%	16.1%	36.3%	30.8%	28.0%	25.4%	18.6%	24.3%	30.7%	41.5%	59.8%	23.8%	63.8%	46.8%	35.8%	21.0%	61.3%	61.3%	
Prod of mill/ind. meat, starchy, incl. wheat gluten	30.6%	32.7%	21.6%	22.7%	22.7%	19.2%	16.0%	16.9%	30.7%	30.0%	26.7%	34.2%	22.6%	21.6%	20.3%	19.3%	33.4%	27.8%	38.9%	23.2%	14.6%	8.0%	24.4%	20.7%	28.2%	9.7%	
Diverse legumin. meso/grain, seed, flour etc	5.3%	7.4%	8.2%	14.1%	17.2%	1.3%	8.4%	2.9%	7.1%	6.2%	6.9%	3.5%	9.4%	10.8%	35.2%	24.5%	10.4%	10.6%	12.2%	13.9%	13.3%	5.9%	24.4%	14.4%	2.7%	2.7%	
Lac, gums, resins & other vegetable saps & extracts	1.6%	4.2%	5.8%	4.4%	1.7%	3.6%	4.5%	2.2%	3.0%	4.1%	4.7%	3.5%	3.9%	5.9%	8.2%	5.1%	2.9%	2.3%	4.0%	6.6%	3.2%	7.1%	1.0%	20.4%	0.3%	3.3%	
Vegetable plating materials, vegetable products nes	6.4%	7.7%	7.3%	7.3%	33.3%	2.2%	0.8%	4.8%	4.9%	3.0%	2.9%	5.6%	4.6%	3.1%	2.2%	3.0%	2.1%	6.3%	4.2%	3.8%	3.2%	7.1%	1.0%	20.4%	0.3%	3.3%	
Animaling fats & oils & live change products, etc	22.7%	30.2%	19.9%	19.9%	16.1%	19.9%	22.3%	26.9%	12.4%	9.4%	12.0%	8.7%	10.4%	16.1%	21.9%	16.9%	8.9%	5.9%	10.1%	21.9%	5.1%	15.1%	3.7%	1.5%	2.2%	2.2%	
Prep of meat, fish or crustaceans, molluscs etc	7.4%	21.9%	25.2%	27.1%	16.1%	9.7%	17.6%	8.6%	16.5%	13.0%	17.0%	14.8%	16.6%	19.3%	22.7%	23.2%	12.3%	7.1%	5.2%	20.3%	2.9%	2.9%	3.7%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	
Sugars and sugar confectionery	18.0%	17.0%	16.2%	15.8%	14.8%	14.8%	19.0%	25.0%	71.7%	16.6%	31.4%	15.4%	14.5%	22.1%	32.1%	44.4%	30.0%	37.5%	18.8%	37.6%	13.5%	7.1%	3.7%	46.1%	19.8%	67.1%	
Starch and preparations	8.8%	18.7%	11.8%	15.9%	19.3%	12.8%	14.7%	16.4%	14.3%	12.3%	13.9%	11.0%	9.1%	13.9%	18.1%	11.9%	10.3%	17.7%	12.8%	17.5%	25.0%	8.9%	8.9%	10.2%	10.2%	0.0%	
Prep of cereal, flour, starch, paste/powder, prod	15.2%	17.2%	16.2%	15.5%	49.1%	19.8%	16.4%	18.3%	14.8%	12.1%	11.9%	13.7%	10.5%	15.1%	17.6%	15.3%	14.5%	17.6%	13.3%	21.9%	8.9%	18.9%	13.7%	28.9%	28.9%	8.2%	
Prep of vegetable, fruit, nuts or other parts of plants	17.5%	16.2%	19.3%	15.4%	23.7%	6.7%	20.8%	30.7%	18.4%	14.7%	14.8%	15.7%	18.7%	17.8%	22.0%	15.5%	15.1%	14.7%	8.3%	18.2%	16.5%	5.2%	5.2%	16.5%	4.6%	4.1%	
Miscellaneous edible preparations	16.1%	18.1%	25.3%	17.9%	25.0%	25.0%	22.2%	13.7%	16.4%	10.0%	16.9%	12.5%	11.6%	15.4%	20.5%	19.8%	11.8%	30.6%	12.3%	24.4%	8.2%	16.3%	12.7%	20.4%	10.0%	1.9%	
Beverages, spirits and vinegar	5.1%	4.6%	23.7%	6.0%	14.1%	27.2%	11.6%	24.2%	11.1%	6.9%	14.2%	13.2%	11.6%	20.0%	38.7%	71.5%	10.2%	23.9%	32.0%	23.5%	8.8%	12.7%	20.4%	20.4%	4.5%		
Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes	10.7%	56.4%	64.6%	20.8%	3.8%	3.2%	11.6%	7.2%	13.5%	7.6%	6.2%	8.3%	13.1%	9.1%	3.6%	2.3%	6.8%	4.4%	10.5%	9.5%	7.9%	3.9%	21.0%	5.4%	6.1%	5.2%	
Salt sulphur, earth & stone, slasting mat. lime & am	2.5%	1.6%	4.7%	5.6%	8.2%	1.5%	2.9%	2.7%	2.2%	2.0%	2.1%	4.4%	2.4%	1.8%	6.2%	2.0%	1.5%	3.9%	5.0%	3.7%	20.5%	14.2%	15.3%	9.3%	26.1%	0.9%	
Ores, slag and ash	1.1%	2.2%	2.7%	2.5%	1.0%	2.7%	1.4%	0.7%	2.7%	0.6%	1.9%	3.9%	1.7%	2.4%	4.7%	3.7%	2.4%	3.8%	4.0%	3.1%	1.8%	4.0%	0.5%	6.7%	15.2%	6.3%	
Mining fuels, oils & product of their distillation etc	1.4%	2.1%	15.3%	7.0%	4.8%	11.7%	6.6%	10.5%	5.4%	3.4%	3.3%	4.8%	2.4%	4.8%	5.9%	4.0%	5.5%	5.0%	6.5%	5.5%	5.8%	11.7%	8.1%	4.0%	7.4%	7.4%	
Inorg chem, compds of free met, carbonic elements etc	1.6%	3.8%	5.6%	7.0%	2.2%	1.5%	6.6%	5.3%	3.4%	3.0%	3.3%	4.6%	2.1%	4.0%	4.6%	3.9%	4.8%	3.7%	7.9%	3.9%	4.0%	11.5%	8.1%	0.5%	0.9%	1.5%	
Organic chemicals	4.3%	6.1%	8.2%	5.1%	8.7%	7.4%	4.5%	7.2%	1.7%	0.8%	2.1%	1.3%	1.6%	1.2%	5.8%	5.0%	2.6%	4.4%	5.6%	7.4%	4.9%	0.5%	5.0%	5.8%	9.4%	9.4%	
Pharmaceutical products																											

Table 23 . Average duty faced on exports by HS Chapters - cont..

	S11 countries										GEO countries										I11 countries										LDC				
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EU	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Argentina	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Bangladesh	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar								
Feliciters	0%	13%	6.8%	3.2%	3.9%	2.2%	4.6%	3.1%	2.2%	5.0%	2.3%	2.1%	4.4%	2.7%	4.5%	3.9%	5.3%	8.0%	2.9%	5.3%	4.6%	19%													
Tanning/leather extract, tanned & dehair, pigm etc	38%	6%	12.9%	8.9%	8.6%	10.1%	9.6%	10.1%	9.6%	7.5%	4.1%	5.7%	6.8%	3.9%	6.3%	6.5%	8.7%	5.9%	4.1%	9.9%	7.8%	9.6%	50%	8.0%	4.9%	3.3%	11.9%								
Essential oils & essences, perf, cosmetic/other prep	8%	6%	14.3%	9.8%	1.9%	3.1%	16.1%	7.2%	13.0%	9.2%	2.7%	6.6%	4.7%	6.2%	12.6%	14.6%	10.6%	4.3%	7.6%	7.9%	19.1%	6.3%	8.6%	3.5%	1.0%	3.3%	1.5%								
Soap, organic surface-active agents, washing prep, etc	30.0%	21.1%	28.4%	23.8%	2.2%	24.9%	19.8%	10.7%	15.2%	7.5%	2.4%	7.0%	3.5%	5.2%	14.0%	13.0%	4.3%	8.1%	8.1%	9.2%	20.0%	8.1%	5.1%	1.3%	32.2%	6.9%	14.6%								
Aluminoid salts, modified starches, glue, enzymes	11.7%	11.9%	21.5%	12.5%	11.9%	11.9%	3.6%	12.9%	11.0%	7.6%	6.5%	7.0%	7.6%	3.1%	7.8%	6.6%	7.1%	6.1%	4.6%	7.7%	11.3%	4.1%		12.9%		8.0%									
Explosives & pyrotechnic prod, matches, pyrotech, etc	10.4%	11.1%	38.0%	17.5%	10.4%	11.1%	11.1%	11.0%	21.7%	10.2%	4.4%	5.9%	9.7%	2.5%	7.0%	14.3%	19.4%	7.0%	18.2%	28.4%	16.9%	10.7%	1.6%		2.7%										
Photographic or cinematographic goods	1%	6.3%	19.5%	4.3%	1.1%	8.3%	6.9%	8.3%	5.3%	9.5%	4.2%	5.0%	6.4%	3.3%	6.0%	9.1%	10.4%	5.0%	3.6%	3.5%	7.0%	10.7%	0.1%	7.5%	12.4%	0.5%									
Miscellaneous chemical products	3.1%	6.7%	7.2%	8.7%	6.8%	5.9%	7.5%	6.9%	7.0%	6.6%	3.6%	4.6%	3.8%	3.4%	4.3%	7.6%	5.8%	6.1%	4.5%	5.4%	7.1%	9.4%	0.1%	7.5%	20.5%	12.4%	0.5%								
Plastics and articles thereof	4.4%	4.0%	17.1%	12.7%	7.1%	7.1%	10.0%	5.3%	8.3%	8.8%	4.6%	5.7%	8.5%	3.0%	7.5%	11.3%	9.6%	3.4%	7.1%	4.3%	12.2%	2.0%	2.9%	19.3%	12.8%	3.0%	5.8%								
Rubber and articles thereof	1.6%	15.9%	7.5%	7.5%	1.9%	8.6%	5.9%	13.2%	4.3%	7.3%	3.0%	4.9%	7.7%	3.9%	6.1%	12.4%	10.6%	6.7%	9.0%	5.0%	11.9%	7.4%	0.1%	0.9%	2.6%	20.7%	9.2%								
Raw hides and skins (other than furskins) and leather	1.4%	2.6%	3.3%	3.2%	1.1%	3.5%	0.8%	4.6%	3.5%	4.3%	1.9%	4.6%	5.3%	1.8%	2.9%	5.9%	4.1%	3.3%	3.3%	4.0%	1.5%	1.8%	3.8%	1.2%	2.4%	0.6%	0.6%								
Articles of leather, suitably finished, items goods etc	5.8%	5.8%	4.2%	5.4%	4.0%	4.0%	20.1%	3.2%	5.0%	9.3%	4.4%	7.5%	9.0%	4.3%	8.3%	9.9%	4.6%	7.6%	5.7%	6.3%	7.0%	3.5%	4.0%	9.2%	2.2%	3.0%	1.0%								
Fur skins and articles thereof	0.4%	2.7%	13.7%	7.7%	4.4%	2.7%	19.1%	2.7%	11.3%	5.2%	2.5%	6.5%	12.3%	1.9%	4.4%	4.0%	2.5%	5.2%	5.3%	5.1%	2.9%	5.0%		4.0%		1.0%									
Wood and articles thereof	1.1%	8.4%	12.7%	0.9%	2.4%	0.9%	6.0%	0.7%	6.1%	4.0%	2.6%	2.2%	5.6%	1.1%	5.0%	5.4%	9.9%	3.2%	5.5%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%		0.4%	0.7%	0.7%	2.2%								
Cork and articles of cork	15%	4.5%	16.2%	14.2%	1.6%	1.6%	13.8%	1.1%	5.1%	10.5%	3.1%	3.9%	7.4%	2.3%	7.4%	5.4%	3.9%	2.5%	3.2%	2.8%	5.2%	2.0%	1.7%		0.6%	1.4%	1.4%								
Menadiones of straw, esparto, other pithing mat, etc	23%	5.5%	9.8%	2.9%	1.7%	0.9%	1.9%	0.2%	2.3%	2.6%	0.6%	0.7%	1.6%	0.5%	1.6%	1.4%	0.5%	1.3%	0.6%	1.4%	1.1%	2.1%			5.3%		5.5%								
Pulp of wood (other than cellulose), mat, waste etc	13.2%	10.6%	14.4%	12.2%	11.4%	11.3%	12.4%	10.4%	10.1%	5.4%	1.7%	3.6%	6.0%	1.7%	6.0%	13.6%	8.9%	2.5%	8.4%	11.1%	9.4%	4.6%	1.6%	24.7%	15.1%	1.8%	2.3%								
Paper & paperboard, art of paper pulp, paper/paperboard	0.2%	1.5%	8.0%	2.1%	0.4%	0.9%	8.6%	3.0%	4.0%	1.8%	0.8%	1.4%	2.7%	1.0%	1.3%	3.8%	3.0%	0.9%	2.1%	3.0%	7.4%	2.0%	0.2%		1.8%		2.3%								
Printed books, newspapers, journals & other products	11.2%	22.3%	2.6%	2.6%	2.1%	11.3%	1.1%	4.7%	4.7%	9.0%	5.9%	7.2%	24.9%	8.4%	12.7%	8.8%	3.0%	7.9%	6.4%	4.7%	20.2%	9.3%	3.7%		1.1%	34.4%	34.4%								
Silk	0.3%	10.1%	5.0%	4.6%	3.1%	9.5%	7.2%	6.8%	8.0%	3.6%	5.6%	10.2%	20.9%	6.0%	8.8%	6.7%	5.2%	5.9%	7.9%	4.1%	2.8%	2.3%	7.9%		8.2%	11.5%	4.6%								
Wool, fine/coarse animal hair, horsehair, yarn & fabric	8.1%	2.9%	6.2%	11.8%	13.3%	4.5%	2.7%	5.0%	5.2%	2.5%	5.9%	9.9%	14.3%	4.9%	6.6%	5.6%	10.7%	10.9%	10.3%	6.0%	10.7%	4.9%	8.1%	1.1%		11.5%	8.0%								
Cotton	3.5%	6.6%	12.2%	11.0%	15.3%	8.0%	10.0%	7.9%	7.6%	7.1%	1.0%	5.6%	13.7%	6.6%	11.4%	6.0%	4.2%	6.8%	4.3%	10.9%	5.5%	5.8%	9.0%		5.4%	1.4%	1.4%								
Other vegetable textile fibres, paper yarn & woven fabric	15.2%	6.3%	16.6%	15.6%	8.8%	8.0%	28.4%	5.7%	8.4%	13.0%	5.8%	10.0%	11.2%	5.5%	8.5%	11.2%	11.3%	12.2%	11.8%	8.8%	7.7%	13.8%	5.1%	2.5%	5.4%	17.0%	17.0%								
Man-made staple fibres	13.1%	4.7%	16.6%	14.5%	6.5%	12.3%	4.0%	6.5%	6.5%	7.7%	4.4%	8.8%	4.0%	7.3%	10.5%	14.0%	9.2%	7.4%	9.8%	4.9%	9.1%	4.0%	3.6%		16.6%	27.5%	7.9%								
Woolings (all & nonwool), yarns, lace, cordage, etc	8.0%	4.5%	16.7%	14.3%	5.3%	2.2%	21.6%	3.8%	12.4%	9.7%	6.7%	8.1%	13.2%	4.6%	10.2%	17.6%	13.2%	6.8%	6.7%	3.0%	12.0%	3.8%	2.7%		2.5%	20.8%	32.6%								
Carpets and other textile floor coverings	7.6%	6.1%	24.4%	12.2%	10.3%	10.3%	16.9%	3.3%	9.6%	13.1%	6.7%	11.1%	18.3%	6.0%	14.1%	18.3%	15.1%	11.8%	10.9%	8.2%	10.8%	4.4%	5.7%		8.9%	2.8%	5.5%								
Special woven fabric, tufted fabric, lace, tapestries etc	7.0%	11.9%	9.5%	9.0%	3.7%	9.7%	4.7%	7.6%	7.6%	8.8%	5.0%	6.4%	10.3%	3.4%	7.7%	11.9%	8.9%	9.0%	7.9%	3.7%	12.1%	6.0%	2.1%		8.9%	7.1%	7.1%								
Impregnated, coated, laminated, etc fabric etc	4.9%	6.7%	4.3%	14.4%	5.6%	5.6%	16.0%	5.5%	10.7%	14.9%	6.4%	11.5%	16.2%	6.2%	12.7%	15.1%	15.0%	10.4%	11.2%	11.2%	13.3%	5.0%	5.9%		7.0%	3.4%	16.1%								
Knitwear or crocheted fabrics																																			

Table 24 . Average duty faced on exports by HS Chapters - cont..

	SII countries										OECD countries										LDC									
	Algeria	Egypt	Jordan	Lebanon	Libya	Morocco	Syria	Tunisia	Turkey	Australia	Canada	EU	Japan	Switzerland	USA	Argentina	Brazil	China	India	Pakistan	South Africa	Bangladesh	Cambodia	Chad	Ethiopia	Lesotho	Madagascar			
Art of apparel & clothing accessories, knitted or crocheted	9.3%	6.9%	5.6%	10.9%	11.0%	7.1%	13.8%	16.8%	7.4%	12.9%	8.3%	13.7%	14.5%	6.8%	23.3%	29.7%	21.2%	14.5%	14.0%	7.1%	17.1%	6.1%	8.3%	6.0%	7.5%	5.7%	5.2%			
Art of apparel & clothing accessories, no knitted/crocheted	18.1%	6.3%	5.0%	18.0%	26.0%	6.4%	14.5%	16.8%	7.6%	14.1%	8.7%	11.5%	18.4%	7.4%	18.5%	23.9%	16.7%	12.8%	12.4%	6.3%	17.0%	5.4%	5.6%	10.5%	4.8%	4.6%				
Other made up textile articles, sets, worn clothing etc.	9.5%	6.2%	17.4%	12.7%	22.1%	6.8%	17.8%	5.7%	6.5%	16.9%	11.2%	10.8%	16.2%	6.5%	14.9%	22.7%	14.6%	11.3%	10.0%	6.2%	22.2%	6.6%	5.1%	6.3%	31.5%	7.4%				
Footwear, gaiters and the like, parts of such articles	6.1%	7.4%	20.8%	13.2%	13.2%	5.9%	24.0%	5.3%	16.2%	12.1%	7.5%	13.3%	13.4%	6.4%	13.8%	11.5%	11.5%	13.4%	7.2%	7.8%	22.2%	4.7%	6.1%	3.2%	18.8%	26.0%				
Headgear and parts thereof	3.6%	4.1%	19.7%	10.7%	10.7%	1.1%	22.8%	14%	16.8%	8.8%	3.1%	5.7%	3.2%	6.9%	6.3%	10.9%	13.8%	5.4%	5.3%	3.7%	13.5%	3.2%	3.8%	3.2%	1.9%	2.8%				
Umbrellas, walking-sticks, seat-saddles, whips, etc.	11.6%	17.0%	17.0%	10.7%	14%	0.8%	22.2%	10.9%	10.6%	8.0%	3.0%	6.2%	16.7%	4.2%	10.8%	8.9%	15.7%	5.0%	12.7%	21.1%	13.2%	17.6%	1.8%	21.3%	21.3%	2.8%				
Paper, fishnets & down and lower articles, human hair	8.9%	7.1%	11.2%	10.1%	14%	4.3%	12.1%	3.4%	4.7%	5.7%	1.8%	4.7%	7.7%	2.7%	4.9%	8.3%	4.9%	3.0%	2.9%	2.1%	6.9%	3.9%	4.5%	0.8%	0.8%	4.3%				
Art of stone, plaster, cement, asbestos, mica or mineral	5.9%	9.2%	27.1%	22.4%	2.3%	2.2%	22.8%	15.1%	6.2%	5.6%	3.7%	8.9%	7.2%	4.1%	6.9%	10.9%	11.4%	7.9%	11.9%	12.2%	17.2%	2.9%	11.0%	0.9%	3.6%	7.6%				
Ceramic products	14%	6.2%	17.3%	11.5%	2.8%	3.4%	13.8%	10.9%	7.1%	5.7%	3.4%	5.3%	6.8%	3.4%	5.9%	15.4%	10.8%	6.9%	7.4%	12.0%	9.8%	2.7%	3.1%	20.0%	0.7%	14.1%				
Glass and glassware	0.5%	0.2%	0.3%	0.4%	0.8%	1.1%	0.9%	0.2%	0.5%	1.9%	0.4%	4.1%	1.7%	7.6%	0.7%	1.7%	10%	1.0%	0.4%	0.3%	9.4%	22.8%	0.7%	3.9%	0.3%	18.8%				
Iron and steel	3.5%	7.5%	24.9%	3.1%	7.0%	3.4%	4.4%	2.1%	7.4%	6.2%	4.8%	3.2%	8.0%	4.4%	5.7%	6.6%	3.4%	4.4%	5.0%	6.3%	4.4%	3.2%	5.2%	24.8%	11.7%	0.7%				
Articles of iron or steel	2.2%	5.9%	19.1%	12.0%	6.7%	7.7%	15.1%	8.0%	7.2%	7.9%	2.4%	4.9%	7.7%	2.2%	6.3%	9.5%	10.5%	4.6%	6.0%	7.0%	11.4%	2.4%	2.4%	11.2%	13.7%	4.7%				
Copper and articles thereof	0.3%	4.7%	5.3%	3.3%	1.2%	1.2%	7.5%	1.6%	2.3%	4.1%	1.5%	2.8%	4.5%	1.8%	4.0%	3.9%	3.4%	3.0%	3.2%	3.5%	2.9%	1.7%	13.3%	8.0%	25.8%	1.2%				
Articles of nickel	3.5%	2.2%	4.1%	0.2%	0.4%	1.0%	9.5%	0.2%	1.1%	1.1%	0.8%	2.0%	2.3%	2.8%	2.4%	1.5%	1.1%	1.4%	2.5%	3.6%	2.8%	2.4%	2.4%	10.8%	8.9%	0.8%				
Articles of aluminium	2.3%	2.4%	7.7%	3.0%	2.7%	2.0%	5.9%	3.9%	3.9%	4.8%	3.6%	4.0%	6.9%	2.3%	6.9%	4.8%	4.7%	4.5%	5.5%	4.3%	4.4%	2.7%	15.4%	19.0%	12.7%	2.0%				
Lead and articles thereof	2.3%	13.4%	11.5%	1.0%	11.3%	1.5%	7.1%	0.5%	4.0%	4.2%	1.7%	2.0%	5.7%	2.0%	3.2%	4.2%	4.2%	2.9%	3.4%	5.5%	7.3%	13.2%	4.7%	2.1%	0.7%	0.7%				
Zinc and articles thereof	1.4%	3.3%	10.8%	9.4%	11.8%	2.5%	1.7%	0.7%	7.1%	4.4%	1.8%	2.6%	6.0%	4.2%	5.1%	4.5%	3.8%	3.0%	2.4%	4.4%	7.5%	2.9%	20.6%	0.2%	0.2%	20.5%				
Tin and articles thereof	0.2%	11.8%	10.8%	11.8%	4.0%	1.4%	14.9%	3.2%	2.6%	2.7%	1.0%	3.0%	4.4%	2.9%	2.9%	0.2%	1.4%	0.8%	4.1%	0.3%	19.8%	1.1%	0.4%	0.2%	0.5%	0.5%				
Other base metals, composites and articles thereof	2.5%	3.2%	2.2%	2.8%	4.0%	0.5%	1.7%	1.7%	2.7%	2.7%	1.8%	3.3%	4.4%	2.2%	3.6%	5.0%	1.8%	3.1%	2.7%	1.3%	1.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	10.2%				
Tool, implement, cutlery, spoon, fork, of base metal	2.0%	9.0%	13.0%	6.1%	2.3%	2.5%	7.0%	3.4%	3.8%	6.8%	2.6%	4.6%	5.5%	2.7%	4.4%	5.9%	8.8%	5.3%	4.5%	2.6%	7.9%	3.0%	2.5%	12.5%	7.7%	0.8%				
Miscellaneous articles of base metal	6.2%	6.4%	8.6%	6.3%	7.9%	2.4%	6.6%	4.9%	3.8%	7.3%	2.8%	5.4%	6.8%	2.9%	6.6%	11.1%	11.6%	4.8%	3.2%	4.2%	13.1%	2.4%	13.2%	2.8%	4.0%	4.0%				
Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery & mechanical parts	1.6%	3.5%	10.5%	8.3%	2.4%	2.4%	6.6%	4.9%	3.8%	4.0%	1.7%	3.2%	3.4%	2.2%	2.9%	7.8%	4.8%	1.3%	3.3%	2.8%	4.4%	1.2%	2.8%	2.6%	1.2%	4.0%				
Electrical machinery, parts thereof, sound-recorder etc.	3.4%	4.7%	14.0%	11.4%	2.1%	0.8%	5.5%	1.2%	4.2%	4.4%	1.5%	3.4%	3.7%	2.3%	3.4%	9.6%	5.8%	2.5%	3.7%	3.3%	7.8%	2.8%	6.4%	5.0%	4.0%	1.0%				
Radio-telecommunication apparatus, parts thereof, etc.	14.1%	11.5%	18.3%	4.1%	9.1%	1.5%	9.1%	7.6%	0.9%	4.9%	1.8%	3.5%	3.7%	1.7%	3.1%	4.5%	4.8%	2.9%	3.7%	10.6%	3.5%	3.0%	3.0%	6.7%	4.0%	1.0%				
Vehicles of all kinds, motor, parts & accessories	14.0%	8.4%	26.0%	12.8%	8.6%	6.4%	15.2%	10.7%	8.7%	17.5%	7.4%	8.5%	12.0%	5.3%	9.9%	30.3%	18.9%	11.0%	13.3%	7.4%	11.8%	7.8%	12.2%	24.2%	14.2%	4.3%				
Aircraft, spacecraft, and parts thereof	0.3%	0.4%	0.2%	0.3%	0.5%	0.2%	0.4%	0.2%	0.6%	1.0%	1.1%	0.9%	0.8%	1.2%	1.8%	0.9%	1.0%	1.1%	1.2%	3.2%	1.9%	0.3%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	3.7%				
Ship, boats and floating structures	2.5%	1.6%	0.7%	2.4%	4.4%	1.3%	16.3%	1.5%	1.9%	3.8%	2.2%	4.7%	5.2%	3.6%	4.5%	3.9%	3.9%	2.4%	3.5%	1.3%	3.2%	1.5%	2.5%	0.8%	0.4%	6.2%				
Optical, photo, cine, measuring, medical, etc.	2.8%	2.0%	2.7%	2.8%	1.0%	0.8%	1.7%	1.7%	2.9%	2.7%	1.6%	2.6%	3.2%	1.8%	2.4%	6.5%	2.2%	1.9%	2.6%	1.4%	5.3%	3.9%	7.0%	0.8%	0.4%	2.1%				
Musical instruments, parts and accessories of such articles	1.3%	3.0%	0.8%	14.0%	0.4%	14.7%	0.8%	0.8%	2.7%	3.6%	2.3%	7.0%	2.6%	3.6%	5.1%	4.5%	6.2%	14.1%	8.0%	3.7%	8.0%	1.3%	1.7%	1.8%	0.6%	6.6%				
Arms and ammunition, parts and accessories thereof	6.8%	3.8%	13.3%	8.7%	3.1%	3.4%	11.6%	4.2%	5.3%	6.3%	1.6%	3.9%	7.1%	1.7%	6.0%	3.4%	5.0%	3.0%	2.4%	6.1%	3.4%	3.4%	2.9%	0.7%	16.8%	4.2%				
Furniture, bedding, mattress, mat support, cushion etc.	1.1%	2.8%	5.0%	8.0%	1.2%	1.6%	13.0%	1.1%	8.1%	4.8%	2.2%	3.0%	2.6%	1.4%	4.4%	9.3%	8.7%	2.9%	2.6%	3.0%	11.3%	2.1%	1.2%	1.2%	1.0%	1.0%				
Toys, games & sports requisites, parts & accessories thereof	4.4%	9.6%	14.3%	8.7%	2.1%	2.1%	16.3%	3.8%	9.5%	7.1%	3.4%	6.9%	7.8%	4.7%	7.4%	14.1%	10.3%	6.2%	6.1%	5.3%	15.4%	7.9%	7.8%	0.7%	4.5%	4.5%				
Miscellaneous measured articles																														

## 9 Annex 3

Table 25 . Macroeconomic impact on other zones – South/South agreement.

Macroeconomic variables	NAFTA	ROECD	China	RAasia	LatinAm	RoW
<i>Welfare</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.03	-0.03	-0.01	-0.04
<i>GDP (volume)</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.02
<i>Terms of trade</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	-0.02	-0.06
<i>Real effective exchange rate</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	-0.01	-0.07
<i>Unskilled real wages</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.03	-0.03	-0.01	-0.02
<i>Skilled real wages</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-0.02	0.00	-0.03
<i>Real return to capital</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.02
<i>Real return to natural resources</i>	-0.04	-0.09	0.02	0.02	-0.03	-0.05
<i>Real return to land</i>	-0.04	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	-0.02	0.00
<i>Exports (volume)</i>	-0.01	-0.03	-0.08	-0.06	-0.05	-0.14
<i>Imports (volume)</i>	0.00	-0.01	-0.08	-0.06	-0.04	-0.13
<i>Tariff revenue (points of GDP)</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 26 . Macroeconomic impact on other zones – North/South agreement.

Macroeconomic variables	NAFTA	ROECD	China	RAsia	LatinAm	RoW
<i>Welfare</i>	0.01	0.00	-0.14	-0.21	-0.05	-0.19
<i>GDP (volume)</i>	0.01	0.00	-0.08	-0.11	-0.03	-0.11
<i>Terms of trade</i>	0.01	0.01	-0.12	-0.17	-0.13	-0.20
<i>Real effective exchange rate</i>	0.02	0.03	-0.15	-0.20	-0.12	-0.23
<i>Unskilled real wages</i>	0.00	-0.02	-0.11	-0.17	-0.06	-0.19
<i>Skilled real wages</i>	0.02	0.00	-0.14	-0.16	-0.06	-0.19
<i>Real return to capital</i>	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	-0.09
<i>Real return to natural resources</i>	-0.22	-0.38	0.04	0.12	-0.03	0.20
<i>Real return to land</i>	-0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.03
<i>Exports (volume)</i>	-0.13	-0.07	-0.35	-0.42	-0.31	-0.61
<i>Imports (volume)</i>	-0.04	-0.04	-0.40	-0.46	-0.25	-0.55
<i>Tariff revenue (points of GDP)</i>	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01



Table 27 . Macroeconomic impact on other zones – multilateral free trade.

Macroeconomic variables	NAFTA	ROECD	China	RAsia	LatinAm	RoW
<i>Welfare</i>	0.02	2.32	1.38	1.40	-0.01	-1.13
<i>GDP (volume)</i>	0.02	1.89	0.98	0.89	0.01	-0.62
<i>Terms of trade</i>	0.38	0.91	-1.07	-1.15	0.57	-1.28
<i>Real effective exchange rate</i>	0.28	1.06	-1.11	-1.01	0.91	-1.63
<i>Unskilled real wages</i>	-0.01	2.09	0.55	0.90	0.29	-1.14
<i>Skilled real wages</i>	-0.11	2.50	1.62	1.69	-0.80	-0.93
<i>Real return to capital</i>	0.14	1.63	1.38	0.85	-0.38	-0.50
<i>Real return to natural resources</i>	-1.19	-3.06	-0.03	-3.85	-3.90	1.60
<i>Real return to land</i>	1.61	-4.88	-2.81	-1.62	6.06	-0.59
<i>Exports (volume)</i>	17.41	23.92	22.62	27.77	30.78	-4.73
<i>Imports (volume)</i>	13.36	27.70	26.93	31.56	28.91	-3.49
<i>Tariff revenue (points of GDP)</i>	-0.29	-0.75	-1.53	-2.01	-1.14	-0.06



PART 2.  
**L'analyse de la spécialisation  
des pays méditerranéens**

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## 1 Introduction

Dans la perspective d'évaluer l'impact d'une libéralisation commerciale, il importe en première analyse d'étudier la structure géographique et sectorielle des échanges des pays méditerranéens. En effet, de cette dernière va dépendre l'importance des effets de détournement et de création de trafic.

Nous menons notre analyse sur la période 1967-2002 à partir des données de la base CHELEM pour six pays : l'Algérie, l'Égypte, le Maroc, la Tunisie, la Turquie et Israël.

**Tableau 1 Échanges en % du PIB, prix courants, 2002**

	Export biens & serv.	Export biens	Export manuf. min.	Import biens & serv.	Import biens	Import manuf. min.
Turquie	29,83	21,74	15,82	30,06	26,28	18,43
Israël	37,15	26,68	16,44	41,22	30,12	17,47
Algérie*	25,56	25,42	0,61	24,17	23,76	13,24
Maroc	33,78	21,71	15,23	36,87	30,19	22,65
Tunisie	45,35	32,61	28,99	49,63	42,71	35,17
Égypte	19,06	8,26	3,12	22,62	14,94	12,07

\* Algérie, 1998. Les exportations algériennes de biens se font pour près de 90% dans le secteur énergétique (dont 37% pour le gaz naturel, 28% pour le pétrole brut, 24% pour les produits raffinés du pétrole).

Source : CHELEM 6.2 (juillet 2004), base balance des paiements et base commerce international.

**Tableau 2 Échanges des pays méditerranéens, 2002**

En milliards de US\$	Exportations		Importations		Solde	
	Totales	Vers l'UE15	Totales	De l'UE15	Total	Vis-à-vis de l'UE15
Énergie et minerais	23.8	14.3	14.7	1.7	9.1	12.6
Prod. manufacturés	60.7	31.3	86.5	53.0	-25.9	-21.7
Agroalimentaire	8.4	4.4	13.6	4.5	-5.2	-0.1
Total (1)	106.2	52.1	126.7	64.8	-20.4	-12.7

(1) comprend les produits non ventilés dans les trois secteurs.

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## 2 Spécialisation par stades d'élaboration des produits

Notre analyse de la spécialisation internationale repose ici sur l'indicateur de contribution au solde du CEPII qui, dans une vision non mercantiliste, a l'avantage de considérer les exportations aussi bien que les importations (*cf.* encadré 1). Cet indicateur compare, en millièmes du PIB, le solde commercial effectif d'un pays  $i$  pour un produit donné  $k$  à un solde théorique obtenu en répartissant le solde commercial de  $i$  entre les différents produits au *pro rata* de leurs poids respectifs dans les échanges de  $i$ . Ce calcul permet d'éliminer les effets conjoncturels sur le solde commercial pour ne faire ressortir que la situation propre des produits les uns par rapport aux autres. L'indicateur est additif : par construction, la somme sur l'ensemble des produits est égale à 0.

Calculés aux six stades d'élaboration des produits<sup>2</sup>, l'indicateur de contribution au solde révèle les points forts (ACR de valeur positive) et les points faibles (ACR de valeur négative c'est-à-dire désavantage comparatif révélé, DCR) de chacun des six pays méditerranéens étudiés<sup>3</sup> (voir l'annexe 1 pour le détail).

### Encadré 1. L'indicateur d'avantages comparatifs révélés ou de contribution au solde

L'avantage comparatif révélé par le commerce extérieur repose sur le principe suivant (Lafay, 1990) : pour un pays  $i$  donné, l'absence d'avantage comparatif (ou désavantage) correspond à une répartition uniforme du solde global du commerce extérieur au prorata des poids respectifs des différentes catégories de produits ou d'opérations. Le solde observé pour chaque catégorie de produits est comparé à ce solde global (théorique) d'équi-répartition. L'avantage/désavantage comparatif se traduit par un écart positif/négatif par rapport au solde théorique. L'indicateur du CEPII offre donc une vision structurelle et dynamique de la spécialisation internationale des différents pays.

$$ACR_{ik} = \frac{1000}{Y_i} \times \left[ (X_{ik} - M_{ik}) - \sum_k (X_{ik} - M_{ik}) \times \frac{(X_{ik} + M_{ik})}{\sum_k (X_{ik} + M_{ik})} \right] \quad \text{où } X \text{ représente les}$$

exportations,  $M$  les importations et  $Y$  le Produit Intérieur Brut (PIB). Les indices  $i$  et  $k$  représentent, respectivement, le pays et le produit.

La variation de la valeur de l'ACR peut être le résultat d'une variation du poids relatif du produit en question dans le commerce mondial ou la conséquence d'une décision de spécialisation interne au pays. Il est possible de scinder les deux effets et de maintenir constante la participation du produit dans le commerce mondial de manière à éliminer les tendances qui ne sont pas spécifiques à la zone étudiée. Pour cela, chacun des flux  $X$  et  $M$  multiplié par l'indice de correction  $e_k^n$ , qui représente le rapport entre la part du produit  $k$  dans le commerce mondial pour l'année de référence et la part du même produit dans le commerce mondial pour l'année courante.

$$e_k^n = \left( \frac{W_k^r}{W^r} \right) / \left( \frac{W_k^n}{W^n} \right)$$
 où  $W$  désigne le commerce mondial,  $r$  l'année de référence (2002 dans la suite) et  $n$  l'année courante.

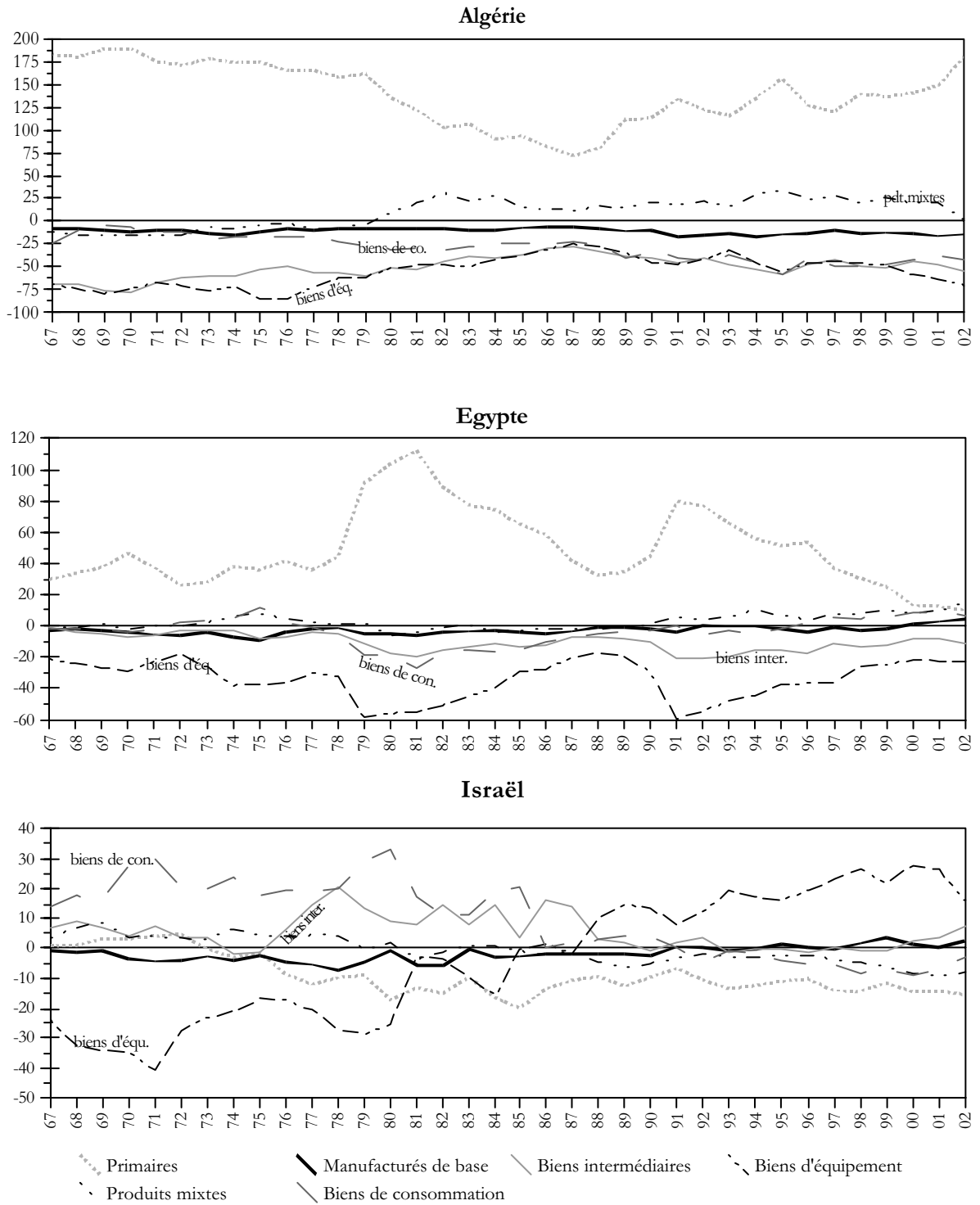
L'indicateur d'avantage comparatif  $ACR'$  est ainsi calculé aux poids mondiaux de l'année de référence  $r$ . Pour celle-ci, il coïncide avec la contribution relative  $ACR$  ; pour les autres années  $n$ , il s'en distingue d'autant plus que le commerce mondial du produit  $k$  tend à s'écarter de la tendance moyenne qui est enregistrée pour l'ensemble des marchandises.

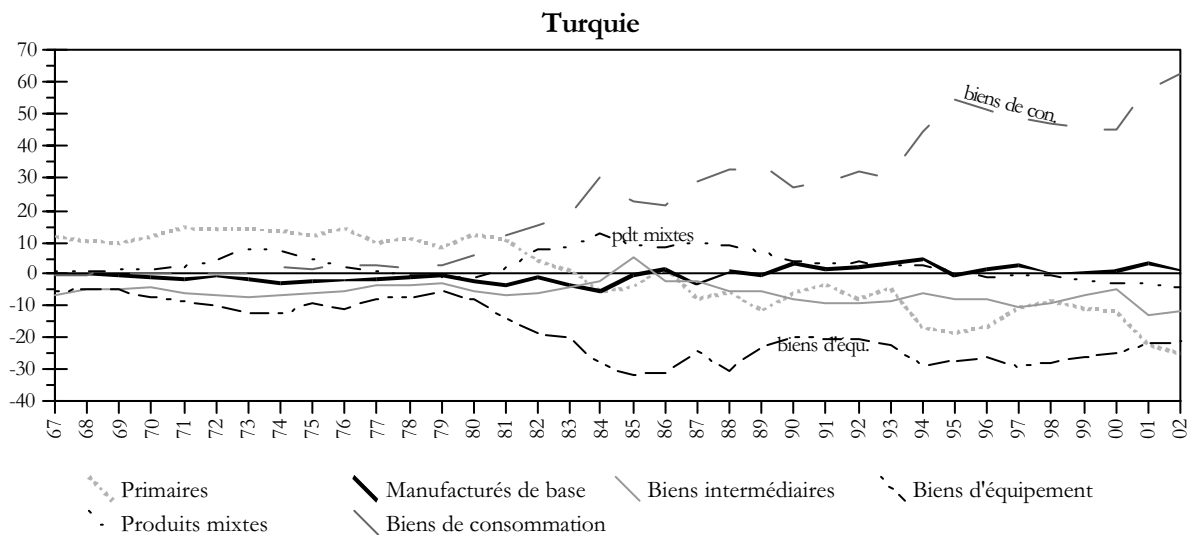
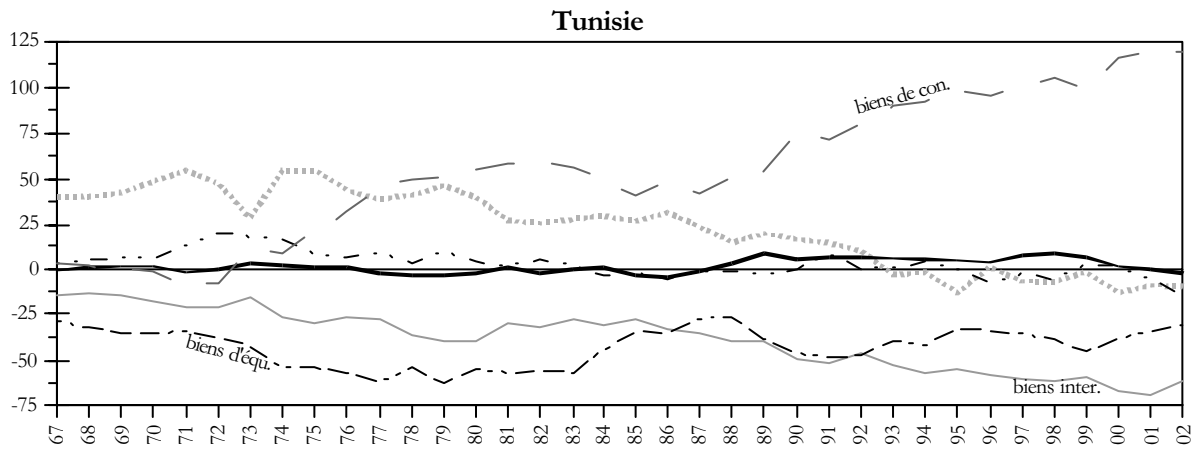
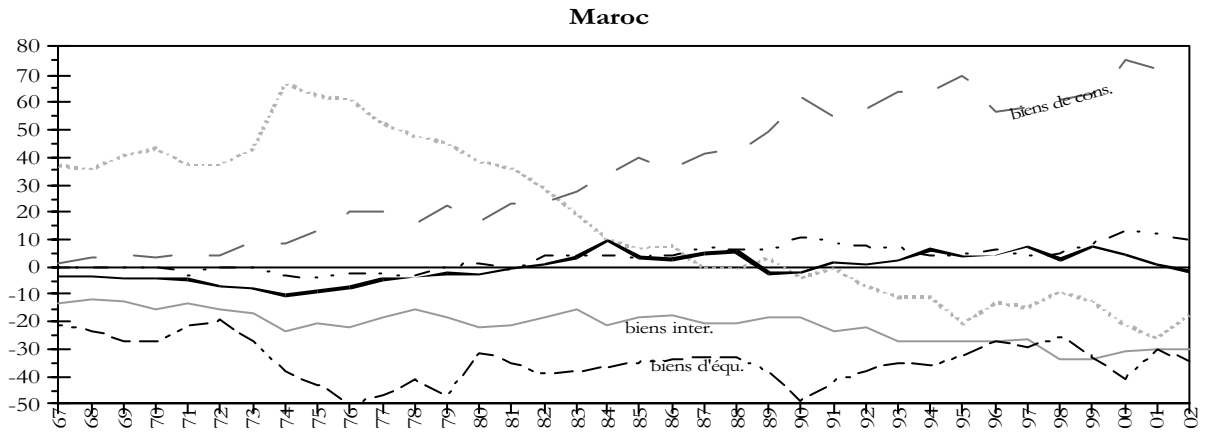
Lorsque  $ACR_{ik} > 0$ , le pays  $i$  détient un avantage comparé révélé sur le produit  $k$ . Si  $ACR_{ik} < 0$ , alors, c'est un désavantage comparatif révélé qui sera observé.

<sup>2</sup> A savoir primaires, manufacturier de base, biens intermédiaires, biens d'équipement, produits mixtes et biens de consommation.

<sup>3</sup> A savoir l'Algérie, l'Égypte, Israël, le Maroc, la Tunisie et la Turquie.

Graphique 1 Spécialisation par stades





Source : CHELEM, Avantages comparatifs révélés (première version), année de référence : 2002.

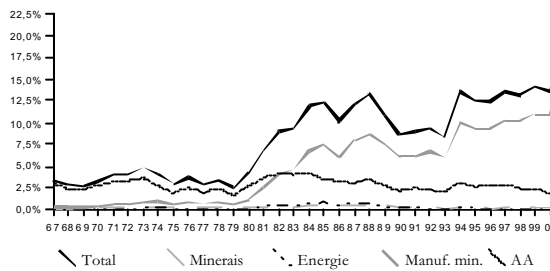
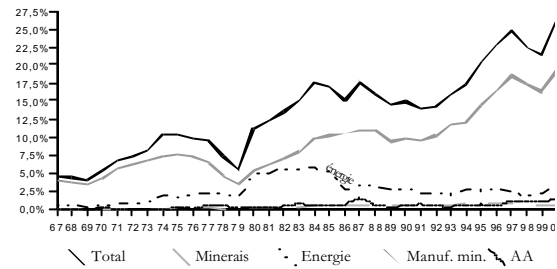
Découpage sectoriel en 6 stades : 1) **Primaires** = Minerais de fer + Minerais non ferreux + Minéraux nda + Charbon + Pétrole brut + Gaz naturel + Céréales + Autres produits agricoles + Prod. agric. non comestibles. 2) **Manuf. base** = Ciment + Céramique + Verre + Fer et acier + Métallurgie non ferreuse + Chimie minérale de base + Chimie organique de base + Coke. 3) **Biens intermédiaires** = Première transform. du fer + Fils et tissus + Ouvrages en bois + Papier + Ouvrages métalliques + Quincaillerie + Moteurs + Composants électroniques + Eléments de véhicules auto. + Engrais + Peintures + Plastiques + Articles en caoutchouc. 4) **Biens équipement** = Matériel agricole + Machines-outils + Matériel BTP + Machines spécialisées + Armement + Instruments de mesure + Matériel de télécommunication + Matériel informatique + Matériel électrique + Fournitures électriques + Véhicules utilitaires + Navires + Aéronautique et espace. 5) **Produits mixtes** = Cuirs + Meubles + Imprimés + Articles en plastique + Produits raffinés du pétrole + Electricité + Corps gras + Viandes et poissons + Sucre + Aliments pour animaux. 6) **Biens de consommation** = Vêtements de confection + Vêtements de bonneterie + Tapis + Articles manufacturés nda + Horlogerie + Appareils d'optique + Electronique grand public + Electroménager + Automobiles particulières + Produits de toilette + Produits pharmaceutiques + Produits céréaliers + Conserves animales + Conserves végétales + Boissons + Tabacs manufacturés.

A l'exception d'Israël, les pays méditerranéens présentaient tous à la fin des années soixante un ACR sur les produits primaires (voir Graphique 1). Ce dernier a perduré en Egypte et plus encore en Algérie. En revanche, cet avantage s'est progressivement mué en DCR au Maroc, en Tunisie et en Turquie. Ce recul des produits primaires a été concomitant au renforcement de la spécialisation sur les biens de consommation au début des années quatre-vingt pour le Maroc et la Turquie, vers le milieu des années soixante-dix pour la Tunisie. Les raisons de cet effet de ciseaux sont à rechercher dans la réorientation de la politique économique (en Turquie et en Tunisie) mais également dans l'évolution de la compétitivité (au travers du taux de change réel) et des conjonctures des partenaires à l'échange.

Ainsi, l'échec du « socialisme tunisien » a-t-il été le terreau au début des années soixante-dix d'une volonté d'insertion dans la division internationale du travail au travers du développement de la sous-traitance avec les pays européens, de l'ouverture aux investissements directs étrangers et de la promotion des exportations. Il s'en est suivie une spécialisation croissante sur les biens de consommation qui n'a régressé qu'au début des années quatre-vingt sous l'effet d'une perte de compétitivité (hausse des salaires et appréciation du taux de change réel). Une fois la compétitivité restaurée, à la faveur du plan d'ajustement de 1986 et de la dévaluation, l'ACR de la Tunisie sur les biens de consommation s'est renforcé. Sur toute la période étudiée, la sous-compétitivité de la Tunisie sur les biens d'équipement s'est maintenue et celle sur les biens intermédiaires s'est accentuée. Finalement, la Tunisie est spécialisée dans l'assemblage ou la transformation de produits intermédiaires importés, notamment dans la confection et la bonneterie.

Le Maroc présente un profil identique de spécialisation à celui de la Tunisie, à ceci près que le Maroc exporte également certains biens intermédiaires (engrais et composants électroniques dont l'ACR est devenu positif à partir de 1983).

A partir de 1980, la Turquie a connu une prodigieuse accélération de ses exportations, en particulier manufacturières. Cette ouverture s'est réalisée à la faveur, *primo* d'une politique macroéconomique de réduction de la demande interne et de modification des rapports de prix, *secundo* d'incitations micro-économiques (notamment des subventions à l'exportation) visant à améliorer la rentabilité et la compétitivité du secteur exportateur (voir Graphique 2). L'appréciation du taux de change effectif réel à partir de 1989 met un coup d'arrêt à cette expansion des exportations, laquelle ne reprendra qu'en 1994 avec la dévaluation provoquée par la crise financière. Parallèlement, la part des importations de biens dans le PIB est passée de 17,2% en 1994 à 24,8% en 1997 sous l'effet de l'expansion économique, de la forte diminution des barrières aux importations et de la réappréciation du taux de change effectif réel. Finalement, la part du déficit commercial dans le PIB est passée de 3,7% en 1994 à 11,3% en 1997 avant de revenir à 7% en 2002 du fait d'une reprise des exportations en 2001. La Turquie détient un ACR sur les biens de consommation (vêtements de bonneterie puis de confection, tapis, électronique grand public) qui s'est accru à partir de 1980 en même temps que s'accroissait le DCR sur les biens d'équipement (machines spécialisées). Par ailleurs, à partir du milieu des années quatre-vingt, la position turque sur les biens intermédiaires (moteurs, composants électroniques) et les produits primaires (pétrole brut, minerai de fer, gaz naturel) s'est affaiblie.

**Graphique 2. Turquie, part des exportations dans le PIB****Graphique 3. Turquie, part des importations dans le PIB**

Parmi les pays qui restent spécialisés dans les produits primaires, l'Égypte et l'Algérie présentent un ACR sur les produits mixtes et un DCR sur les biens d'équipement ainsi que sur les biens intermédiaires. En revanche contrairement à l'Algérie, l'Égypte enregistre un certain progrès dans les biens de consommation (Vêtements de bonneterie, Vêtements de confection, Tapis) depuis le début des années quatre-vingt.

S'agissant d'Israël, la spécialisation dans les biens d'équipement (matériel de télécommunication, instruments de mesure, aéronautique et espace) apparue dans le début des années quatre-vingt s'accroît au détriment des biens de consommation. Il est à noter qu'en 2002, les exportations israéliennes de bijoux représentent 37% du total des exportations de biens.

### 3 Spécialisation par filières de production

A l'aune des indicateurs de contribution au solde par filières de production (*cf.* Graphique 4), Israël est des six pays méditerranéens étudiés celui dont la spécialisation s'est le plus modifiée au cours des trente dernières années. Les fortes contributions positives de l'agroalimentaire et du textile au solde israélien de 1972 ont diminué au point de devenir négative pour la filière agroalimentaire à partir de 1997. Traditionnellement, la chimie et, depuis 1983, l'électronique constituent les points forts d'Israël. Ces évolutions se sont faites jour au cours des années quatre-vingt et ont été confirmées par la suite.

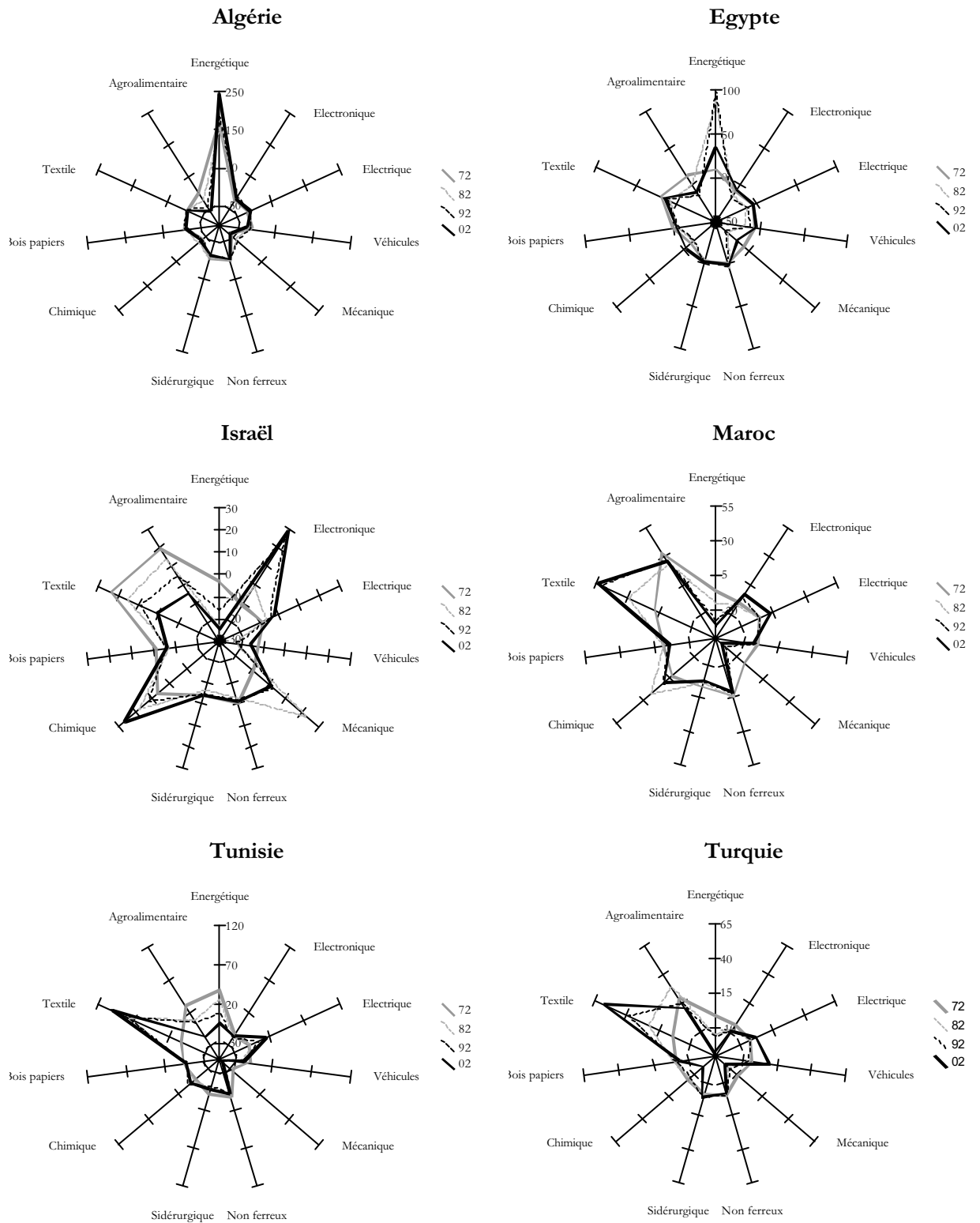
La Turquie présente une évolution comparable : le schéma de spécialisation par filière en 1992 diffère peu de celui de 2002. C'est au cours des années quatre-vingt que le fort ACR sur le textile s'est construit et que l'important DCR dans la mécanique s'est confirmé. En 2002, les spécialisations par filières de la Turquie, de la Tunisie et du Maroc sont relativement proches (*cf.* Graphique 5) avec le principal ACR dans la filière textile et le principal DCR dans la mécanique. La Turquie et le Maroc maintiennent un ACR notable dans l'agro-alimentaire, la Tunisie améliore sa position dans la filière électrique depuis 1992, la Tunisie comme le Maroc ont un point faible dans la filière véhicules.

L'Algérie est uniquement et traditionnellement sur-compétitive dans la filière énergétique et sous-compétitive dans toutes les autres filières, notamment la mécanique, l'agroalimentaire depuis 1974, la chimie, les véhicules,...

Enfin, l'Égypte offre une structure de spécialisation plus homogène avec un ACR dans les filières énergétique et textile. La spécialisation dans cette dernière filière après s'être réduite dans les années quatre-vingt, s'est renforcée et modifiée dans la décennie suivante : concentrée jusqu'aux années quatre-vingt sur l'amont de la filière (fils et tissus), elle l'est maintenant sur l'aval (articles de confection et bonneterie). L'Égypte en revanche présente des points faibles dans la mécanique, l'agroalimentaire depuis 1979, l'électronique,...



Graphique 4. Avantages comparatifs par filière, 1972, 1982, 1992, 2002

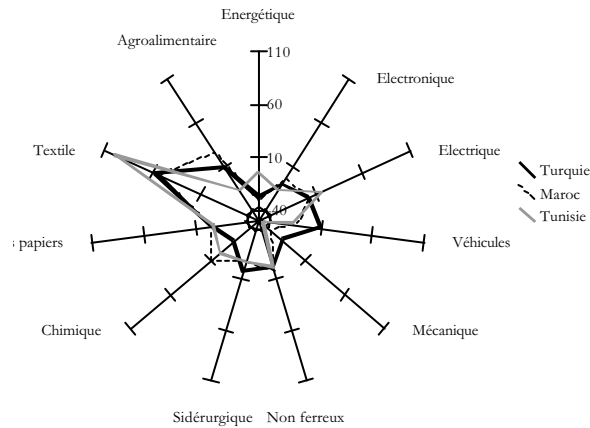


Source : CHELEM, Avantages comparatifs révélés (première version), année de référence : 2002.

Découpage sectoriel en 11 filières : 1) **Énergétique** = Charbon + Pétrole brut + Gaz naturel + Coke + Produits raffinés du pétrole + Électricité. 2) **Agroalimentaire** = Céréales + Autres produits agricoles + Prod. agric. non comestibles + Produits céréaliers + Corps gras + Viandes et poissons + Conserves animales + Conserves végétales + Sucre + Aliments pour animaux + Boissons + Tabacs manufacturés. 3) **Textile** = Fils et tissus + Vêtements de confection + Vêtements de bonneterie + Tapis + Cuirs. 4) **Bois Papiers** = Ouvrages en bois + Meubles + Papier + Imprimés + Articles manufacturés nda. 5) **Chimique** = Chimie minérale de base + Engrais + Chimie organique de base + Peintures + Produits de toilette + Produits pharmaceutiques + Plastiques + Articles en plastique + Articles en caoutchouc + Ciment + Céramique + Verre + Minéraux nda. 6) **Sidérurgique** = Minerais de fer + Fer et acier + Première transform. du fer. 7) **Non ferreux** = Minerais non ferreux + Métallurgie non ferreuse. 8) **Mécanique** = Ouvrages

métalliques + Quincaillerie + Moteurs + Matériel agricole + Machines-outils + Matériel BTP + Machines spécialisées + Armement + Navires + Aéronautique et espace. 9) **Véhicules** = Eléments de véhicules auto. + Automobiles particulières + Véhicules utilitaires. 10) **Electrique** = Electroménager + Matériel électrique + Fournitures électriques. 11) **Electronique** = Instruments de mesure + Horlogerie + Appareils d'optique + Composants électroniques + Electronique grand public + Matériel de télécommunication + Matériel informatique.

**Graphique 5 Avantages comparatifs par filière, Maroc, Tunisie et Turquie**  
Année 2002



Source : CHELEM, Avantages comparatifs révélés (première version), année de référence : 2002.

## 4 Concentration sectorielle et similarité des exportations

Au sein des pays méditerranéens, la concentration sectorielle des exportations apparaît fort contrastée.

En premier lieu, il est possible d'opposer trois (groupes de) pays méditerranéens : *primo*, les pays majoritairement spécialisés sur le secteur manufacturier (à savoir par ordre décroissant, en 2002, Tunisie, Turquie, Maroc et Israël), *secundo*, l'Algérie dont les exportations se font à 95,1 % dans le secteur énergétique, *tertio*, l'Egypte dont la structure de spécialisation se révèle plus diffuse : 38,2% des exportations en 2002 se font dans le secteur manufacturier, 33,7% dans le secteur énergétique et 12,2% dans l'agroalimentaire (cf. tableau 3).

**Tableau 3 Part du secteur manufacturier (hors AA) dans les exportations en %**

	Tunisie	Turquie	Maroc	Israël	Egypte	Algérie	<i>Ensemble des pays méditerranéens</i>
1972	20.7%	14.5%	13.7%	36.2%	29.5%	4.1%	19.4%
1982	48.4%	44.7%	31.0%	55.4%	8.4%	0.9%	22.7%
1992	77.4%	72.6%	60.1%	58.2%	30.3%	2.6%	49.4%
2002	84.2%	83.0%	64.7%	58.2%	38.2%	2.0%	57.1%

Source : Calculs des auteurs d'après CHELEM. Les pays sont classés en ordre décroissant selon la part des exportations manufacturières dans leurs exportations totales en 2002.

### L'indice de concentration

L'indice de Herfindahl-Hirschmann permet d'avoir une mesure du niveau de la concentration des exportations d'un pays sur un petit nombre de produits :

$$H_i = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n \left( X_{ik} / \sum_{k=1}^n X_{ik} \right)^2} - \sqrt{(1/n)} / (1 - \sqrt{(1/n)})$$

$H_i$  étant l'indice du pays  $i$  et  $n$  nombre de produits de la nomenclature CHELEM. La valeur de l'indice de concentration, entre 0 et 1, dépend de la nomenclature retenue. Toutes choses égales par ailleurs, plus la nomenclature est agrégée, plus l'indice de concentration apparaît élevé. La nomenclature retenue ici est celle de la base CHELEM qui comprend 72 catégories de produits, dont 48 catégories manufacturières. Un indice de 1 correspond à la concentration maximale (le pays n'exporte qu'un seul produit). Plus l'indice est faible, plus la structure d'exportation est diversifiée.

**Tableau 4 Indice de concentration sectorielle des exportations, 2002**

Tous produits		Produits manufacturés	
Algérie	0,46	Tunisie	0,24
Israël	0,26	Algérie	0,24
Tunisie	0,22	Maroc	0,23
Maroc	0,16	Egypte	0,09
Egypte	0,16	Turquie	0,08
Turquie	0,08	Israël	0,07

Source : Calculs des auteurs d'après CHELEM.

En second lieu, les pays méditerranéens ne présentent pas le même degré de dispersion de leurs exportations de produits.

Ainsi, tous biens confondus, les exportations de l'Algérie sont fortement concentrées, notamment sur le gaz naturel et le pétrole brut (*cf.* tableau 4).

Sur les produits manufacturiers, un clivage existe entre d'une part, la Tunisie, l'Algérie et le Maroc dont les exportations sont concentrées et d'autre part, l'Égypte, la Turquie et Israël dont les exportations sont relativement diversifiées.

Ces différences dans la diversification des structures d'exportation proviennent des processus d'industrialisation propres à chaque pays et de la place qui y fut réservée à la promotion des exportations. Par ailleurs, cette dispersion sectorielle n'est pas indépendante de la concentration géographique des flux d'exportation. Ainsi, les exportations (totales et manufacturières) de la Tunisie, du Maroc et de l'Algérie sont-elle sensiblement plus orientées vers les marchés européens que ne le sont les exportations turques, égyptiennes et *a fortiori* israéliennes (*cf.* tableau 5).

**L'indicateur de similarité des structures de spécialisation** (Bensidoun I., Gaulier G. et Ünal-Kesenci D. [2001])

L'indicateur d'avantage comparatif révélé (CTB) est utilisé pour évaluer la similarité des structures de spécialisation entre un couple de pays. Deux étapes sont nécessaires pour transformer l'indicateur ACR en indicateur de similarité :

- dans une première étape, nous calculons un avantage comparatif ajusté (noté  $\overline{ACR}$ ), afin de neutraliser l'effet taille inclus dans l'indicateur ACR : tous les ACR sont multipliés par un coefficient de sorte que la somme des valeurs ajustées soit égal à 100 pour les contributions positives et - 100 pour les contributions négatives ;
- dans une deuxième étape, pour chaque paire de pays ( $i, j$ ), nous appliquons la formule suivante :

$$Sim_{ij} = 100 - \frac{1}{4} \sum_k \left| \overline{ACR}_{ik} - \overline{ACR}_{jk} \right|.$$

L'indicateur  $Sim_{ij}$  représente l'écart de structure de spécialisation entre les pays  $i$  et  $j$ . L'indicateur varie en 0, dans le cas de structures de spécialisation totalement opposées, et 100 dans le cas de structures similaires.

**Tableau 5 Part en % des destinations dans les exportations des pays méditerranéens en 2002**

	Tous produits							Produits manufacturés					
	Turquie	Israël	Algérie	Maroc	Tunisie	Egypte		Turquie	Israël	Algérie	Maroc	Tunisie	Egypte
Etats-Unis	8,7	39,1	12,9	4,6	1,2	18,3	Etats-Unis	8,2	29,7	1,6	3,7	0,9	22,9
Canada	0,7	1,2	5,7	0,6	0,2	0,5	Canada	0,7	1,5	0,0	0,2	0,2	0,9
UE15	51,4	26,0	62,3	70,4	78,9	40,7	UE15	53,7	30,1	63,4	76,5	81,1	46,3
France	6,3	2,4	12,8	27,7	31,0	3,6	France	6,8	3,1	14,1	32,0	33,6	5,4
UEBL	2,4	6,7	2,5	3,5	6,8	1,4	UEBL	2,3	3,5	2,2	2,9	8,0	1,7
Allemagne	15,5	4,2	4,1	5,6	11,3	3,5	Allemagne	16,3	6,3	1,6	7,0	12,1	4,4
Italie	6,9	2,4	19,7	5,6	19,2	14,5	Italie	6,7	3,4	18,7	5,5	18,9	12,2
Pays-Bas	2,7	2,8	5,1	2,5	1,9	2,7	Pays-Bas	2,7	3,7	2,1	2,0	2,2	1,6
Iles britan.	8,9	4,2	2,5	8,3	2,4	8,9	Iles britan.	9,9	5,2	4,6	11,6	2,8	12,1
Pays scand.	2,5	1,0	0,1	0,7	0,6	0,4	Pays scand.	2,7	1,4	1,1	0,4	0,6	0,7
Pays alpins	2,1	1,6	0,7	1,1	0,6	0,4	Pays alpins	1,8	1,2	0,8	1,0	0,7	0,4
Europe méridionale	9,6	4,2	21,6	17,7	6,6	8,0	Europe méridionale	9,3	6,5	22,2	16,0	3,6	10,6
Japon	0,4	2,3	0,2	3,4	0,3	0,9	Japon	0,1	2,3	0,0	0,4	0,3	0,3
Aust./Nelle-Zélande	0,3	1,1	0,2	0,8	0,1	0,2	Aust./Nelle-Zélande	0,3	1,5	0,0	0,6	0,1	0,5
Union sud-africaine	0,3	0,6	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,1	Union sud-africaine	0,3	0,6	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,3
Amériq. OPEP	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	Amériq. OPEP	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Mexique	0,2	0,7	0,5	0,9	0,0	0,0	Mexique	0,2	1,1	0,0	0,6	0,0	0,1
Brésil	0,1	1,1	5,9	1,8	0,5	0,3	Brésil	0,1	1,7	0,1	1,9	0,6	0,4
Amérique NDA	0,5	1,7	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,1	Amérique NDA	0,5	2,8	0,1	0,3	0,3	0,1
Afr. du Nord	3,1	0,1	1,9	0,9	1,8	1,5	Afr. du Nord	3,3	0,2	10,3	0,8	1,9	2,1
Golfe	4,8	0,0	0,1	2,0	6,7	5,5	Golfe	4,4	0,0	5,7	1,9	5,7	9,0
Moy. Or. non OPEP	2,0	0,2	0,0	0,4	0,2	3,7	Moy. Or. non OPEP	1,6	0,4	0,6	0,1	0,2	4,5
Afrique noire OPEP	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,1	Afrique noire OPEP	0,2	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,3
Afrique nda	0,8	0,6	0,1	2,0	0,9	1,5	Afrique nda	0,7	1,0	0,0	1,6	0,7	3,1
Indonésie	0,1	0,0	0,5	0,1	0,0	0,3	Indonésie	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0
Inde	0,2	2,1	0,1	2,5	1,2	3,9	Inde	0,1	1,2	0,2	3,3	1,4	0,5
NPI d'Asie 1	1,4	7,3	1,0	2,2	0,1	2,9	NPI d'Asie 1	1,4	4,8	0,1	2,6	0,1	1,3
NPI d'Asie 2	0,6	2,7	0,0	0,5	0,1	0,4	NPI d'Asie 2	0,2	2,7	1,2	0,5	0,0	0,3
Asie et Océanie nda	0,4	0,2	0,0	0,4	0,4	0,6	Asie et Océanie nda	0,3	0,2	0,0	0,4	0,5	0,4
Ex-URSS	6,8	1,6	0,1	0,8	0,1	0,5	Ex-URSS	6,6	1,7	1,8	0,0	0,0	0,2
Europe centrale	4,9	1,1	0,3	1,0	1,0	0,7	Europe centrale	5,2	1,5	7,4	0,6	1,0	1,0
Chine	0,8	1,5	0,3	1,0	0,4	1,8	Chine	0,6	1,9	1,5	1,3	0,4	2,3
Indochine	0,1	0,0	0,4	0,0	0,2	0,0	Indochine	0,1	0,1	1,6	0,0	0,2	0,0
Divers	5,9	5,0	0,0	0,8	3,6	12,7	Divers	6,2	8,0	0,0	0,5	3,2	0,1
Monde	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	Monde	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source : calculs des auteurs d'après CHELEM.

L'indicateur de similarité des structures de spécialisation révèle l'intensité de la concurrence qui peut exister entre un couple de pays. Il apparaît ainsi que les structures de spécialisation marocaine et tunisienne se recouvrent à 67% (cf. tableau 6) et qu'elles sont toutes deux proches de celle des pays de l'espace euro-méditerranéen (Roumanie, Macédoine, Bulgarie ou Turquie). La structure des échanges algérienne, quant à elle, est similaire à celle d'autres pays pétroliers, notamment à celle de Brunei. L'Égypte est dans sa structure de spécialisation proche des pays de l'ex-URSS (Biélorus, Russies, Lettonie, Lituanie, Caucase), de l'Amérique latine (Colombie, Venezuela) ou de l'Algérie. La Turquie présente des similitudes de spécialisation avec le Portugal et certains pays d'Asie (Chine, Thaïlande, Pakistan, Inde). Quant à la spécialisation israélienne, elle s'apparente à celle des pays les plus développés : États-Unis, Pays-Bas, Royaume-Uni,...

**Tableau 6 Similarité des exportations totales, 2002**

	<b>Algérie</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>Egypte</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>Israël</b>	<b>100</b>
1	Brunéi	72,8	Biélorus	54,6	États-Unis	47
2	Golfe	67,2	Colombie	53,6	Pays-Bas	43,7
3	Russie	66,2	Algérie	52,8	Royaume Uni	43,6
4	Venezuela	64,7	Venezuela	52,6	Suisse	37,0
5	Norvège	62,6	Moy-Or non OPEP	51,9	Singapour	35,9
6	Caucase	62,3	Russie	51,7	Croatie	35,7
7	Moy-Or. non OPEP	61,6	Lettonie	51,2	Philippines	34,9
8	Nigéria	61,4	Lituanie	49,3	Lithanie	34,5
9	Gabon	55,4	Caucase	47,8	Grèce	34,4
10	Equateur	54,7	Indochine	46,6	Maroc	34,4
11	Colombie	53,5	Golfe	45,4	Corée du Sud	33,8
12	Egypte	52,8	Nigéria	45,2	France	33,4
13	Kazakhstan	50,0	Gabon	43,9	Finlande	31,9
14	Lettonie	39,4	Grèce	43,8	Suède	31,8
15	Indochine	38,6	Equateur	43,3	Macédoine	31,2

	<b>Maroc</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>Tunisie</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>Turquie</b>	<b>100</b>
1	Tunisie	67,2	Maroc	67,2	Portugal	52,5
2	Autres Asie-Oc	62,3	Roumanie	58,5	Chine	50,8
3	Macédoine	58,4	Autres Asie-Oc	58,2	Thaïlande	49,2
4	Roumanie	58,2	Indochine	57,5	Pakistan	48,9
5	Autres Amér.	57,9	Macédoine	54,5	Maroc	48,8
6	Bulgarie	57,4	Hong Kong	52,3	Inde	48,7
7	Indochine	55,6	Bulgarie	47,4	Bulgarie	47,4
8	Turquie	48,8	Albanie	46,8	Espagne	46,7
9	Philippines	48,6	Egypte	42,4	Roumanie	46,2
10	Lituanie	48,1	Portugal	41,9	Brésil	46,2
11	Croatie	46,2	Turquie	41,8	Macédoine	45,8
12	Chili	46,1	Autres Amér.	40,6	Autres Asie-Oc	45,7
13	Pérou	45,8	Philippines	40,3	Pologne	45,0
14	Albanie	45,3	Pakistan	39,9	Grèce	44,1
15	Kirghizistan	43,16	Moy-Or non OPEP	39,2	Autres Amér.	43,4

Source : calculs des auteurs à partir de CHELEM (nomenclature catégories CHELEM), année de référence des ACR : 2002.  
Lecture : Moy-Or n.on OPEP : Jordanie, Liban, Syrie, Yémen.

## 5 Les composantes de l'échange

La spécialisation peut se définir comme la réorientation des ressources productives lors du passage de l'autarcie au libre-échange conduisant à importer les biens issus de certaines branches de production et à exporter ceux issus d'autres branches. On

se rappellera à cette occasion que la branche est l'ensemble des fractions d'entreprises fabriquant le même produit («industry») par opposition au secteur regroupant les entreprises envisagées dans leur globalité et sur la base de leur activité principale.

Considérant les échanges internationaux de biens d'une économie donnée, le processus de spécialisation conduit donc à repérer des flux d'exportations et d'importation dans des branches distinctes : on exporte les produits d'une branche pour importer ceux d'une autre branche. Aussi est-il convenu de parler d'échange inter-branche. *A contrario*, l'existence d'exportations et d'importations au sein des mêmes branches, c'est-à-dire d'un échange intra-branche, refléterait une non-spécialisation : lors de l'ouverture internationale des économies, il n'y aurait donc pas systématiquement réorientation des ressources de branche à branche. Notons pourtant que l'échange en différenciation verticale, associé à une spécialisation des pays dans différentes gammes de qualité à l'intérieur d'une même branche, peut comporter des coûts d'ajustement bien plus importants que le commerce intra-branche de produits similaires.

Chevallier et Freudenberg (1999) étudient les échanges de l'Égypte, du Maroc, de la Tunisie et de la Turquie avec l'Union européenne à un niveau très fin de la nomenclature des produits.

La majorité de ces échanges sont de type inter-branches (commerce de produits issus de branches industrielles différentes) et donc déterminée par les avantages comparatifs *à la* Ricardo, qui découlent des différences de productivités relatives des pays ou de leurs dotations relatives en facteurs. C'est donc la distance économique entre les pays méditerranéens et l'UE qui crée le commerce, et ce sont les caractéristiques de l'offre qui prédominent dans la détermination des échanges.

Il n'en reste pas moins que dans certains cas, les échanges intra-branches (c'est-à-dire l'exportation et l'importation d'ampleur comparable pour un même *item* de nomenclature) peuvent être significatifs.

Il s'agit essentiellement d'échanges de qualité c'est-à-dire d'un commerce croisé de produits différenciés verticalement. Ainsi en va-t-il dans l'équipement électrique (Maroc, Tunisie et Turquie), dans les produits électroniques (Tunisie, Égypte), dans les véhicules (Turquie) et le textile (Tunisie).

Il peut s'agir plus rarement d'échange de variété c'est-à-dire d'un commerce croisé de produits différenciés horizontalement, comme dans certaines catégories de machines (Turquie et Maroc), de l'équipement électrique et de produits électroniques (Tunisie).

En général, les quatre pays étudiés sont spécialisés dans le bas de gamme. Néanmoins, dans certaines de leurs plus importantes catégories d'exportations, ils disposent d'un avantage significatif dans le haut de gamme (textiles turcs, produits agricoles et alimentaires marocains).

En résumé, même si l'insertion dans la division internationale du travail des pays méditerranéens nous est apparue traditionnelle, des signes témoignent d'une capacité de diversification et d'amélioration de la qualité des produits exportés, aussi bien dans les biens de consommation que dans les produits intermédiaires.

## **6 Place dans la décomposition internationale des processus productifs**

Menegaldo et al. (2003), à partir de données du commerce international, analysent les avantages comparatifs des six pays méditerranéens étudiés sur la chaîne de production (c'est-à-dire aux stades primaire, intermédiaire et final). Ensuite, ils identifient, pour chaque stade de production, la nature du facteur de production utilisé (travail non qualifié, capital humain, technologie, ressources agricoles et ressources minérales).

Menegaldo et al. (2003) isolent ainsi des comportements différenciés de spécialisation (*cf.* annexes 4 et 5).

En premier lieu, Israël, plus développée que les autres pays méditerranéens, s'insère dans une logique de division horizontale du travail. Elle présente tous ses avantages comparatifs sur les biens intermédiaires, vis-à-vis du monde comme de l'UE, mais accuse des désavantages comparatifs sur les biens finaux.

En second lieu, les spécialisation égyptienne et algérienne reposent essentiellement sur les ressources en matières premières. Si l'Égypte améliore son avantage comparatif sur la transformation locale des ressources minérales (et donc sur les biens intermédiaires intensifs en technologie), l'Algérie, en revanche, reste essentiellement sur-compétitive sur l'exportation des ressources d'hydrocarbure.

En troisième lieu, la Tunisie, le Maroc et la Turquie s'insèrent dans une logique de division verticalisée de la production avec l'Europe. Ainsi, présentent-ils avec l'UE des DCR sur les biens intermédiaires et des ACR sur les biens finaux. De ces trois pays qui frangent avec l'UE, seule la Turquie a su monter en gamme sur la chaîne de production.

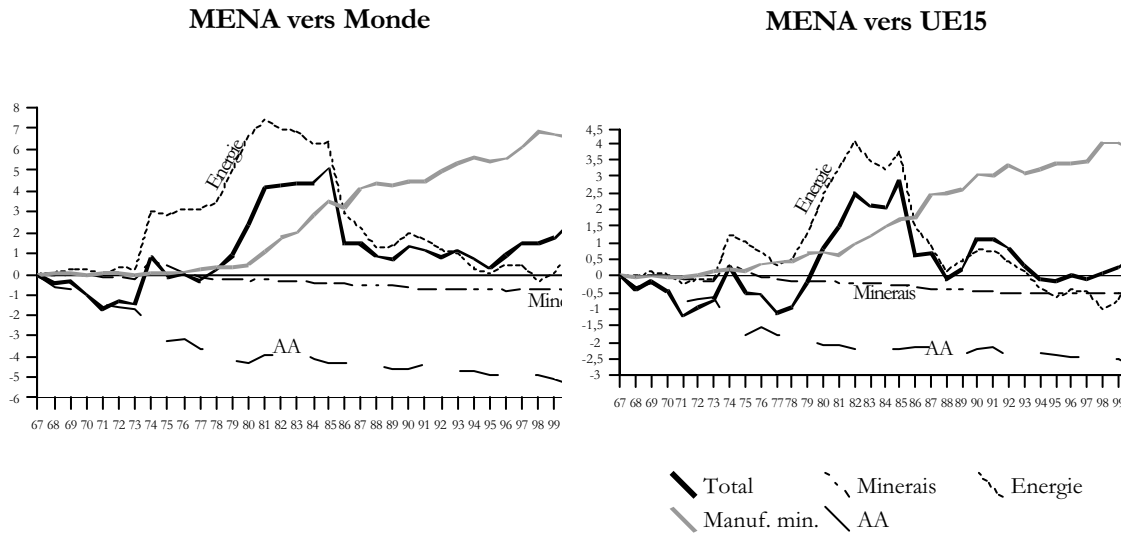
En effet, d'abord, la Turquie, tout en conservant un ACR important sur les biens finaux intensifs en travail non qualifié (textile et habillement), détient des ACR sur les biens finaux intensifs en capital humain qui rejoignent ceux obtenus sur les biens agricoles frais. Ensuite, la Turquie valorise localement ses ressources agricoles en se spécialisant vis-à-vis du reste du monde sur les produits agricoles transformés (conserves, jus de fruits et autres). Enfin, la Turquie vis-à-vis du reste du monde détient des ACR de plus en plus importants en se spécialisant sur les biens finaux intensifs en capital humain et réduit ses DCR sur les biens intensifs en technologie.

En revanche, le Maroc et la Tunisie sont majoritairement spécialisés sur des segments de production intensifs en travail non qualifié et fréquemment sur des secteurs peu dynamiques (en particulier l'habillement) ne répondant pas à la demande. Malgré tout, vis-à-vis de l'UE, dans le secteur des composants électroniques, ces deux pays détiennent un ACR sur les biens intermédiaires intensifs en technologie et améliorent leur position sur les biens finaux. Vis-à-vis du reste du monde, le Maroc et la Tunisie sont spécialisés sur leurs ressources naturelles : ils vendent leurs produits agricoles frais et transformés et développent le secteur de la chimie, améliorant ainsi leur compétitivité sur les biens intermédiaires intensifs en capital humain et en technologie.

## **7 Part à l'exportation des pays méditerranéens sur le marché européen**

La part à l'exportation des pays méditerranéens sur le marché mondial comme européen a atteint, tous produits confondus, son point le plus haut en 1985 avant de revenir en 1995 à son niveau de 1967. Depuis 1995 (respectivement depuis 1998), elle tend à se relever sur le marché mondial (respectivement européen) sans retrouver son niveau de 1985 (*cf.* graphique 6). La perte de part à l'exportation a été tendancielle depuis 1967 pour l'agroalimentaire et dans une moindre mesure pour les minerais. Quant au secteur énergétique, le recul a été amorcé au début des années quatre-vingt après un relatif essor. À l'inverse, la part des exportations manufacturières tend à croître depuis le début des années quatre-vingt.

**Graphique 6 Variation de part à l'exportation MENA (Algérie, Egypte, Israël, Maroc, Tunisie, Turquie) vers le monde et l'UE15**



Source : CHELEM, MENA = Algérie, Egypte, Israël, Maroc, Tunisie, Turquie.

#### L'indicateur de variation de part à l'exportation

Pour chacune des catégories de produits  $k$ , pour chaque pays partenaire  $j$ , on calcule :

$$x_{ijk} = \frac{X_{ijk}}{M_{jk}} \text{ la part de marché du pays } i \text{ dans les importations du pays } j \text{ en produit } k ;$$

$$m_{jk} = \frac{M_{jk}}{W} \text{ la part des importations du pays } j \text{ en produit } k \text{ dans le commerce mondial total.}$$

La variation de part entre l'année initiale (0) et l'année terminale (t) notée VAR est la somme de deux composantes a et b :

$$VAR(t) - (0) = a + b$$

avec

$$a = 1000 \times [m_{jk}(t) - m_{jk}(0)] \times x_{ijk}(0) = \text{effet de structure ;}$$

et

$$b = 1000 \times [x_{ijk}(t) - x_{ijk}(0)] \times m_{jk}(t) = \text{effet de performance.}$$

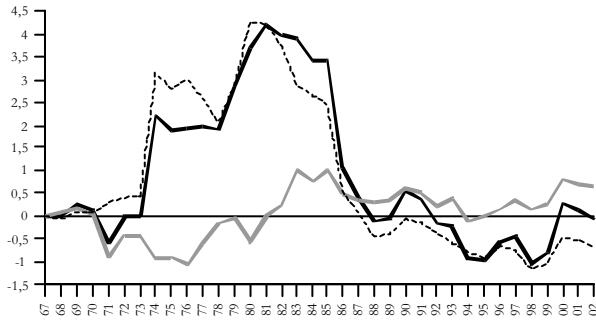
L'**effet de structure** désigne l'évolution qui résulterait de l'expansion ou de la contraction des importations des partenaires. Il indique dans quelle mesure la structure des exportations du pays  $i$  est adaptée à la croissance des importations de ses partenaires.

L'**effet de performance** mesure les gains ou pertes vis-à-vis des concurrents sur les marchés élémentaires.

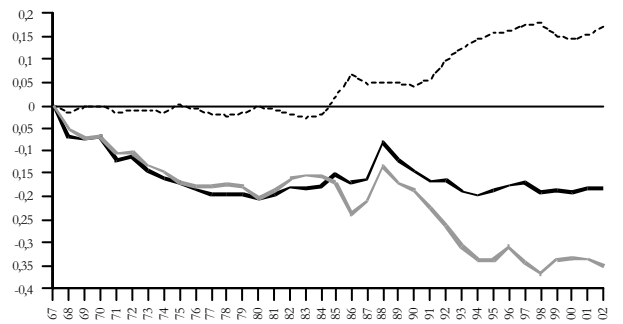


**Graphique 7 Variation de part à l'exportation vers le monde et l'UE15**

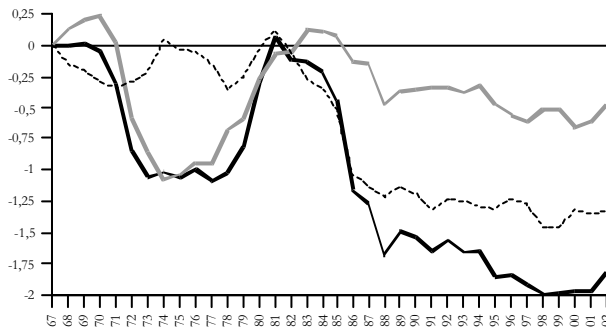
**Algérie vers Monde, Tous produits**



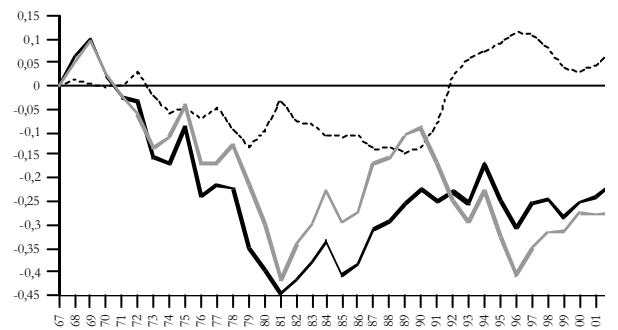
**Algérie vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**



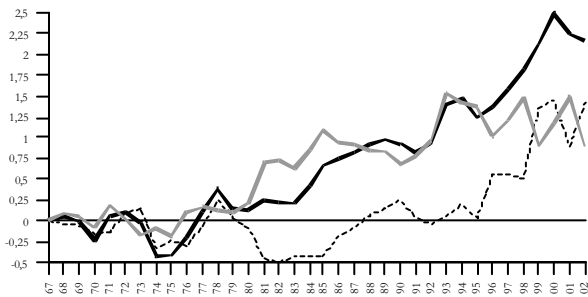
**Egypte vers Monde, Tous produits**



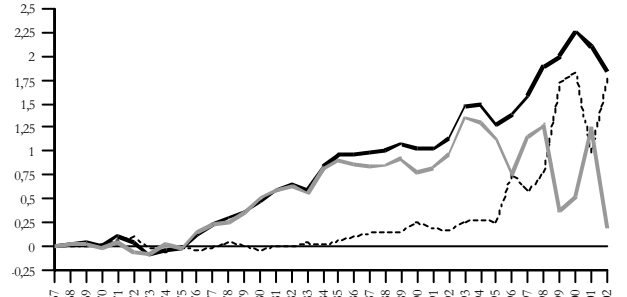
**Egypte vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**



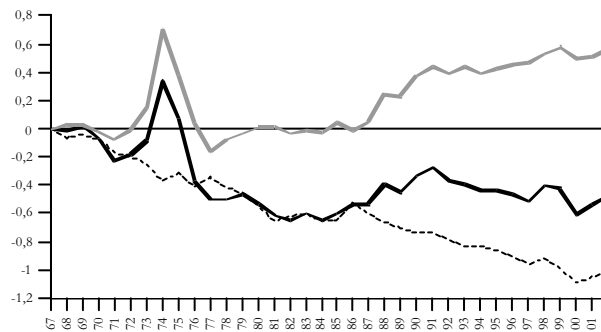
**Israël vers Monde, Tous produits**



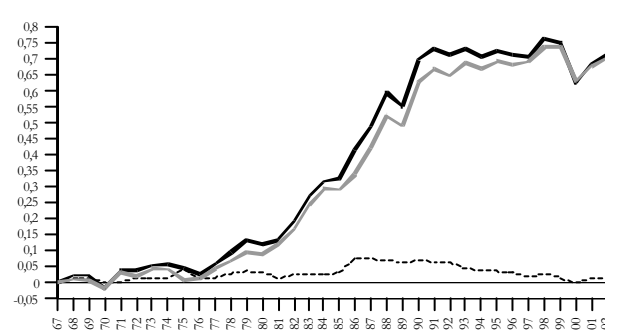
**Israël vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**



**Maroc vers Monde, Tous produits**

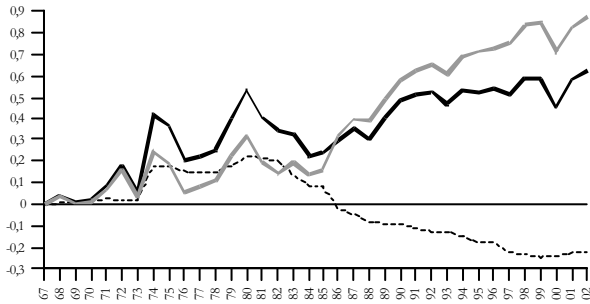


**Maroc vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**

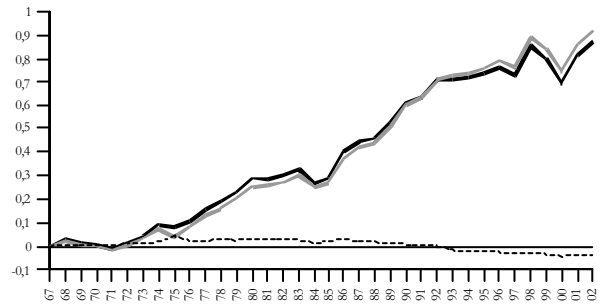


— Variation de part à l'exportation    — Performance    - - - - - Effet de structure

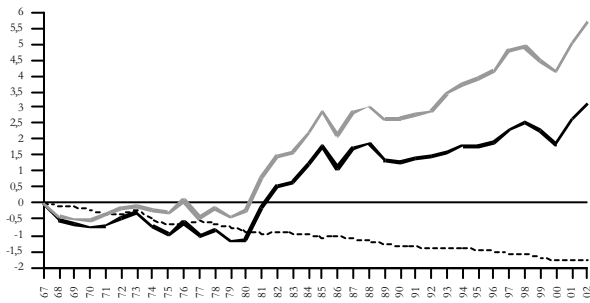
**Tunisie vers Monde, Tous produits**



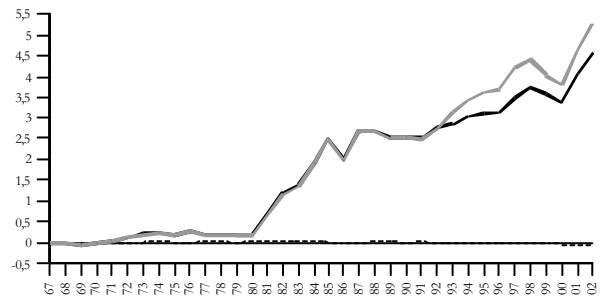
**Tunisie vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**



**Turquie vers Monde, Tous produits**

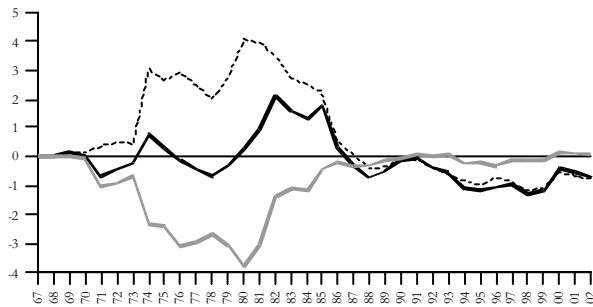


**Turquie vers Monde, Produits manufacturés**

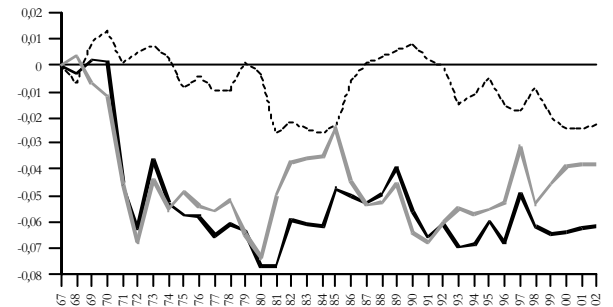


— Variation de part à l'exportation      - - - - - Performance      . . . . . Effet de structure

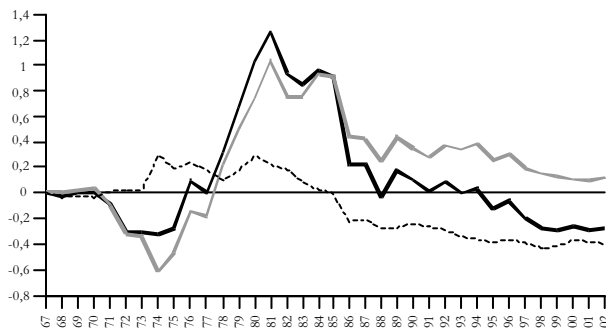
**Algérie vers UE15, Tous produits**



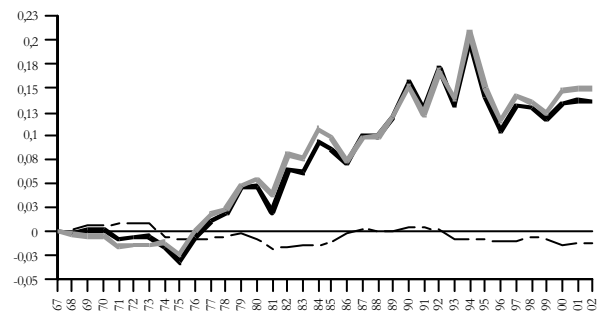
**Algérie vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



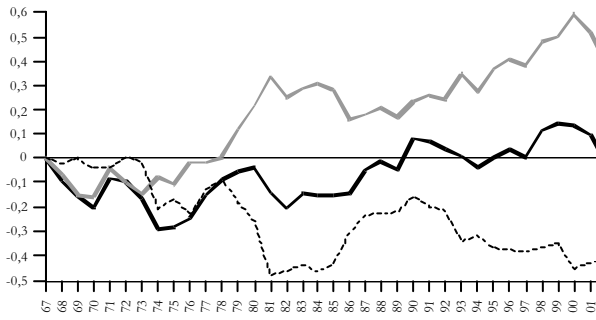
**Egypte vers UE15, Tous produits**



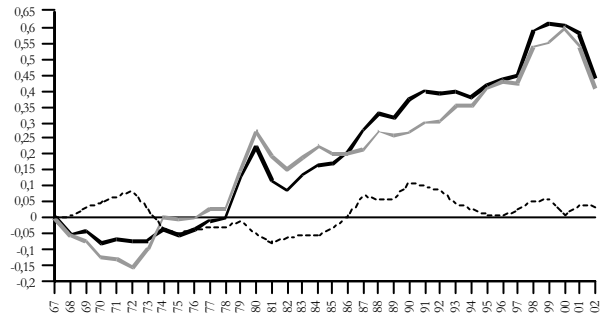
**Egypte vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



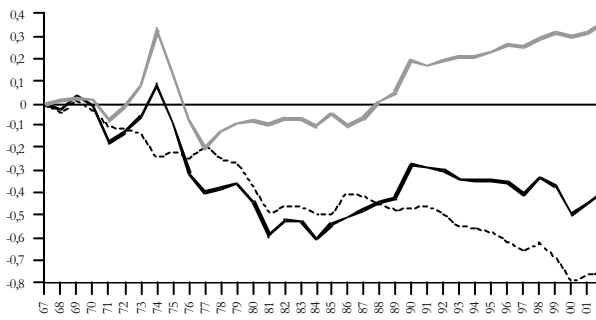
**Israël vers UE15, Tous produits**



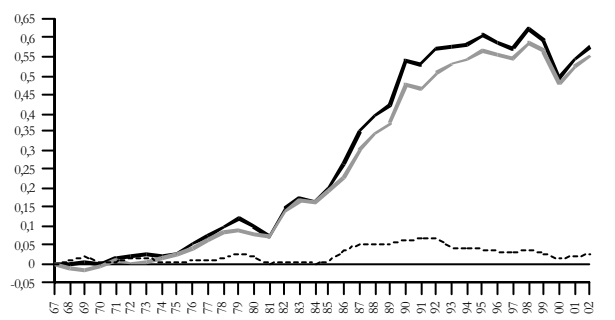
**Israël vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



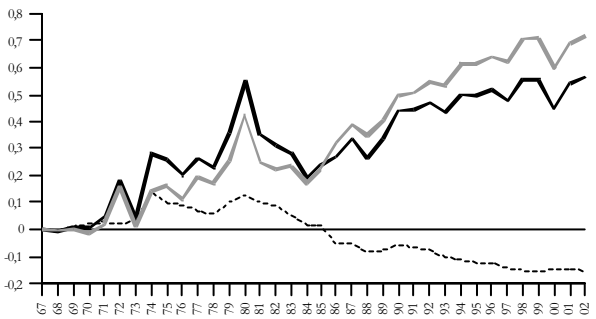
**Maroc vers UE15, Tous produits**



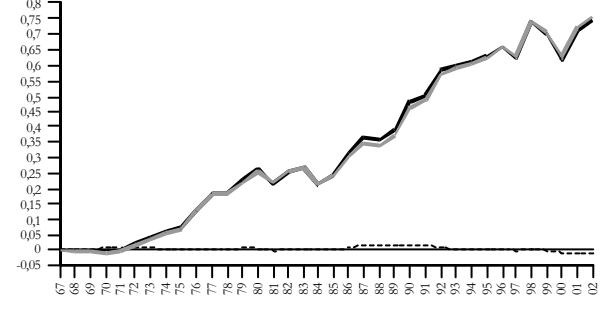
**Maroc vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



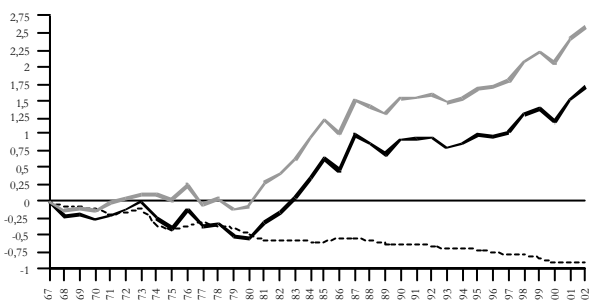
**Tunisie vers UE15, Tous produits**



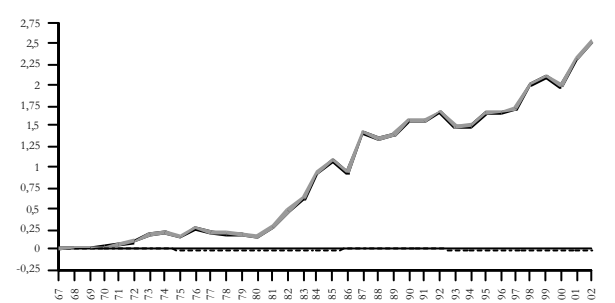
**Tunisie vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



**Turquie vers UE15, Tous produits**



**Turquie vers UE15, Produits manufacturés**



— Variation de part à l'exportation    — Performance    - - - - Effet de structure

Source : calculs des auteurs à partir de CHELEM, année de référence : 1967.

Sur le marché des produits manufacturés, l'Algérie a faiblement perdu des parts de marché à l'exportation par manque de performance, sachant qu'elle est déjà peu présente dans ce secteur (*cf.* Graphique 7 et annexe 2).

L'Égypte perd régulièrement des parts de marché à l'exportation dans l'agroalimentaire même si l'essentiel des variations de sa part globale provient du secteur énergétique dont l'expansion jusqu'au début des années quatre-vingt a laissé place à un recul. La part de marché des exportations manufacturières égyptiennes a faiblement évolué, que ce soit à la baisse vers le Monde ou à la hausse vers l'UE15. La progression observée dans les vêtements de confection et de bonneterie, le fer et l'acier, les tapis est trop peu marquée depuis les années quatre-vingt-dix pour compenser le recul sur les fils et tissus.

Les quatre autres pays méditerranéens voient leurs parts de marché manufacturière augmenter de façon significative sur la période étudiée.

La Turquie, malgré un secteur agroalimentaire qui marque le pas à l'exportation, n'a cessé d'améliorer sa part manufacturière et donc globale à l'exportation depuis 1980, et ce malgré une pause entre 1989 et 1994 pour les raisons évoquées *supra*. C'est notamment dans les biens de consommation (vêtements de confection et de bonneterie, électronique grand public, tapis) que les parts ont été gagnées.

Israël depuis le milieu des années soixante-dix n'a cessé d'améliorer sa part à l'exportation manufacturière, tout en reculant sur l'agroalimentaire. Si tous les stades, hormis le stade primaire, participent à cette amélioration, les biens d'équipement (matériel de télécommunication, instruments de mesure, matériel informatique) dégagent la progression la plus grande.

Les parts de marché manufacturières du Maroc et de la Tunisie progressent de façon presque parallèle. Néanmoins le Maroc accuse sur les années quatre-vingt-dix un tassement plus net que la Tunisie. Notamment, la nette augmentation des parts de marché des deux pays au début des années quatre-vingt-dix dans les biens de consommation est stoppée en 1996-97 au Maroc de manière plus prolongée qu'en Tunisie.

En résumé, la progression de la région méditerranéenne sur le marché manufacturier total et européen provient en majorité des gains turcs de part de marché, des progrès réalisés par Israël en tant qu'exportateur de biens d'équipement, cependant que depuis les années quatre-vingt-dix la Tunisie mais plus encore le Maroc progressent peu, voire régressent comme en 2000. Enfin, la contribution de l'Algérie et de l'Égypte, traditionnellement faibles exportateurs de produits manufacturés, lorsqu'elle a été positive (Égypte vers UE15), s'est avérée trop modeste.

## 8 Evolution des déficits commerciaux

L'Algérie est le seul des six pays méditerranéens étudiés à dégagé un excédent commercial, l'excédent sur l'énergie (gaz, pétrole brut et raffiné) sur-compensant les déficits manufacturier et agroalimentaire (*cf.* graphique 8). Les déficits des cinq autres pays sont majoritairement imputables au secteur manufacturier, et sur ce dernier, hormis pour l'Égypte, l'essentiel du déficit provient des échanges avec l'UE15.

De la fin des années soixante-dix jusqu'au début des années quatre-vingt-dix, cinq pays, Israël, Turquie, Maroc, Égypte et Tunisie, ont réduit leur déficit relatif manufacturier du fait des progrès de leurs exportations mais également dans certains cas, de limitations des importations dans le cadre de plans d'ajustement. En revanche sur la décennie quatre-vingt-dix, les soldes rapportés au PIB restent à peu près stables en raison d'un ralentissement de la progression des exportations (faible progression des parts de marché et demande européenne moins dynamique).

La Turquie apparaît comme un cas particulier dans la mesure où le déficit manufacturier vis-à-vis du Monde, et particulièrement vis-à-vis de l'UE15, s'est fortement creusé à partir de 1994 du fait d'une forte croissance des importations (*cf.* tableau 8). Depuis 1997, le déficit tend à se réduire alors même que l'Union douanière avec l'Union européenne est entrée en vigueur le 1er janvier 1996. A cette occasion, tous les droits de douanes et taxes à effets équivalents subsistant dans les échanges mutuels de produits industriels ont été éliminés, et le tarif extérieur commun de l'Union a été appliqué aux produits industriels des pays tiers. Il s'en est suivi, pour les produits industriels, une baisse sensible des tarifs appliqués aux pays tiers et une quasi-disparition des droits de douane sur les produits européens.

Malgré l'Union douanière, les exportations turques ne se sont pas davantage concentrées sur le marché européen : 51% des exportations turques sont destinées à l'UE15 sur les années 1996-2001 contre 52% pour les six années antérieures. En revanche, la part de l'UE15 dans les importations turques a progressé (de 50% à 54 %), notamment sur les produits alimentaires (+8 points de %), les branches mécanique électrique (+5) et textiles-habillement-cuirs (+ 4).

**Tableau 7 Part de l'Union européenne-15 dans les importations turques, en %**

	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02	1990-95	1996-2001
<i>X° Total</i>	56	55	54	49	48	51	49	47	50	54	55	53	51	52	51
X° Matériaux de const.	60	50	52	48	42	47	46	42	43	45	47	48	45	50	45
X° Sidérurgie métallurgie	25	14	13	6	10	21	19	22	32	38	43	35	27	15	31
X° Textiles cuirs	78	79	76	71	64	63	64	59	60	64	65	65	63	72	63
X° Bois papiers	42	42	53	46	39	33	32	31	39	41	42	44	39	43	38
X° Mécanique électrique	56	58	57	46	48	52	52	49	55	59	58	57	58	53	55
X° Chimie	33	35	35	30	35	35	27	27	29	36	38	40	36	34	33
X° Minerais	52	57	58	59	61	55	46	48	55	52	52	47	44	57	50
X° Energie	67	64	77	52	76	65	62	59	31	45	44	40	22	67	47
X° Agriculture	46	43	41	46	50	55	50	49	46	50	52	48	50	47	49
X° Produits alimentaires	45	40	33	36	37	38	34	33	38	45	37	39	42	38	37
<i>M° Total</i>	48	51	49	51	50	51	56	54	56	55	52	47	49	50	54
M° Matériaux de const.	71	73	74	76	84	81	83	78	75	72	72	73	73	76	75
M° Sidérurgie métal.	55	52	51	47	44	41	52	42	37	34	33	34	35	48	39
M° Textiles cuirs	57	56	56	47	41	40	53	56	54	56	52	54	47	50	54
M° Bois papiers	65	63	66	69	66	55	67	70	68	64	62	66	64	64	66
M° Mécanique électrique	65	65	63	62	66	68	73	69	70	71	71	67	68	65	70
M° Chimie	61	59	61	63	63	61	66	66	64	66	63	64	63	61	65
M° Minerais	26	43	46	67	66	62	62	47	33	22	28	28	33	52	37
M° Energie	3	7	4	5	4	3	4	6	9	9	10	4	5	4	7
M° Agriculture	29	25	20	23	24	27	26	24	21	24	24	24	27	25	24
M° Produits alimentaires	41	23	27	24	26	44	41	38	41	41	40	35	39	31	39

Source : calculs des auteurs d'après CHELEM. M° désigne les importations et X° les exportations.

**Tableau 8 Taux de variation annuels des échanges, en %**  
**- Avec le monde -**

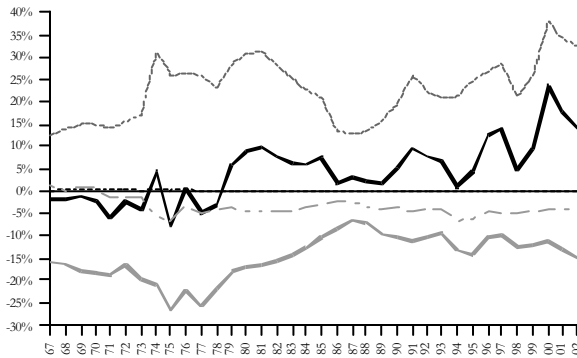
	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02
<i>X° Total</i>	11	5	8	2	18	20	6	14	3	-1	3	14	14
X° Matériaux de construction	39	14	15	-	20	21	15	21	1	1	16	10	18
X° Sidérurgie métallurgie	14	-	4	27	16	-2	-1	16	-	-7	9	31	8
X° Textiles cuirs	17	3	18	-4	16	26	2	15	6	-7	1	5	17
X° Bois papiers	21	-3	31	14	35	23	13	5	3	-1	9	25	27
X° Mécanique électrique	43	17	29	-2	30	40	22	15	21	19	12	24	21
X° Chimie	-	-8	7	4	25	27	-3	17	-1	-7	12	18	6
X° Minerais	21	-	-5	2	20	38	-	21	-	4	14	-	15
X° Energie	22	15	-	-	39	20	-	-	36	27	-	36	64
X° Agriculture	15	-2	20	29	3	-5	13	10	0	-	-	13	-
X° Produits alimentaires	12	13	17	11	-5	33	24	5	14	-	-6	-	15
	2	39	11	-5	33	24	5	14	-	-6	-	15	-7
<i>M° Total</i>	44	-5	8	26	-22	54	19	14	-5	-12	34	-27	23
M° Matériaux de construction	61	-	6	9	-	68	29	-6	12	-	2	-	33
M° Sidérurgie métallurgie	-2	-	4	48	-	71	-6	22	-6	-	48	-	25
M° Textiles cuirs	84	-4	24	28	2	58	17	20	-3	-	17	-9	39
M° Bois papiers	32	8	12	51	-	90	6	10	2	1	29	-	19
M° Mécanique électrique	69	-1	15	32	-	46	35	20	-1	-	31	-	23
M° Chimie	29	-5	11	15	-	65	10	12	0	-4	18	-	25
M° Minerais	-	2	-6	56	-5	36	-1	7	-	-	13	-	81
M° Energie	13	44	-	1	5	-4	23	29	-	-	22	72	-
M° Agriculture	21	-	45	37	-	101	16	6	-	-	29	-	28
M° Produits alimentaires	85	-	-9	6	-	74	2	-5	-9	-	-1	-	20
	12	19	12	22									
<b>- Avec PUE15 -</b>													
X° Total	26	3	7	-8	15	27	4	7	11	7	4	11	10
X° Matériaux de construction	67	-4	18	-21	5	36	13	9	2	6	23	12	9
X° Sidérurgie métallurgie	25	-54	1	-45	106	97	-9	35	23	10	25	6	-16
X° Textiles cuirs	26	5	14	-9	4	25	4	4	9	-1	2	4	13
X° Bois papiers	36	-5	64	-0	14	5	9	3	27	4	13	30	11
X° Mécanique électrique	65	21	26	-20	37	51	21	10	34	29	9	23	21
X° Chimie	-11	-3	8	-11	46	29	-	17	6	13	20	23	-3
X° Minerais	-15	-7	-2	5	23	25	-	26	2	-2	14	-	8
X° Energie	17	-6	-3	-52	102	3	-	-	-	85	-	22	-8
X° Agriculture	29	6	-	25	11	5	3	7	-5	-6	-	3	-8
X° Produits alimentaires	35	21	-8	3	35	29	-5	8	-6	10	-	22	-0

M° Total	55	1	4	29	-23	59	30	11	-2	-	27	-	27
											14	33	
M° Matériaux de construction	44	-10	6	12	-11	61	33	-	7	-	2	-	33
M° Sidérurgie métallurgie	10	-15	2	36	-36	61	18	0	-	-	45	-	28
											17	31	25
M° Textiles cuirs	72	-6	25	8	-11	53	56	26	-7	-	9	-6	22
											19		
M° Bois papiers	36	5	16	59	-31	59	29	14	-1	-5	24	-	16
													24
M° Mécanique électrique	72	-1	12	30	-27	50	47	13	0	-	30	-	24
											13	42	
M° Chimie	38	-7	14	18	-12	60	19	12	-2	-2	13	-	24
												14	
M° Minerais	-15	72	-1	131	-7	27	-0	-	-	-	41	-	109
											19	40	46
M° Energie	22	106	-	26	-13	-5	59	20	14	30	86	-	41
			45									66	
M° Agriculture	17	-42	15	59	-24	126	12	-2	-	-	25	-	39
										25	18	24	
M° Produits alimentaires	182	-50	3	-2	-15	199	-4	-	-2	-	-3	-	31
													12
													11
													32

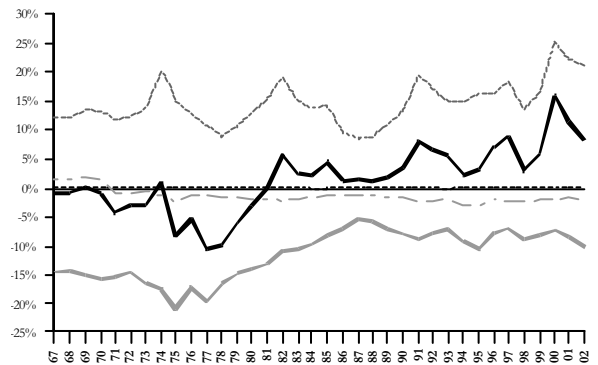
Source : calculs des auteurs d'après CHELEM.

**Graphique 8 Solde vis-à-vis du Monde et de l'UE en % du PIB**

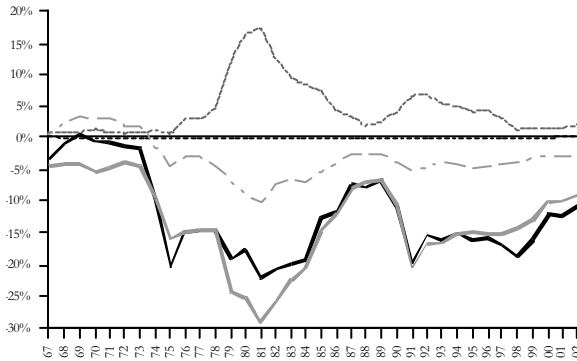
**Algérie vis-à-vis du Monde**



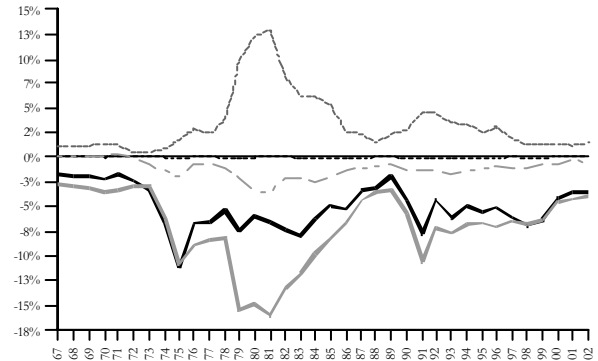
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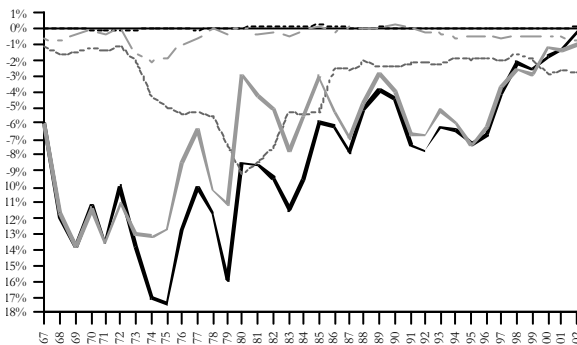
**Egypte vis-à-vis du Monde**



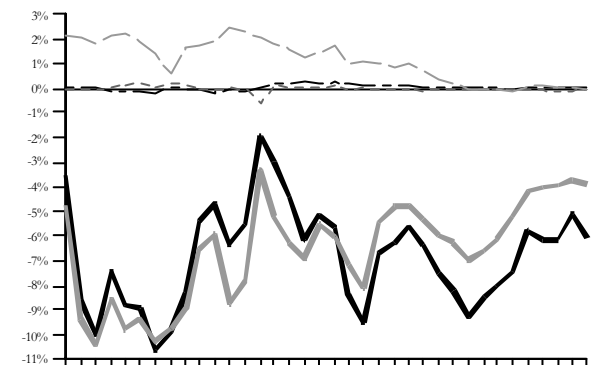
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**Israël vis-à-vis du Monde**



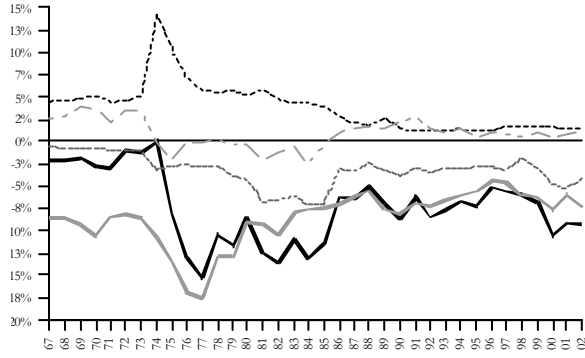
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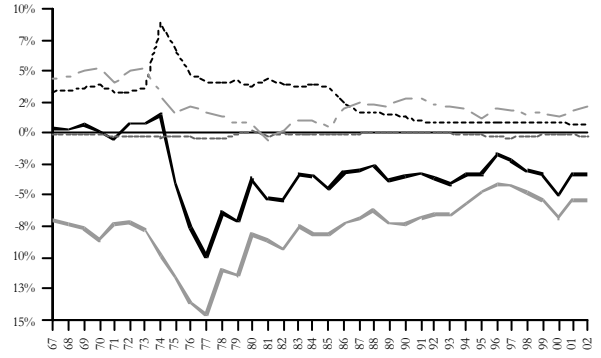
Total  
 Minerais  
 Energie  
 Manuf.  
 AA



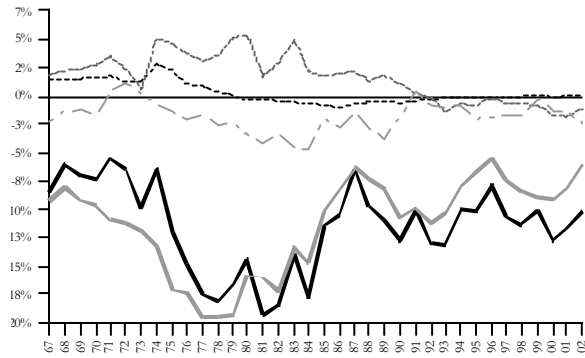
Maroc vis-à-vis du Monde



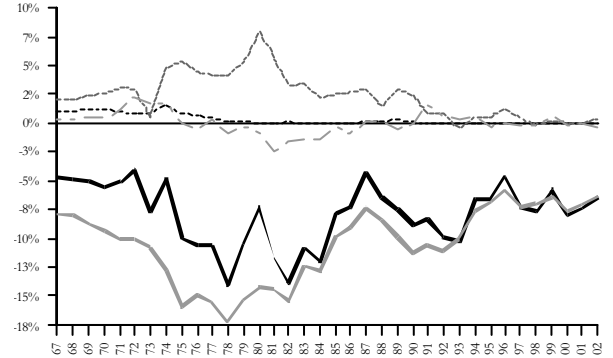
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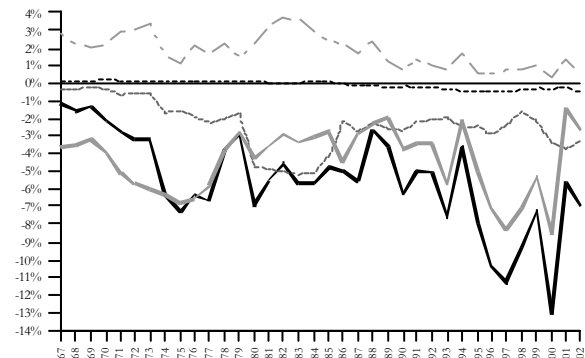
Tunisie vis-à-vis du Monde



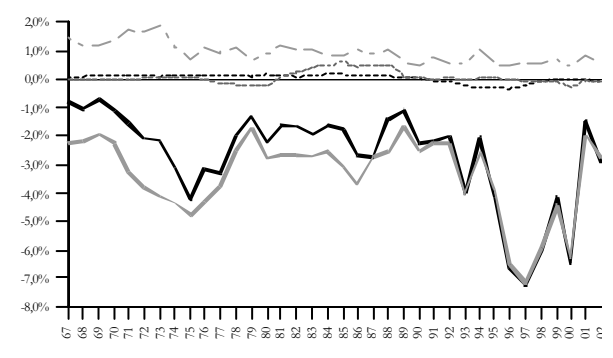
Tunisie vis-à-vis de l'UE15



Turquie vis-à-vis du Monde



Turquie vis-à-vis de l'UE15



Total  
 Minerais  
 Energie  
 Manuf.  
 AA

## 9 Conclusion

Certains des pays méditerranéens, à l'occasion de changements d'orientation économique, ont pu devenir moins dépendants des exportations de produits primaires et ont su s'insérer dans une division du travail avec leurs voisins du Nord sur certains secteurs industriels. Malgré tout, comparativement au commerce de zones plus dynamiques, le commerce des pays méditerranéens souffre d'un *quality gap* (Petri, 1997). Leurs exportations de produits manufacturés sont restées trop faibles ou trop concentrées sur des biens à faible valeur ajoutée ou à demande peu dynamique.

La protection commerciale relativement élevée a sans doute limité les importations de technologies plus avancées *via* les biens intermédiaires ou les biens d'équipement. Par ailleurs, en limitant la concurrence sur les marchés intérieurs, la protection a privé les pays méditerranéens de gains d'efficacité.

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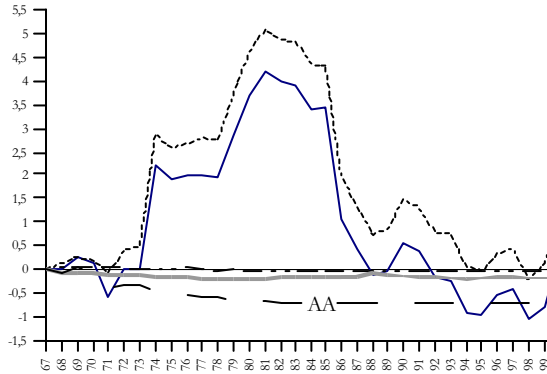




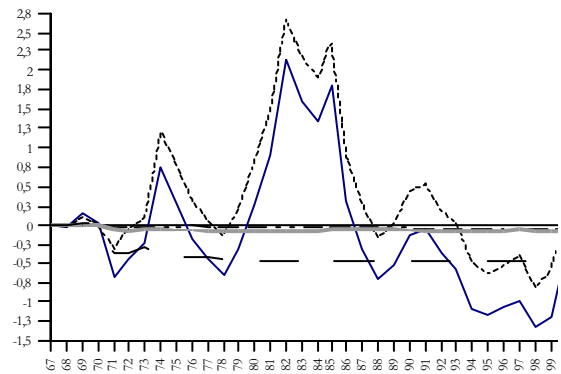


Annexe 2. Variation de part à l'exportation

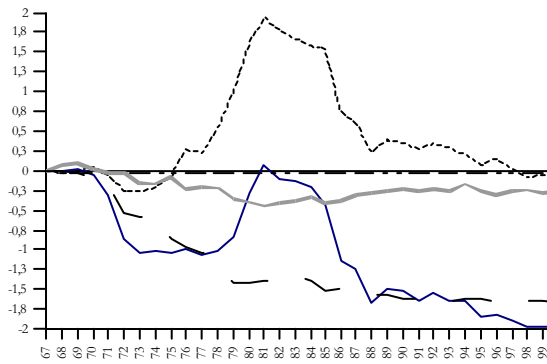
Algérie vers Monde



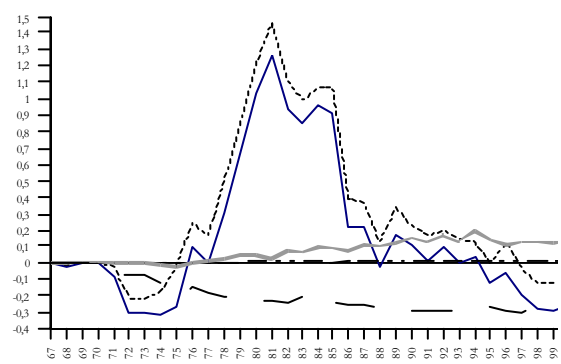
Algérie vers UE15



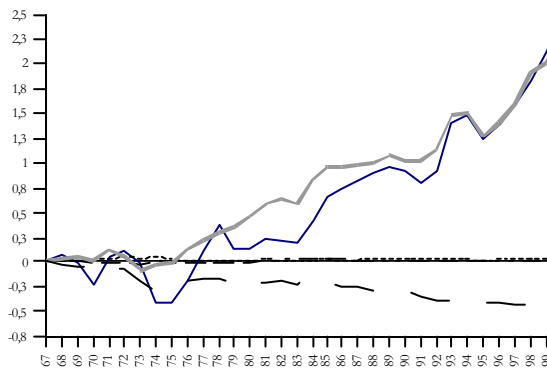
Egypte vers Monde



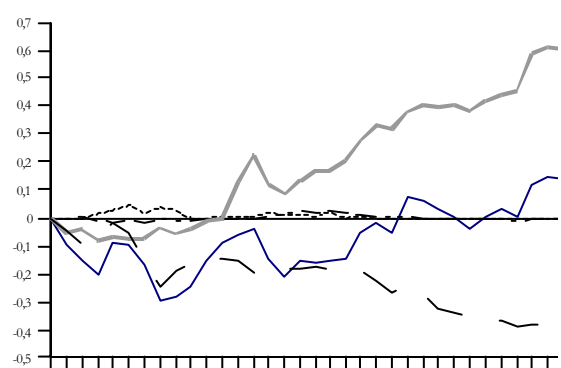
Egypte vers UE15



Israël vers Monde

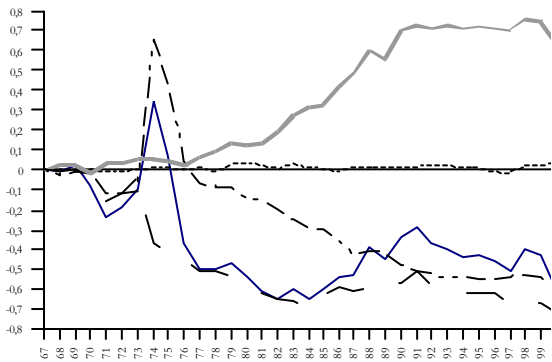


Israël vers UE15

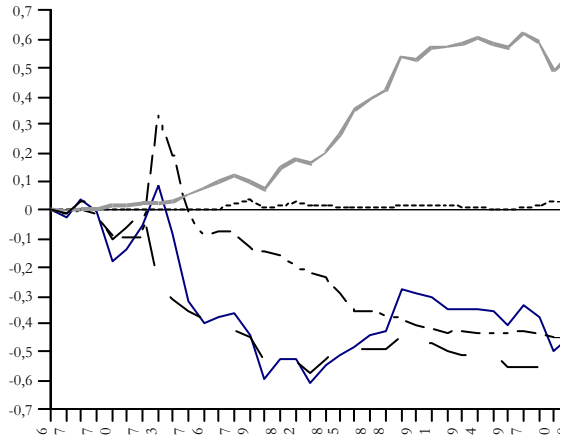


— Total      - - - Minerais      - - - Energie  
— Manuf. min.      - - - AA

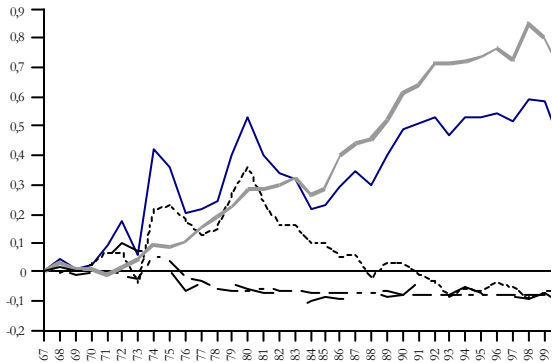
Maroc vers Monde



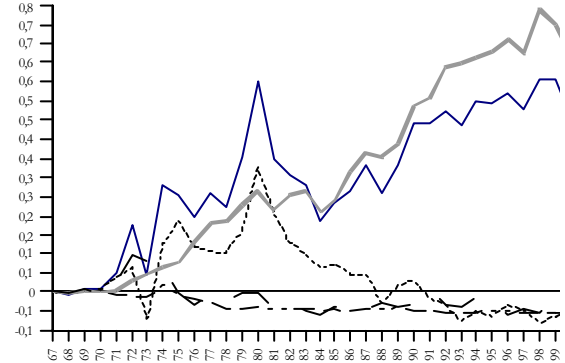
Maroc vers UE15



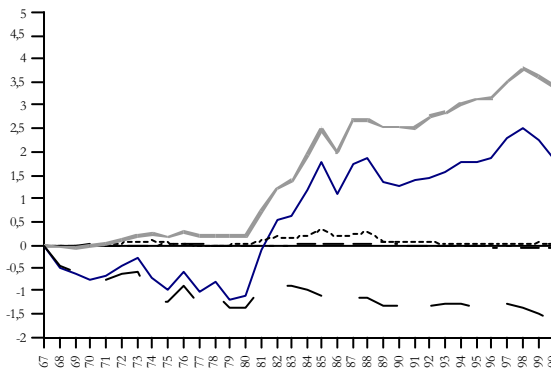
Tunisie vers Monde



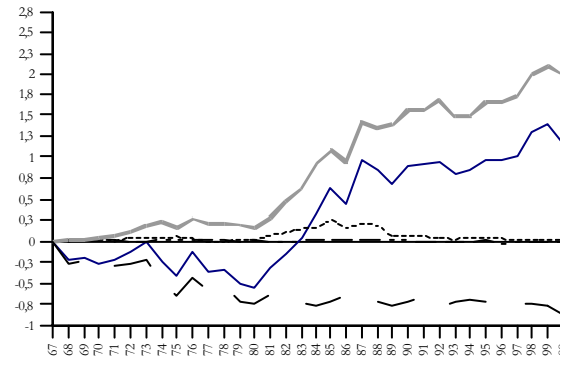
Tunisie vers UE15



Turquie vers Monde



Turquie vers UE15



— Total      - - - - Minerais      ····· Energie  
— Manuf. min.      - - - - AA

## Annexe 3. Principales catégories d'exportations manufacturières\*, 2002, en %

Egypte		Turquie		Israël	
<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0	<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0	<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0
Vêtements de bonneterie	12,7	Vêtements de bonneterie	14,6	Matériel de télécom.	13,3
Vêtements de confection	10,3	Vêtements de confection	10,6	Instruments de mesure	7,0
Fer et acier	9,1	Fils et tissus	8,3	Produits pharmaceutiques	6,8
Tapis	8,3	Fer et acier	7,3	Composants électroniques	6,8
Fils et tissus	8,0	Tapis	5,2	Articles en plastique	6,6
Métallurgie non ferreuse	6,6	Electronique gd public	5,1	Chimie organique de base	6,6
Engrais	5,3	Véhicules utilitaires	4,3	Aéronautique et espace	6,5
Ciment	4,2	Automobiles particulières	4,0	Fournitures électriques	5,5
Chimie minérale de base	4,1	Quincaillerie	3,5	Quincaillerie	5,1
Articles en plastique	3,3	Fournitures électriques	3,0	Matériel informatique	4,2
Cuir	2,8	Eléments de véhicules auto.	2,8	Engrais	3,9
Produits pharmaceutiques	2,8	Moteurs	2,7	Produits de toilette	3,2
Quincaillerie	2,6	Articles en plastique	2,4	Machines spécialisées	3,0
Produits de toilette	2,4	Electroménager	2,3	Chimie minérale de base	2,7
Fournitures électriques	2,4	Cuir	2,0	Vêtements de bonneterie	2,4
		Première transform. du fer	2,0	Fils et tissus	2,1
				Moteurs	2,0
Algérie		Maroc		Tunisie	
<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0	<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0	<i>Manufacturier min.</i>	100,0
Fer et acier	27,9	Vêtements de confection	32,8	Vêtements de confection	34,6
Chimie minérale de base	26,2	Vêtements de bonneterie	16,4	Vêtements de bonneterie	14,7
Chimie organique de base	8,4	Composants électroniques	9,1	Fournitures électriques	11,3
Engrais	6,0	Fournitures électriques	8,1	Cuir	7,2
Cuir	5,2	Chimie minérale de base	7,2	Engrais	5,2
Métallurgie non ferreuse	4,2	Engrais	6,6	Chimie minérale de base	4,1
Produits de toilette	2,3	Cuir	4,7	Fils et tissus	2,6
Navires	2,2				
Instruments de mesure	2,0				

Source : calculs des auteurs à partir de CHELEM.

\* part (supérieure à 2%) de chaque catégorie de biens dans le total des exportations manufacturières hors AA.



## Annexe 4 – Part (en %) des différentes catégories de produits dans les échanges

	Parte- naires	Stade de production	Importations par stade de production en % du total des importations				Exportations par stade de production en % du total des importations			
			1990	1995	2000	2001	1990	1995	2000	2001
<b>Algérie</b>	RDM	Bien final		28%	35%			4%	0%	
		Bien interméd.		47%	40%			40%	39%	
		Biens prim.		25%	24%			56%	61%	
	UE	Bien final		37%	45%			1%	0%	
		Bien interméd.		59%	47%			36%	38%	
		Biens prim.		4%	9%			64%	61%	
<b>Egypte</b>	RDM	Bien final		23%		23%		29%	19%	24%
		Bien interméd.		54%		47%		39%	67%	49%
		Biens prim.		23%		20%		32%	15%	16%
	UE	Bien final		29%		35%		22%	5%	20%
		Bien interméd.		63%		60%		60%	80%	71%
		Biens prim.		8%		5%		18%	15%	9%
<b>Israël</b>	RDM	Bien final	26%	31%	34%	38%	31%	27%	25%	26%
		Bien interméd.	38%	34%	42%	39%	64%	64%	70%	70%
		Biens prim.	34%	33%	23%	22%	5%	5%	5%	4%
	UE	Bien final	39%	43%	38%	43%	46%	41%	32%	35%
		Bien interméd.	48%	49%	39%	38%	48%	51%	58%	56%
		Biens prim.	13%	7%	22%	19%	6%	8%	10%	9%
<b>Maroc</b> (1990=1993)	RDM	Bien final	21%	20%	21%	19%	42%	43%	40%	37%
		Bien interméd.	32%	35%	29%	33%	41%	42%	41%	48%
		Biens prim.	46%	45%	50%	48%	17%	16%	18%	15%
	UE	Bien final	42%	35%	36%	35%	65%	62%	65%	66%
		Bien interméd.	52%	55%	56%	59%	26%	30%	30%	29%
		Biens prim.	6%	10%	7%	6%	9%	9%	5%	5%
<b>Tunisie</b>	RDM	Bien final	25%	27%	32%	31%	55%	33%	36%	36%
		Bien interméd.	54%	63%	44%	42%	39%	62%	58%	57%
		Biens prim.	21%	10%	25%	26%	6%	5%	6%	7%
	UE	Bien final	34%	31%	39%	36%	49%	64%	65%	67%
		Bien interméd.	60%	67%	57%	60%	26%	35%	21%	23%
		Biens prim.	5%	2%	4%	4%	25%	1%	14%	10%
<b>Turquie</b>	RDM	Bien final	25%	24%	23%	19%	57%	52%	54%	50%
		Bien interméd.	42%	46%	44%	46%	32%	42%	40%	45%
		Biens prim.	33%	30%	27%	26%	11%	6%	5%	5%
	UE	Bien final	34%	37%	46%	37%	51%	69%	64%	64%
		Bien interméd.	59%	55%	51%	59%	40%	27%	31%	33%
		Biens prim.	7%	7%	3%	3%	8%	4%	3%	3%

Source : Menegaldo et al. (2003), d'après COMTRADE.

**Annexe 5. Les avantages comparatifs des PM par macro secteurs et stades de production  
- avec l'UE -**

	Secteurs	ctb90		ctb95		ctb00		ctb01	
		BF	BI	BF	BI	BF	BI	BF	BI
<b>Algérie</b>	intensifs en capital humain			- 5,6	- 18,2	- 7,6	- 12,7		
	intensifs en ress Minérales				31,5		34,3		
	intensifs en ress agricoles			- 8,0	- 12,7	- 11,2	- 8,8		
	intensifs en technologie			- 24,9	- 22,8	- 27,3	- 19,5		
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié			- 1,2	- 2,4	- 1,8	- 2,3		
<b>Egypte</b>	intensifs en capital humain			- 3,6	- 19,6			- 5,2	- 16,2
	intensifs en ress Minérales				46,1			- 0,0	60,4
	intensifs en ress agricoles			0,1	- 16,6			- 1,6	- 10,0
	intensifs en technologie			- 23,9	- 33,8			- 36,7	- 30,3
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié			17,0	19,5			20,9	13,0
<b>Israël</b>	intensifs en capital humain	- 26,3	- 27,2	- 41,5	- 30,6	- 32,9	- 8,1	- 41,7	- 5,2
	intensifs en ress Minérales	- 0,0	4,0	- 0,0	5,8	- 0,0	20,7		28,2
	intensifs en ress agricoles	48,2	- 7,3	34,8	- 8,9	14,0	- 5,0	15,2	- 5,2
	intensifs en technologie	- 16,3	32,7	- 18,8	41,7	- 11,6	53,8	- 9,7	45,6
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	14,7	- 1,5	14,2	1,7	9,0	1,6	5,7	4,2
<b>Maroc* 90=93</b>	intensifs en capital humain	- 8,8		- 10,9	- 17,7	- 10,4	- 12,0	- 12,2	- 14,4
	intensifs en ress Minérales	0,0		- 0,0	- 2,7	- 0,0	- 2,5	- 0,0	- 1,7
	intensifs en ress agricoles	37,8		43,4	- 9,0	26,4	- 3,0	24,4	- 2,9
	intensifs en technologie	- 44,3		- 34,8	- 5,0	- 33,8	3,9	- 29,1	1,2
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	51,7		46,0	- 6,5	63,9	- 28,8	68,3	- 32,1
<b>Tunisie</b>	intensifs en capital humain	- 9,2	- 15,7	- 5,3	- 12,9	- 12,1	- 12,2	- 12,0	- 13,0
	intensifs en ress Minérales		- 10,9		- 2,9		- 4,3		- 4,2
	intensifs en ress agricoles	18,3	- 3,3	25,0	- 7,0	8,1	- 4,1	7,0	- 3,2
	intensifs en technologie	- 29,8	- 4,3	- 24,1	8,8	- 25,8	- 5,6	- 23,0	- 5,2
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	44,2	- 21,2	66,2	- 46,0	71,0	- 31,3	78,2	- 35,5
<b>Turquie</b>	intensifs en capital humain	2,9	- 15,2	1,7	- 17,6	- 7,3	- 9,5	13,2	- 11,2
	intensifs en ress Minérales	- 0,0	7,4	0,0	1,1	- 0,0	- 0,7	- 0,0	2,2
	intensifs en ress agricoles	21,0	- 4,6	21,2	- 3,1	15,5	- 1,9	15,9	- 2,8
	intensifs en technologie	- 41,0	- 38,6	- 41,1	- 32,8	- 43,6	- 36,9	- 41,7	- 43,5
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	48,6	18,0	70,4	5,7	73,6	9,4	63,9	4,7

**- avec le reste du monde -**

	Secteurs	ctb90		ctb95		ctb00		ctb01	
		BF	BI	BF	BI	BF	BI	BF	BI
<b>Algérie</b>	intensifs en capital humain			-5,39	-11,88	-8,07	-14,88		
	intensifs en ress Minérales				40,45		38,05		
	intensifs en ress agricoles			-8,04	-16,74	-6,53	-8,96		
	intensifs en technologie			-10,93	-17,34	-19,71	-12,48		
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié			-1,79	-2,50	-1,71	-3,53		
<b>Egypte</b>	intensifs en capital humain			-6,50	-18,04	-0,21	-1,65	-1,19	-19,15
	intensifs en ress Minérales			0,00	20,13		-84,22	0,00	60,32
	intensifs en ress agricoles			3,35	-22,77	15,38	-0,78	3,96	-17,03
	intensifs en technologie			-12,21	-18,00	0,19	15,80	-14,15	-19,54
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié			24,79	13,65	-8,19	-4,95	14,98	-0,05
<b>Israël</b>	intensifs en capital humain	-4,52	-12,19	-12,13	-9,35	-17,07	-9,87	-12,74	-8,22
	intensifs en ress Minérales	-0,01	68,57	0,00	76,49	0,00	64,64		58,79
	intensifs en ress agricoles	5,09	-5,01	0,60	-2,92	-6,95	-3,18	-7,47	-3,06
	intensifs en technologie	6,40	15,83	-1,59	18,83	-2,29	35,32	-13,26	41,01
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	3,91	-4,95	3,85	-1,78	-1,78	-4,10	-2,78	-2,12

.../..

<b>Maroc*</b> <b>90=93</b>	intensifs en capital humain	-5,40	-8,32	-5,60	-14,60	-7,43	-7,14	-4,38	-7,62
	intensifs en ress Minérales	0,00	1,32	0,00	1,94	0,00	6,11	0,00	11,34
	intensifs en ress agricoles	37,64	-17,71	48,43	-14,03	45,82	-10,71	43,78	-7,90
	intensifs en technologie	-16,60	36,85	-12,19	39,76	-15,75	36,87	-13,40	36,71
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	21,38	2,54	9,60	-1,04	11,02	-4,45	8,15	-5,59
<b>Tunisie</b>	intensifs en capital humain	-3,59	-12,31	-3,65	-16,09	6,31	-3,96	10,25	-1,10
	intensifs en ress Minérales	0,00	1,73	0,00	10,66	0,00	-0,62	0,00	3,70
	intensifs en ress agricoles	1,93	-11,95	9,23	-12,37	28,77	-6,89	25,23	-12,10
	intensifs en technologie	-17,57	20,48	-30,69	37,35	-40,42	49,39	-32,38	52,61
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	75,78	-27,13	40,80	-23,02	14,89	0,53	7,52	0,29
<b>Turquie</b>	intensifs en capital humain	-2,59	8,66	5,79	13,48	11,68	6,22	18,18	16,55
	intensifs en ress Minérales	-0,01	-5,21	0,00	-5,28	0,00	-10,28	0,00	-10,23
	intensifs en ress agricoles	22,77	-2,57	29,32	-3,46	21,60	-3,69	21,61	-3,63
	intensifs en technologie	-23,08	-22,93	-25,75	-19,07	-14,43	-18,75	-10,83	-21,32
	intensifs en trav. non qualifié	59,03	4,85	45,78	5,63	47,97	12,49	31,80	11,83

BF = Biens finaux

BI = Biens intermédiaires

Source : Menegaldo et al. (2003), d'après COMTRADE.



PART 3.  
**Impact of protection on MENA trade flows**

*M.-L. Cheval, Fabrice Darrigues<sup>1</sup>, Juliette Milgram<sup>2</sup>*

## **1 Introduction**

South Mediterranean area is a fragmented trade area with asymmetric protection; some countries are members of the multilateral trade system (Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Tunisia, Turkey), which offers constraints and advantages; market access to other members of the World Trade Organization is bound and the institution is an arbitrator of trade conflicts in such a way that small countries have the opportunity not to be treated on an unfair basis by large one. On the other side, the membership to the multilateral system implies a non discriminatory trade policy towards all members of the institution and a progressive binding of tariffs. Like plenty of other areas, South Mediterranean countries have negotiated bilateral or regional agreements; for instance their access to the European market is preferential and free of any charge in the industrial sector.

In a previous part of the study we evaluate bilateral protection in South Mediterranean countries and in their main partners (EU, USA, African countries...) thanks to data on tariffs and non-tariff barriers the most disaggregated level and taking into account preferential regimes.

In this study, we use the indicator of tariffs elaborated previously to assess the impact of the protection of MENA countries on their imports and of the protection of their partners on MENA exports. For this purpose we estimate gravity equations. This exercise provides some indirect measures of the impact of trade protection as a relevant complement of direct measure. Especially attention is paid to the potential for integration among MENA countries and to the impact of a liberalisation with the EU.

Section 2 presents the methodological framework. Section 3 presents the empirical model and the data. The estimates are displayed and analysed in Section 4, and Section 5 provides some tentative conclusions and possible developments for this analysis.

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## 2 Methodological framework

### 2.1 *The generic use of the gravity model*

The gravity equation of trade states that the bilateral trade volume is positively correlated with the product of the GDP of the partners and negatively correlated with the trade barriers that may exist among them (such as, for example, the transportation costs represented by the geographical distance). The great capability of these models to explain bilateral flows was pointed out at a very early date by the works of Linnemann (1966) and Leamer and Stern (1970). The absence of a theoretical justification which prevailed in the Seventies gave way to an abundance of studies which evidenced the compatibility of the gravity models with a whole array of theoretical frameworks.

Bergstrand (1989) proposes a formulation which reconciles the factorial model and the gravity equation. More recently, Deardorff (1998) shows again that the forces of gravity also apply to a Heckscher-Ohlin (H-O) type model. The key hypothesis is still that of complete specialization i.e., that each good is exported by only one country. This assumes that the differences in factorial endowments between partners are sufficiently important to lead to a complete specialization<sup>3</sup>.

Anderson (1979) deduced the gravity equation from a model in which the preferences are supposed to be homothetic and identical among the countries, while the goods are regarded as differentiated according to their origin. When the differentiation of the products is carried out by enterprises,<sup>4</sup> the resulting consequence is that each country produces a limited number of varieties but that it remains the sole exporter. The consumer's preference for variety then justifies the importance of the exchanges.

More recently, empirical validations of the gravity equations deriving from various theoretical models, such as those carried out by Helpman (1987), Hummels and Levinsohn (1995), Fontagné, Freudenberg and Péridy (1998) and Evenett and Keller (1998), conclude that a more eclectic vision of trade determinants, in which the H-O model and the models of increasing returns complement each other to a certain extent, can lead to a reconciliation between the gravity model and the theoretical ones. Indeed, the H-O model would better explain the success of the gravity equation when the partners have very different factorial endowments, while the other models would better explain the exchanges between similar countries precisely because the exchanges of differentiated goods represent a significant share of their trade. Trade flows are best explained through a combination of several models. It is therefore only natural that the exchanges be explained by an equation which can be justified in the context of various theoretical frameworks<sup>5</sup>.

The use of the gravity model was refined by the introduction of supplementary variables<sup>6</sup> or variants concerning the explained variable<sup>7</sup>. Factors of a rather political,

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<sup>3</sup> This specialization is at the source of the force of gravity in trade and explains why the imports of a country *i* are positively correlated with this country's income and with the exporting country's production. This hypothesis is thus common to most other works, with the exception of Feenstra, Markusen and Rose (2001), who develop a gravity model deriving from a « reciprocal dumping » model with homogeneous goods.

<sup>4</sup> Helpman, Krugman (1985) chap. 8 and Leamer (1990).

<sup>5</sup> The dichotomy between these theoretical frameworks has been largely mitigated since the work of Helpman and Krugman (1985).

<sup>6</sup> As the various problems arose: variables of price - Bergstrand (1985 and 1989) -, real exchange rate - Bayoumi and Eichengreen (1995) -, variability in the real exchange rate - Frankel and Wei (1993) -, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) - Eaton and Tamura (1994), Fontagné, Freudenberg and Péridy (1998) -.

<sup>7</sup> It is no longer the volume of trade, *stricto sensu*, which is used, but more often the flows of imports or exports, or even the share of a bilateral flow in the total trade - Haveman and Hummels (1996)-, the nature of the trade - Bergstrand (1990), Fontagné, Freudenberg and Péridy (1998) -, the bilateral

historical and cultural character were also integrated into these models. Eichengreen and Irwin (1998) argue that past trade relationships influence current flows by integrating delayed flows in the equation. These factors are often represented by dummy variables indicating the existence of common languages or common borders. Grossman (1998) and Rauch (1999) suggest that the lack of adequate information leads consumers to use distribution networks they already feel acquainted with, thereby demanding goods produced in regions that are historically, linguistically or geographically close to them. When the price of the goods is not the only, or even the main, issue in question (differentiated goods), the presence of these networks promotes trade<sup>8</sup>. Various ways of taking distance into account<sup>9</sup> were also implemented in order to highlight a “border effect”. Indeed, according to McCallum (1995), Trefler (1995) and Leamer (1993) different areas inside the same country trade more among each other than they do with areas of different countries separated by the same distance<sup>10</sup>.

## ***2.2 Some considerations on tariff and non-tariff barriers***

Gravity estimates have tried to isolate the impact of trade policies on trade flows. A first generation of models was interested in the influence of regional agreements on trade flows. Their presence is generally integrated by means of dummy variables representing the regions’ affiliation to some kind of agreement. Such is the case of the works of Frankel, Stein and Wei (1996)<sup>11</sup>. The authors study the possibility of an intra-regional bias which would lead the members of the same geographical area to conduct a more intensive trade than their geographical proximity would warrant (a zone described as “supra-natural”). However, the use of dummy variables can lead to an overestimation of the impact of such agreements, if they reflect other elements not specified in the model.

Only a few recent studies propose integrating finer estimates of the trade barriers, opening the way to completely innovating and highly promising research. Wall (1999), Fouquin and Gaulier (2000) have resorted to discrete qualitative variables expressing at the aggregate level the more or less restrictive character of the trade policy, determining these variables in an exogenous way. Harrigan (1993), Haveman and Hummels (1999), Hummels (1999), Castilho (2002) and Milgram (2005) explicitly took into account customs duties and the NTB.

These studies have the advantage of establishing the impact of trade policies much more precisely. They also evidence two types of problems. On the one hand, estimates must be carried out at the sectorial level in consideration of the heterogeneity of the barriers<sup>12</sup>. On the other hand, the tariff and NTB coefficients do not always display the expected sign - Harrigan (1993) and Castilho (2002).

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intensity of trade - Freudenberg, Gaulier, Ünal-Kesenci (1998) or the share of imports in GDP - Harrigan (1993).

<sup>8</sup> In a more general way, trans-national or national networks facilitate the exchanges by circumventing many informal obstacles to trade. Rauch (2001) mentions many studies that highlight the importance of commercial relations which are established with the mediation of immigrants. He also mentions strategies of firms whose aim is to consolidate lasting trans-national relations.

<sup>9</sup> This is the case of the studies by Wei (1996), Leamer (1997) and Head and Mayer (1999).

<sup>10</sup> Geographical distance thus reflects “transaction costs” - Krugman (1995) - which include not only the costs of transport but also other obstacles to trade. This explains why applying other trade policy measures reduced the effect of distance on trade flows.

<sup>11</sup> The works of Frankel and Wei (1993), Bayoumi and Eichengreen (1995), Bikker (1987), Brada and Mendez (1993) and Sapir (1997) are other examples.

<sup>12</sup> Actually, in the partial equilibrium framework, what should be used as representative of the exporter’s supply is the sector’s production, and the domestic consumption of the importer as representing its demand. But since these data are more difficult to obtain (in particular when the studies relate to developing countries), it is the GDP that is traditionally used. This explains in part why the explanatory

These results, which may be surprising at first sight, can often be explained within the framework of the theory of endogenous protection, which, relying on arguments of political economy, postulates that high levels of import penetration result in a more intensive mobilization of private interests, who tend to organize in lobbies in support of protectionism - Baldwin (1985), Magee, Brock and Black (1989), Grossman and Helpman (1994). In this sense, when the NTB are postulated as exogenous, their impact on imports is necessarily underestimated.

The study of Trefler (1993) demonstrates this result by treating the NTB as an endogenous factor<sup>13</sup>. The author concludes that the endogeneization of the NTB by the two-stage least squares (2SLS) method evidences a significant sensitivity of imports to the NTB, ten times higher than that obtained with a traditional estimation. In a similar fashion, Lee and Swagel (1997) simultaneously estimate a gravity equation and an equation that explains the presence of NTB through a series of variables which include the rate of penetration of imports. They also include country and sector fixed-effects<sup>14</sup>. Their conclusions confirm those of Trefler. The non-endogeneisation of the NTB could lead to an undervaluation of their effects and even, in certain cases, to a change in the coefficients' signs.

### 3 The empirical model and the data

The most general specification of gravity model specified by Bergstrand (1989) is suitable to the framework of our study. The is described by the equation:

$$Trade_{ij} = Y_i^\alpha Y_j^\beta Dist_{ij}^\gamma Z_{ij}, \text{ with } \alpha, \beta > 0, \gamma < 0 \text{ and } \delta > 0$$

(1)

where Trade between countries i and j,  $Y_i$  refers to the economic size of country i (usually GDP when the sectoral dimension of production is not taken into account),  $D_{ij}$  is the distance between countries,  $\delta_{ij}$  is a and  $Z_{ij}$  is a vector of bilateral variables which frequently includes a dummy for the use of a common language, dummy for common borders<sup>15</sup>.

With regard to the GDP, *the GDP of the exporter* represents the measure of its supply, and hence it must have a positive impact on exports. imports are supposed to grow with the income of the importer, i.e. *the importer's GDP*. *Obstacles to trade* should obviously have a negative coefficient. This is the case of geographical distance, and also of tariffs.

Finally, per capita GDP of the exporting countries and importing countries are often integrated when trade partners are quite different and their trade are supposed to be explained by the traditional comparative advantage explanation (model HO or

power of the gravity model is often lower at the disaggregated level. The specificity of the sectorial effects also justifies this result.

<sup>13</sup> The study deals with the US manufacturing sector in 1983. The author considers several explanatory NTB variables. Some of these reflect the comparative advantage (such as the rate of penetration of the imports, or import growth, or export trends), others may help detect how intensively the interests of the private sectors favour protectionism and their propensity to implement them (an increase in the number of purchasers and sellers, geographical concentration, the importance of employment, trade unions, unemployment, etc...).

<sup>14</sup> In the gravity equation, the rate of penetration of the imports is explained by an indicator of the geographical distance between the importer and its main trade partners, the share of the sector's production in the total production, the customs duty and an indicator of NTB. The study involves 43 countries and 27 sectors for the year 1988.

<sup>15</sup> Notice that  $\delta$  could also be defined more generally as a vector including a number of geographical and historical variables explaining the pattern of trade (for instance, the presence of a common colonizing country, the presence of a similar official language, etc.).



Ricardo). In this case *per capita GDP of the exporting countries* is a proxy of capital intensity. It is thus negatively correlated with its exports when the sector is labour intensive as it is in the present case. Likewise, countries relatively abundant in capital tend to import labour intensive products. The *per capita GDP of the importing countries* is thus supposed to have a positive impact on the imports of these products.

The sample includes 46 countries, of which all the countries of the EU15 + the AC countries and Russia, Asian countries, Others OECD countries and 6 MENA countries (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Turkey, Israel, Algeria). Although, it should be noted that the dataset is not completely multilateral but biased towards MENA countries since it covers for each MENA country, import from and export to the others 45 countries. Sample was limited by the availability of tariffs data and it has been unable to gather these data on a bilateral basis for all the partners. Thus, estimations are run on imports and exports of MENA countries for the year 2001 and the maximum number of observations when dealing with total trade is 270 (45 partners \* 6 MENA countries). Trade data are from the COMTRADE database. Tariffs are from TRAINS and were aggregated according to HS nomenclature or for total trade. Gravity variables are from the CEPII database<sup>16</sup>.

The standard model is tested in its logarithmic form. Various specifications were considered where the most completed are:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln X_{jMENA}^C &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 gdp_i + \alpha_2 gdp_j + \alpha_3 gdppci + \alpha_4 gdppcj + \alpha_5 dist_{MENA_i} \\ &+ \alpha_6 \ln(1 + t_{jMENA}^C) + \alpha_7 contig_{jMENA} + \alpha_8 comlang_{jMENA} + \alpha_9 colony_{jMENA} \quad ( \\ &+ \alpha_{10} smctry_{jMENA} + \alpha_{11} pxcons_{MENA} + \alpha_{12} pxcapi_{MENA} + \alpha_{13} pxprim_{MENA} \varepsilon_{jMENA} \end{aligned}$$

6.a)

$$\begin{aligned} \ln M_{MENA_i}^C &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 gdp_i + \alpha_2 gdp_j + \alpha_3 gdppci + \alpha_4 gdppcj + \alpha_5 dist_{MENA_i} \\ &+ \alpha_6 \ln(1 + t_{MENA_i}^C) + \alpha_7 contig_{MENA_i} + \alpha_8 comlang_{MENA_i} + \alpha_9 colony_{MENA_i} \\ &+ \alpha_{10} smctry_{MENA_i} + \alpha_{11} pmcons_{MENA} + \alpha_{12} pmcapi_{MENA} + \alpha_{13} pmprim_{MENA} + \varepsilon_{MENA_i} \end{aligned}$$

(6.b)

where C represents the product categories (alternatively total, HS4 or step).  $M_{MENA_j}$  stands for imports of MENA countries from country i (5 MENA countries and 40 non MENA countries) and  $X_{MENA_j}$  represents the exports from country each of the 6 MENA countries considered to country j (5 MENA countries and 40 non MENA countries).

<sup>16</sup> Available at <http://www.cepii.fr/anglaisgraph/bdd/distances.htm>.

Variables	
M	Log of Imports in current US\$/
X	Log of Exports in current US\$/
gdp	Log of GDP in current US\$
gdppc	Log of GDP per capita in current US\$/person
contig	1 if i and j share a common border
comlan	1 if a language is spoken by at least 9% of the population in both countries
colony	1 for pairs ever in colonial relationship
smctry	1 if countries were or are the same country
ldist	simple distance (most populated cities, km) en log
tarif $t_{MENA_i}^C$	Tariff applied by the MENA country j on imports from country i
pmcons	Share of Consumer goods in imports of the MENA country j
pmcapi	Share of Capital goods in imports of the MENA country j
pmprim	Share of Primary goods in imports of the MENA country j
tarif $t_{jMENA}^C$	Tariff applied by country j to the exports of the MENA country i
pxcons	Share of Consumer goods in exports of the MENA country i
pxcapi	Share of Capital goods in exports of the MENA country i
pxprim	Share of Primary goods in exports of the MENA country i

## 4 Impact of protection on MENA exports and imports

The main focus of this study is to investigate whether tariffs have an impact on trade flows in the MENA countries, in order to have an insight on the potential for trade integration, either within the region, or at least with the main trading partner, i.e. the EU15/25.

Our sample is large and allows to investigate this issue in a robust manner. Though, our data cover the majority of imports and exports of MENA countries but only cover the imports of others region from MENA. So, we are able to investigate with more precision imports behaviour of MENA countries than their exports. In particular, our data allows to measure the homogeneity of demand for imports of MENA countries from others MENA countries in relation to the rest of the world.

This is the reason why a two-step estimation strategy is implemented here. In a first step, the trade equation is estimated for imports and exports of MENA countries in order to seek for some differences between how MENA trade policy and others macro and sectoral variables affect their imports and how they are affected by third countries' trade policy on the export side. In a second step, we focus on possible asymmetries among partners. On the import side we investigate in particular if imports of MENA countries have a special sensibility to tariffs from others MENA countries or EU members. On the export side, we investigate the potential for expanding exports to the EU in the framework of a complete agreement of trade liberalisation in the agricultural sector with this region.

### 4.1 *Determinants of MENA imports and exports: the role played by tariffs*

For all the specifications tested and whatever exports (table 1) or imports (table 2) are considered, the explanatory capacity of the model is superior to 66% in all cases. Traditional variables of the gravity models (GDP and distance) are significant at the 1 % level (Table 2) in all specifications and show the expected signs. Sensibility to the market size of the importer is higher than those for the one of the exporting country. Per capita GDP of the importer and exporters don't explain the flows considered here since they are generally not significant.

As far as dummies for particular relationship are concerned, sharing a common border do not appear significant what reflects the fact that MENA countries, although they are neighbours don't trade much within them. In general, speaking the same language seems to have a positive impact on exports and MENA imports from countries which they maintained colonial relationship is higher than from others partners.

Including tariffs raise the explanatory power of the model (models 1 and 2 without tariffs compared to models 3 to 6 with tariffs). Models 3 and 4 fail to capture the impact of tariffs since the coefficient of this variable is not significant. Models 5 and 6 which include the share of Consumer, capital and primary goods in imports or exports of MENA countries offer better results. This means that the macro variables, the distance and the protection are not the only important determinants of trade flows for MENA countries. Specialisation that reflects better their history and endowments is an important variable that should be taken into account.

For the reasons exposed above, we focus further on, on model 6 (tariff is significant and the specification don't include GDP per capita). Customs duty has the foreseen negative sign, which is not always the case. We must point that results displayed in Comments above are from estimations driven at the aggregate level (tables 1 to 4). We also estimate this equation (model6 with fixed effects for sectors) at the 4 digit level of the HS nomenclature. Since the only variable specific to this stage of aggregation is the tariff, results are not satisfactory in the sense that the explanatory power of the model is very low but gravity variables show the expected signs and are significant and so do tariffs. In particular, data of production and demand are needed at the sectoral level in order to explore this issue in a consistent manner. All the results point that trade policy is not the main determinant for trade flows for this countries and others determinants like specialisation influence their sensibility of flows to trade policy instruments.

As commented before, we decided to integrate in the estimations the shares of Consumer, Capital and Primary goods to obtain more robust estimates of demand of imports and supply of exports in relation to tariffs. Estimations allow to drive three important results:

1) **Specialisation is more important for exports than for imports** (all share are significant at the 1% level for the export equation). This result is certainly due to the fact that import structure is more homogeneous than the structure of exports. Since tastes and consumers needs are more homogeneous around the world than determinants of supply (factor endowments are). Although, more work is needed to investigate the degree of similarity and complementarity among MENA as far as specialisation is concerned. In particular, we estimate an export equation by countries but results are not significance because the numbers of observations is low. So, data of production and demand is needed at the sectoral level in order to explore this issue in a consistent manner.

2) **MENA imports are more sensible to trade protection (of their own country) than MENA exports are (in relation to third countries' trade policy)**. This result must be interpreted with caution since it must be related to the fact that MENA countries are granted a preferential access to the major big markets while they already impose high tariffs on their imports. Thus, results obtained at the most disaggregated level do not offer more robustness to this result. This result may suggest that the elasticity in relation to one of the price components such as the customs duty, differs depending on the level of the duty or the price what appears reasonable. Although since our sample only takes into account third countries imports from MENA we are not allowed to affirm if this is a specificity of MENA exports or of exports in general.

3) **Elasticity of imports and exports to tariffs are rather high (between -2.8 for exports and -3.1 for imports)**. A complete elimination of tariffs would have a

substantial effect on MENA trade: on average it would raise exports by 16,8% (=exp(-2.822)) and imports by 27,5% (=exp(3.335)). Empirical studies often obtain inferior values which lead one to believe that the price effects have been underestimated with regard to theoretical forecasts<sup>17</sup>. On the one hand, there may be certain factors that influence both the prices and the amounts in demand (as when quality and technical progress are involved, for example, in which, if they are not included in the model, will produce an underestimation of the elasticities. On the other hand, estimating the price elasticity is often carried out at aggregate levels (geographically and sectorially) and thus often requires the use of inadequate price measurements (indices, average unit values). Erkel-Rousse and Mirza (2002) propose instrumentalising the price variables and carrying out estimates on sectorial data in order to control these two types of bias. In so doing they obtain elasticities which are more in keeping with those envisaged by the theoretical literature (between 1 and 7 depending on the sector). The coefficients obtained in our study are thus in harmony with the theoretical forecasts (strong price elasticity) since we are dealing with countries which can be regarded as "price-takers" towards a "large importer". They confirm that the price measurement (we are dealing here with the customs duty, which is a component of the price but does not entail a quality effect) make it possible to improve elasticity estimates. Integrating the tariff data in this type of estimates thus opens up a highly promising research field.

#### 4.2 Investigating potential asymmetries among partners

The previous set of estimates allows to have a broad picture of the impact of protection on MENA imports, showing that its impact is rather high. A question is however to determine whether this is a general feature towards all the MENA trade partners of the sample, or whether imports demand is more sensitive to tariffs depending on the partner. That is, one should accept the Armington hypothesis of imperfect substitute of imports by origin.

One possibility to address this issue is to compare estimates resulting from estimating model 6 for different sets of partners as EU, MENA and others. This method cannot be applied at the aggregated level due to the lack of observations but was driven at the HS4 level. Results are displayed in table 5.

Another possibility consists in building regional dummies, corresponding to the following groupings of exporting countries: EU15 (*eu*), Accession countries (*ac*), no MENA (*nmna*) and MENA (*mna*) countries. These dummies are then interacted with the tariff variable, in order to catch potential asymmetries in the reaction of trade to trade policy instrument.

In a first step (model7), the asymmetric behaviour of MENA countries is investigated.

The estimated equation for exports is equation 6.a where the variable  $\text{tarif} = \ln(1 + t_{j\text{MENA}}^C)$  is substituted by the variables :  $\text{tmnaj} = \ln(1 + t_{j\text{MENA}}^C) * \text{MNA}$  and  $\text{tmnna} = \ln(1 + t_{j\text{MENA}}^C) * (1 - \text{MNA})$

The estimated equation for imports is equation 6.b where the variable  $\text{tarif} = \ln(1 + t_{\text{MENA}i}^C)$  is substituted by the variables :  $\text{tmnai} = \ln(1 + t_{\text{MENA}i}^C) * \text{MNA}$  and  $\text{tmnna} = \ln(1 + t_{\text{MENA}i}^C) * (1 - \text{MNA})$

Going further (models 8,9 and 10), we investigate the existence of asymmetries in the behaviour of MENA countries relative to the EU and AC countries. Three regional

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<sup>17</sup> Blonigen and Wilson (1999), Head and Mayer (2000), Anderton (1999), Ioannidis and Shreyer (1997) obtain elasticities close to the unit.

dummies are interacted with the tariff. Here, tariffs are also included in the analysis since they give an information about the general behaviour of the remaining countries of the sample (i.e. OECD and Asian countries).

The estimated equation for exports is equation 6.a with the following additional variables :

$$tmnaj = \ln(1 + t_{jMENA}^c) * MNA, \quad tacj = \ln(1 + t_{jMENA}^c) * AC \quad \text{and}$$

$$tuej = \ln(1 + t_{jMENA}^c) * EU$$

The estimated equation for imports is equation 6.b with the following additional variables :

$$tmnai = \ln(1 + t_{MENAi}^c) * MNA, \quad taci = \ln(1 + t_{MENAi}^c) * AC \quad \text{and}$$

$$teui = \ln(1 + t_{MENAi}^c) * EU$$

#### 4.2.1 What is the potential for expanding exports to the EU?

Results for exports are displayed in Table 3. Gravity variables estimates remain unchanged in terms of sign and significance.

Testing for potential specificity of exports towards other MENA countries in relations to others partners (models 7 and 11) show that tariffs of others MENA countries are not a significant barriers to trade while MENA exports to others market are much significantly more sensitive to tariff than in general (model 6). Results from the more disaggregated data (table 5) reinforce this conclusion since coefficient for tariffs is -0.6 when all partners are considered and only -0.2 when MENA partners are considered. So, results suggest that a removal of trade policy instruments will not be a sufficient condition to promote intraMENA trade while some additional preferences in access to others markets could have a bigger impact on MENA exports.

Models 8,9 and 10 fail to offer some evidence against or for a specificity of MENA exports to the EU (*tuej* is not significant in any models suggesting that MENA exports do not exhibit an specific sensibility to EU tariffs (which are already low)). Although, in the most desegregated model run for exports to the EU coefficients for tariffs is larger than for the average of the sample and larger than for others MENA. Finally, the sensibility of MENA exports to AC tariffs is high and negative suggesting that it exists a great potential for expanding MENA exports towards the new members of the EU.

#### 4.2.2 Are MENA imports from others MENA and the EU specific?

Results for imports are displayed in Table 4. Gravity variables estimates remain unchanged in terms of sign and significance.

Testing for potential specificity of imports from other MENA countries in relation to others partners (models 7 and 11) show that tariffs imposed to MENA countries are a more significant barriers to trade than for others countries and imports from EU (according to more disaggregated levels) are also more sensitive to MENA tariffs than the remainers.

These results are apparently in contradiction to those obtained for exports since we founded that tariffs do not seem to be a significant barriers for exports to other MENA countries compared to others partners. As mentioned before our estimation for exports are biased towards MENA countries since we don't take into account others regions exports towards EU, OECD, Asia and AC like EU imports from AC countries for instance. So we are estimating a potential for MENA exports others things being equal elsewhere. In this context, MENA exports would be more sensible to a diminution of tariff in other markets since the potential demand in these destinations are greater than in others MENA countries. But when estimating a more complete model for MENA imports demand, we observe that sensibility to tariff granted to others MENA

countries is higher and in most cases significant than those of others partners. Although MENA imports are also especially sensitive from the EU members.

## 5 Concluding remarks

This exercise shows that specialisation seems to play an important role in explaining MENA exports. The elasticity in relation to the customs duty is higher for imports than for exports what may be due to the fact that MENA countries duties are higher than the ones they are granted in others markets. Elasticity of imports and exports to tariffs are rather high and thus in harmony with the theoretical forecasts since we are dealing with countries which can be regarded as "price-takers" towards a "large importer". They confirm that the price measurement (here we directly take into account tariff) make it possible to improve elasticity estimates.

The estimation of a gravity model for imports and exports of MENA countries that takes into account tariff show that the impact of protection on MENA trade is rather high. In a second part we tried to determine whether this is a general feature towards all the MENA trade partners of the sample, or whether imports demand is more sensitive to tariffs depending on the partner. That is, we seek to verify the Armington hypothesis of imperfect substitute of imports by origin. Results show that some heterogeneity may occur. A specific and high impact of EU tariffs on MENA exports or of MENA tariffs on imports from the EU appear in disaggregated estimations. Flows between MENA and AC countries exhibit a more specific sensibility to custom duty. Finally, results about intraMENA trade show that tariffs are not the main impediments when comparing MENA markets and others markets as a possible destinations for MENA exports but a reduction of MENA tariffs will increase more trade from MENA countries than the average.

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## 7 Appendix

**Table 1: Total exports of MNA countries (i)**

Model :	1	2	3	4	5	6
Depvar:	X	X	X	X	X	X
intcpt	-1.926 (-0.77)	-3.413 (-1.33)	-1.408 (-0.56)	-2.445 (-0.89)	-18.620* (-1.84)	-14.606*** (-3.70)
gdpi	1.396*** (7.62)	1.028*** (4.26)	1.381*** (7.54)	1.124*** (4.29)	2.221*** (5.85)	2.073*** (7.88)
gdpj	1.093*** (13.41)	1.169*** (10.11)	1.073*** (12.97)	1.089*** (7.62)	1.048*** (7.98)	1.082*** (14.57)
contig	-0.326 (-0.38)	-0.102 (-0.12)	-0.337 (-0.40)	-0.192 (-0.23)	-0.691 (-0.88)	-0.636 (-0.83)
comlan	0.647* (1.84)	0.498 (1.42)	0.726** (2.04)	0.560 (1.57)	1.109*** (3.22)	1.066*** (3.19)
colony	0.965 (1.52)	1.131* (1.81)	1.064* (1.67)	1.176* (1.88)	0.925 (1.60)	0.941 (1.64)
smctry	1.544 (0.74)	1.690 (0.82)	1.928 (0.91)	2.017 (0.97)	3.051 (1.58)	3.044 (1.59)
ldist	-1.194*** (-7.04)	-1.172*** (-7.00)	-1.191*** (-7.04)	-1.182*** (-7.05)	-1.207*** (-7.80)	-1.210*** (-7.97)
gdppci		0.446*** (3.14)		0.440*** (3.09)	0.402 (0.46)	
gdppcj		0.123 (0.91)		0.022 (0.13)	-0.046 (-0.29)	
tarif			-2.268 (-1.38)	-1.957 (-0.95)	-3.199** (-1.69)	-2.822** (-1.91)
pxcons					0.083*** (5.27)	0.079*** (5.91)
pxcapi					0.093 (1.30)	0.125*** (5.43)
pxprim					0.139*** (3.78)	0.133*** (3.90)
# obs :	238	238	238	238	238	238
R-sq	0.531	0.552	0.535	0.553	0.631	0.63

Standard errors between brackets. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level respectively

**Table2: Total imports of MNA countries (j)**

Model :	1	2	3	4	5	6
Depvar:	M	M	M	M	M	M
intcpt	0.711 (0.48)	0.384 (0.24)	1.393 (0.90)	1.555 (0.89)	-3.30 (-1.29)	-2.431 (-1.03)
gdpi	1.003*** (20.85)	0.967*** (8.95)	0.992*** (20.45)	1.053*** (8.66)	1.824** (2.05)	0.975*** (20.02)
gdpj	1.043*** (9.39)	1.050*** (8.77)	0.990*** (8.47)	0.939*** (6.71)	1.258*** (3.94)	1.459*** (6.25)
contig	-0.387 (-0.73)	-0.337 (-0.63)	-0.449 (-0.85)	-0.463 (-0.85)	-0.542 (-1.01)	-0.501 (-0.95)
comlan	0.274 (1.26)	0.266 (1.21)	0.296 (1.36)	0.321 (1.45)	0.175 (0.76)	0.198 (0.86)
colony	0.714* (1.81)	0.740* (1.86)	0.745* (1.89)	0.751* (1.90)	0.855** (2.15)	0.836** (2.11)
smctry	1.427 (1.09)	1.453 (1.10)	1.506 (1.15)	1.585 (1.20)	1.907 (1.44)	1.875 (1.42)
ldist	-0.776*** (-7.60)	-0.767*** (-7.42)	-0.750*** (-7.25)	-0.739*** (-7.06)	-0.694*** (-6.45)	-0.719*** (-6.95)
gdppci		0.051 (0.61)		0.032 (0.38)	-0.028 (-0.32)	
gdppcj		0.016 (0.18)		-0.074 (-0.68)	-0.849 (-0.95)	
tarif			-0.909 (-1.44)	-1.161 (-1.52)	-4.472*** (-2.61)	-3.315*** (-2.77)
pmcons					0.275 (1.41)	0.095* (1.87)
pmcapi					-0.326** (-2.11)	-0.202** (-2.41)
pmprim					0.099 (0.93)	0.170** (2.33)
# obs :	252	252	252	252	252	252
R-sq	0.697	0.697	0.699	0.700	0.709	0.708

Standard errors between brackets. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level respectively

**Table 3: Total exports of MNA countries (i)**

Model :	6	7	8	9	10	11
Depvar:	X	X	X	X	X	X
intcpt	-14.606*** (-3.70)	-14.257*** (-3.62)	-14.131*** (-3.53)	-11.192*** (-2.61)	-1.472 (-0.57)	-1.635 (-0.65)
gdpi	2.073*** (7.88)	2.027*** (7.68)	2.025*** (7.65)	2.005*** (7.61)	1.359*** (7.43)	1.360*** (7.46)
gdpij	1.082*** (14.57)	1.083*** (14.62)	1.090*** (12.92)	1.049*** (12.08)	1.086*** (11.64)	1.073*** (13.06)
contig	-0.636 (-0.83)	-0.581 (-0.76)	-0.613 (-0.78)	-1.074 (-1.31)	-0.332 (-0.38)	-0.275 (-0.33)
comlan	1.066*** (3.19)	0.874** (2.46)	0.870** (2.44)	0.865** (2.43)	0.464 (1.23)	0.471 (1.25)
colony	0.941 (1.64)	0.855 (1.49)	0.856 (1.48)	0.831 (1.45)	0.938 (1.47)	0.935 (1.47)
smctry	3.044 (1.59)	2.815 (1.47)	2.836 (1.48)	2.885 (1.51)	1.646 (0.78)	1.616 (0.77)
ldist	-1.210*** (-7.97)	-1.149*** (-7.34)	-1.166*** (-6.40)	-1.412*** (-6.30)	-1.134*** (-5.62)	-1.104*** (-6.35)
pxcons	0.079*** (5.91)	0.077*** (5.72)	0.077*** (5.70)	0.076*** (5.63)		
pxcapi	0.125*** (5.43)	0.122*** (5.30)	0.121*** (5.25)	0.121*** (5.27)		
pxprim	0.133*** (3.90)	0.128*** (3.76)	0.127*** (3.72)	0.126*** (3.69)		
tarif	-2.822** (-1.91)		-6.488** (-2.21)	-3.296 (-0.97)	-7.584** (-2.33)	
tmnaj		-1.797 (-1.11)	4.588 (1.55)	0.495 (0.13)	6.575** (2.01)	-0.829 (-0.46)
tnmnaj		-6.260** (-2.35)				-7.190** (-2.43)
tuej			-2.633 (-0.19)	-15.365 (-0.98)	-4.613 (-0.29)	
tacj				-9.682* (-1.87)		
# obs :	238	238	238	238	238	238
R-sq	0.63	0.634	0.634	0.64	0.543	0.543

Standard errors between brackets. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level respectively

**Table 4: Total imports of MNA countries (i)**

Model :	6	7	8	9	10	11
Depvar:	M	M	M	M	M	M
intcpt	-2.431 (-1.03)	-1.849 (-0.78)	-1.694 (-0.71)	-0.434 (-0.18)	1.426 (0.91)	1.689 (1.09)
gdpi	0.975*** (20.02)	0.970*** (19.95)	0.960*** (18.17)	0.914*** (16.11)	0.958*** (18.08)	0.985*** (20.34)
gdpij	1.459*** (6.25)	1.436*** (6.16)	1.410*** (5.88)	1.486*** (6.18)	0.995*** (8.57)	0.994*** (8.56)
contig	-0.501 (-0.95)	-0.505 (-0.96)	-0.454 (-0.84)	-0.766 (-1.38)	-0.350 (-0.66)	-0.454 (-0.86)
comlan	0.198 (0.86)	0.342 (1.41)	0.350 (1.44)	0.275 (1.13)	0.425** (1.86)	0.437 (1.92)
colony	0.836** (2.11)	0.917** (2.31)	0.899** (2.25)	0.918** (2.31)	0.836** (2.12)	0.851** (2.15)
smctry	1.875 (1.42)	2.167 (1.64)	2.118 (1.59)	2.257 (1.71)	1.849 (1.41)	1.868 (1.42)
ldist	-0.719*** (-6.95)	-0.755*** (-7.19)	-0.729*** (-6.17)	-0.919*** (-6.26)	-0.719*** (-6.07)	-0.787*** (-7.52)
pmcons	0.095* (1.87)	0.085* (1.67)	0.077 (1.43)	0.10 (1.83)		
pmcapi	-0.202** (-2.41)	-0.189** (-2.25)	-0.176** (-1.99)	-0.207** (-2.33)		
pmprim	0.170** (2.33)	0.155** (2.13)	0.140* (1.75)	0.171* (2.12)		
tarif	-3.315*** (-2.77)		-2.748** (-2.21)	-1.761 (-1.34)	-0.869 (-1.28)	
tmnai		-4.831*** (-3.28)	-1.839 (-1.59)	-3.426** (-2.51)	-1.793 (-1.55)	-2.777** (-2.40)
tnmnai		-2.863** (-2.35)				-0.616 (-0.95)
tuei			0.471 (0.47)	-1.148 (-0.92)	1.113 (1.22)	
taci				-2.486** (-2.15)		
# obs :	252	252	252	252	252	252
R-sq	0.708	0.712	0.712	0.717	0.706	0.704

Standard errors between brackets. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level respectively

**Table 5: Estimations at the HS4 level**

Model 6 at the HS\$ level:

	Depvar:	X	X	X or M	M	M
	Sample:	All partners	To the EU	Intra MENA	All partners	from EU
IGDP_i		0,603*** (0,023)	0,688*** (0,074)	0,456*** (0,129)	0,471*** (0,007)	0,637*** (0,035)
IGDP_j		0,381*** (0,009)	0,573*** (0,051)	0,413*** (0,088)	0,437*** (0,014)	0,584*** (0,042)
contig		-0,567*** (0,078)	- (0)	-0,884*** (0,185)	-0,632*** (0,072)	- (0)
comlang_off		0,624*** (0,051)	1,105*** (0,23)	-0,278* (0,168)	0,139*** (0,036)	0,124*** (0,11)
colony		0,28*** (0,066)	-0,818*** (0,245)	-0,069 (0,1)	0,038 (0,051)	-0,285*** (0,121)
comcol		0,321*** (0,088)	- (0)	1,055*** (0,219)	0,555*** (0,074)	- (0)
col45		-0,271*** (0,104)	- (0)	- (0)	0,442*** (0,072)	- (0)
smctry		0,1 (0,308)	- (0)	0,349 (0,308)	0,396 (0,286)	- (0)
ldist		-0,528*** (0,02)	0,07 (0,27)	-0,176 (0,136)	-0,396*** (0,013)	0,392** (0,158)
ltarif		-0,613*** (0,106)	-1,981** (0,686)	-0,295** (0,133)	-0,24*** (0,044)	-0,652*** (0,149)
Dummies by sector (Nace clio r25):						
Food, Beverages, tobacco		-1,198*** (0,098)	-0,532 (0,338)	-0,622** (0,247)	0,346*** (0,072)	0,428* (0,223)
Agricultural, forestry and fishery		-0,945*** (0,103)	-0,494 (0,345)	-0,399 (0,278)	0,361*** (0,083)	0,058 (0,265)
Fuel and power		- (0)	- (0)	- (0)	- (0)	- (0)
Ferrous and non-ferrous ores and metal		-0,987*** (0,106)	-0,728** (0,367)	-0,431* (0,255)	0,483*** (0,073)	0,153 (0,22)
Non-metallic minerals and minerals		-1,777*** (0,104)	-1,363*** (0,356)	-1,126*** (0,261)	-0,011 (0,074)	-0,41* (0,229)
Chemical products		-1,249*** (0,095)	-0,908*** (0,333)	-0,969*** (0,229)	0,553*** (0,067)	0,428** (0,207)
Rubber and plastic products		-1,005*** (0,108)	-0,142 (0,377)	-0,984*** (0,259)	0,721*** (0,076)	0,593** (0,236)
Metal		-1,901*** (0,1)	-1,331*** (0,343)	-1,662*** (0,244)	0,108*** (0,071)	-0,125 (0,218)
Agricultural and industrial machines		-1,4*** (0,097)	-0,899*** (0,332)	-0,985*** (0,233)	1,145*** (0,068)	1,246*** (0,209)
Office and data processing machines		-1,317*** (0,1)	-0,684*** (0,343)	-1,865*** (0,256)	0,924*** (0,07)	1,291*** (0,215)
Electrical goods		-1,102*** (0,109)	-0,205 (0,373)	-0,999*** (0,275)	1,178*** (0,076)	1,378*** (0,232)
Transport Equipment		-0,508*** (0,128)	-0,034 (0,417)	-0,046 (0,31)	1,408*** (0,083)	1,231*** (0,252)
Textiles and clothing		-0,833*** (0,092)	0,306*** (0,316)	-0,951*** (0,231)	0,301*** (0,068)	-0,065 (0,211)
Paper and printing products		-1,899*** (0,113)	-1,219*** (0,385)	-1,31*** (0,262)	0,509*** (0,076)	0,747** (0,228)
Others manufactured products		-2,349*** (0,104)	-1,726*** (0,356)	-2,116*** (0,253)	-0,146*** (0,072)	-0,463** (0,225)
Intercept		4,531*** (0,307)	-4,418*** -2,427	3,38 -2,813	2,812*** (0,189)	-7,428*** -1,527
# obs :		35427	3269	4326	66892	7271
R-sq		0,0908	0,1177	0,0795	0,1154	0,1405



## Chapter 2.

*Measuring monetary and exchange-rate  
policy heterogeneities and their impact  
on trade, FDI, and business cycles*





PART 1.

# Exchange-Rate Policies and Trade in the MENA countries

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## 1 Introduction

The neighbours of the European Union (EU) display very contrasted features. On the one hand, the New European Member (NEM), and mostly the Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries, have been through a very deep and rapid integration with the EU, thanks to the adhesion process that began in the 90s. Trade integration is high, though asymmetric (the EU is the main partner of the NEM, while the reverse is of course not true), as is financial integration, and monetary integration is the next step of the EU enlargement process.

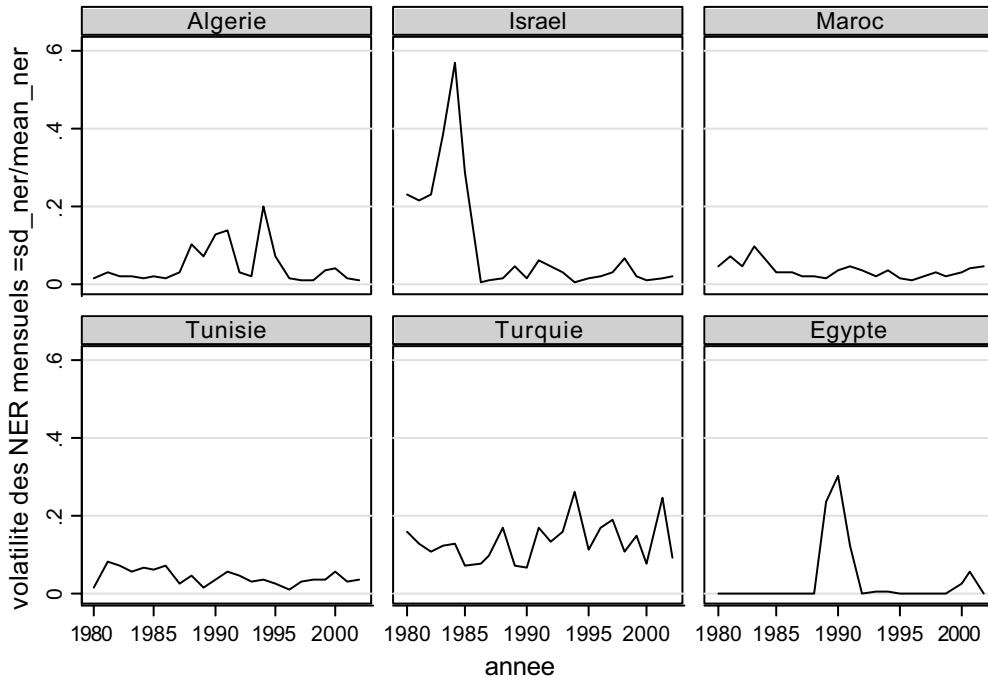
On the other hand, the Southern frontier of the EU15 appears very heterogeneous and fragmented, despite more than 10 years of preferential relationship (the Barcelona agreements). Trade is not similarly EU-oriented, trade and financial barriers are still high to some extent, and despite the proximity of the Middle-East and North African (MENA) countries to the European Union, there seems to be no sign of significant monetary integration within the Mediterranean basin. Indeed, and for instance, Jordan is *de facto* pegged to the USD, Morocco and Tunisia operate under managed float, Algeria has a *de jure* free floating regime, just as Egypt (which had a fixed peg to the dollar until 2003). As a consequence, monetary regimes are very different and bilateral exchange rates quite volatile, as shown in the following graphs, displaying the historical nominal volatility (defined as a coefficient of variation) of MENA currencies against the USD and the euro, proxied by the German currency.

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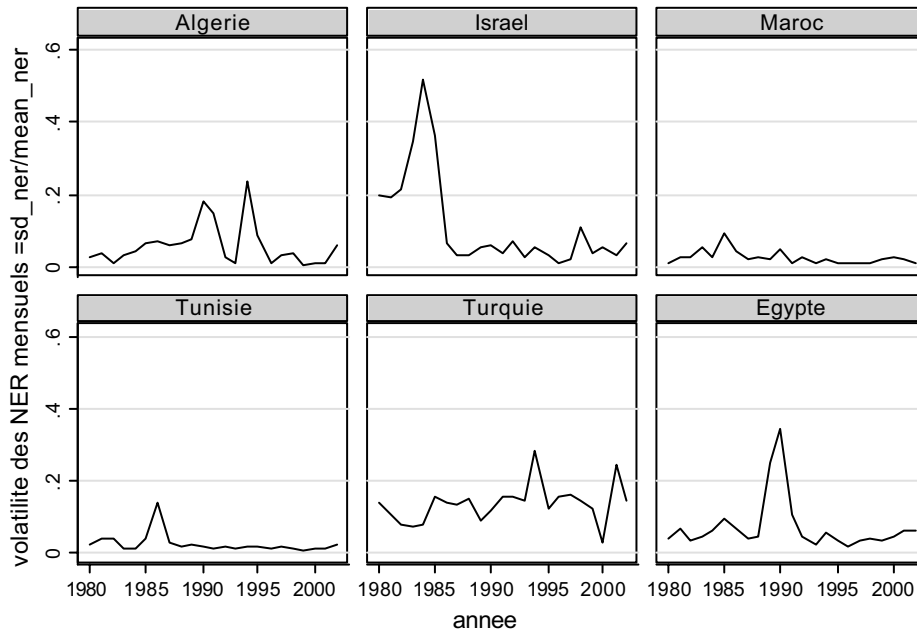
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Nominal exchange rate volatility against the USD



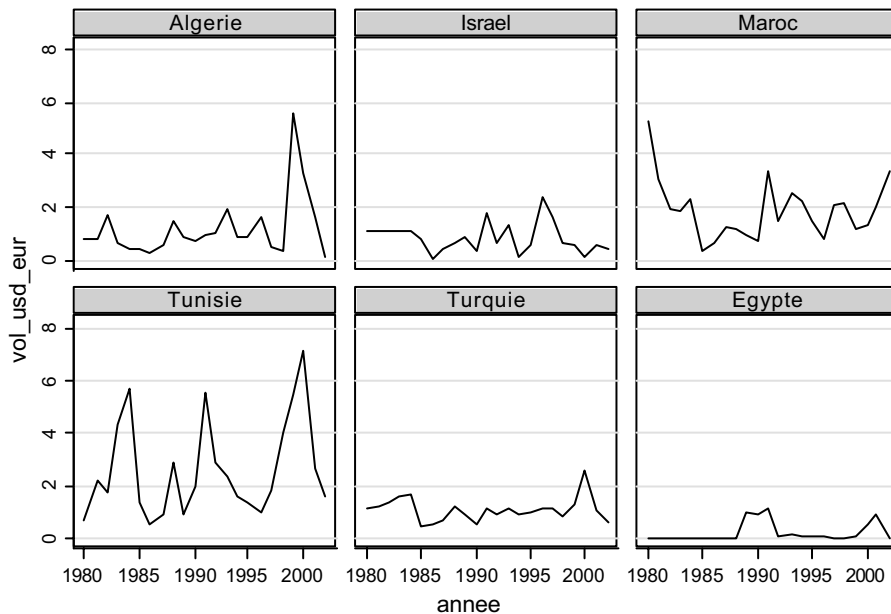
Nominal exchange rate volatility against Germany, taken as a proxy for the euro



Graphs by exportateur CHELEM chiffres num

Moreover, pegging regimes can be quite unstable in MENA countries, as shown by the relative volatility of MENA countries currencies against the USD and against the euro. While Turkey and Egypt, together with Israel, tend exhibit long-lasting lower volatility against the USD than against the “euro”, the same is not true for Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia, who exhibit much more volatile apparent pegging, a more euro-oriented pegging in the case of Morocco.

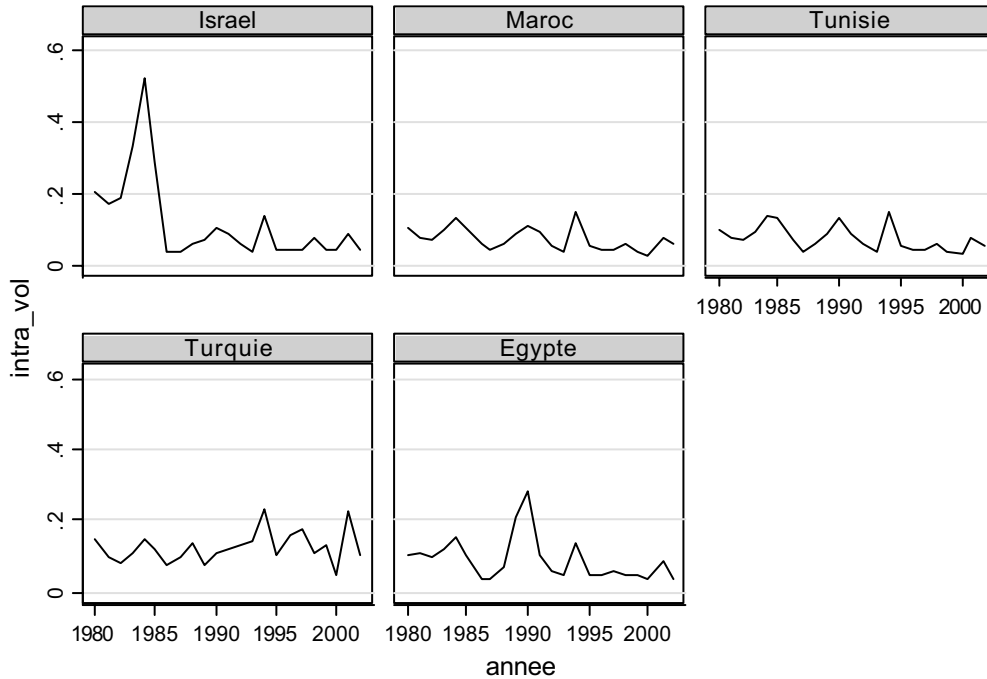
Relative volatility against the USD and the euro, 1980-2001



Graphs by exportateur CHELEM chiffres num

Finally, as far as intra-MENA monetary integration is concerned, the most striking feature is the high volatility of nominal exchange rates within the area. As shown in the following graphs, average intra-MENA volatility is much higher on average than the volatility of these countries' currencies against the euro or the USD.

**Intra-MENA average volatility of nominal exchange rates, 1980-2001**



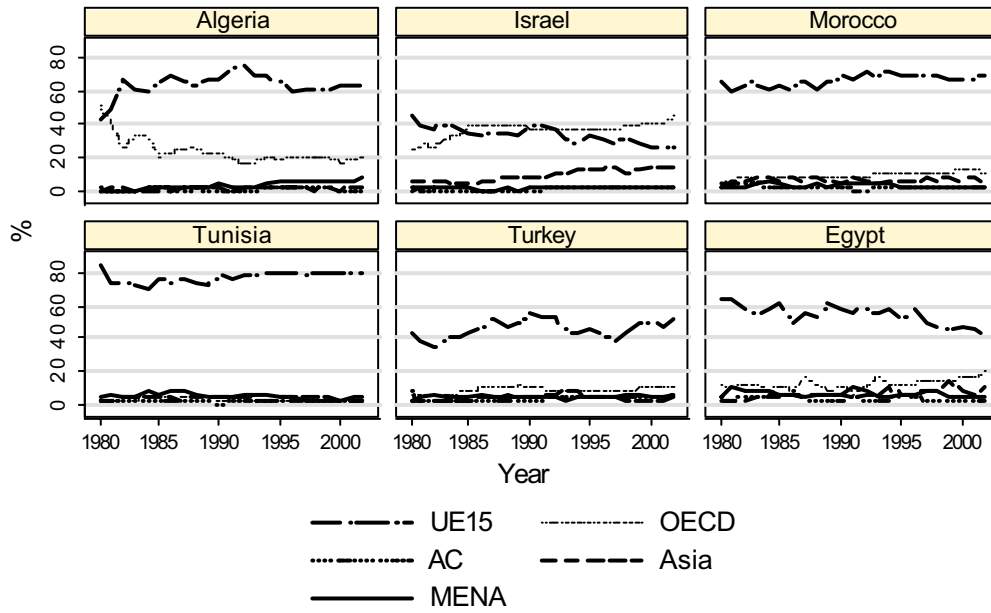
Graphs by exportateur CHELEM chiffres num

**Algeria**



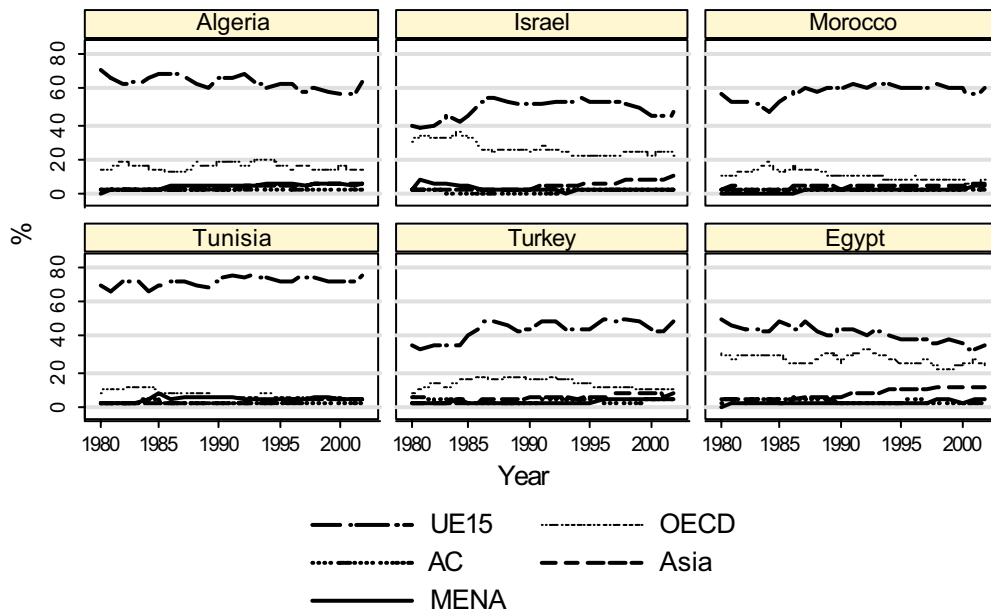
This situation might be seen as worrying for the MENA countries. Indeed, international trade is getting increasingly regional. As shown in the following graphs and tables, more than half of MENA trade takes place with the EU (these stylized facts are more accentuated for Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria while Israel, Egypt and Turkey have more diversified partners). Thus, EU can be reasonably seen as a natural trade partner for the countries of the region. The potential endogeneity of optimal currency areas, pointed out by Frankel and Rose (1997), would suggest that trade and monetary integration deepen together, and in this prospect the lack of monetary integration within the area can be seen as an impediment to further trade integration. Moreover, the lack of monetary stability in the Euro-med area might also hinder further integration between MENA countries.

### Share in MENA exports (%)



Graphs by MENA country

### Share in MENA imports (%)



Graphs by MENA country

**Imports and exports of MENA countries by regions: 1980-2002**

		Share in imports (%)					Share in exports (%)				
		AC	Asia	MENA	OECD	UE15	AC	Asia	MENA	OECD	UE15
1980	Algeria	1,8	1,0	0,6	13,2	70,8	0,9	0,1	0,0	51,1	42,3
2002	Algeria	1,6	5,7	5,3	14,0	64,4	0,5	1,9	7,3	19,5	62,3
1980	Israel	1,6	1,1	2,5	29,2	38,5	0,8	6,5	0,5	23,7	44,2
2002	Israel	1,2	9,1	2,6	22,1	47,1	1,3	13,5	1,3	44,4	26,0
1980	Morocco	1,7	2,2	0,2	9,1	57,6	4,5	2,8	1,9	4,6	65,3
2002	Morocco	1,5	5,8	3,3	7,3	60,4	1,6	6,2	1,7	10,3	70,4
1980	Tunisia	1,7	0,9	1,3	8,2	70,5	0,7	1,4	3,2	2,8	83,2
2002	Tunisia	1,0	3,4	3,1	3,7	75,8	1,2	1,7	2,8	1,8	78,9
1980	Turkey	5,4	0,8	1,1	7,7	35,6	6,8	1,5	1,6	6,0	42,9
2002	Turkey	4,6	8,1	3,4	9,1	48,9	5,3	3,0	5,3	10,3	51,4
1980	Egypt	2,3	3,4	0,3	30,1	50,4	2,9	2,2	3,7	10,9	63,3
2002	Egypt	2,3	11,7	3,2	23,5	35,1	0,8	9,3	3,4	19,9	40,7

Such policy conclusions however need to be backed by empirical analysis. More precisely, they depend on the fact that trade flows indeed depend on the behaviour of monetary variables. There is little debate about trade flows being determined by the behaviour of real exchange rates: even when market structures are taken into account (for instance when they give rise to pricing to market strategies) an appreciation in the real exchange rate leads to a worsening of the competitive position of the economy, and consequently to a rise in imports, and a fall in exports. This fact is now well documented, and is robust to the use of alternative measurement strategies (macro-economic equations for exports and imports, gravity equations, more micro-economic analysis), even if aggregate demand and supply elasticities also depend on the structure of specialisation in each country. The impact of exchange rate volatility on trade is more controversial, both in theory and empirical analysis. In theory, an increase in exchange rate volatility could either increase or decrease trade, depending on the risk aversion of firms or on the shape of the production functions. Looking at empirical analysis suggests that the measured effects of exchange-rate volatility on trade can be either very low and little significant or significantly negative, though minor in magnitude.

In this paper, we try to evaluate the impact of exchange-rate behaviour on trade. The main focus is on the MENA countries, but the analysis draws on a larger sample, in order both to ensure the robustness of the empirical results, and to test for potential asymmetries between the MENA countries and the rest of the world.

The analysis rests on the estimation of a gravity equation for both exports and imports, for a set of 47 countries, during the 1980s throughout to 2003. Therefore, the analysis offers both a cross-sectional and time dimension, and is run using panel data tools.

Section 1 presents the empirical model and the data. The estimates are displayed and analysed in Section 2, and Section 3 provides some tentative conclusions and possible developments for this analysis.

## 2 Empirical model and data

### 2.1 *Deriving the desirability of an exchange-rate regime from trade equations*

The most popular analysis of the choice of an exchange-rate regime is the theory of optimum currency areas (OCA thereafter). According to this theory, first developed by Mundell (1961), the desirability of sharing the same currency increases with bilateral openness and labour market flexibility; the centralisation of fiscal policy (the so-called

fiscal federalism) can be a substitute for these conditions. Following the seminal paper by Mundell, a number of other criteria have been put forward, like the degree of structural similarity, which affects ex-ante the probability that countries experience asymmetric shocks (McKinnon, 1963; Kenen, 1969).

The construction of currency unions is a quite infrequent phenomenon. Still, the OCA theory has been used not only to investigate the potential of the EU12 to be an optimum currency area, but also to gauge the potential anchoring strategies of countries, including emerging countries.

This area of studies was launched by Bayoumi and Eichengreen (1996, 1997, 1998), working on the optimal anchoring policy for Asian or EU countries, and a number of work has followed, including Bénassy (1997), or Bénassy and Lahrière-Révil (1999, 2002), about the Central and Eastern European (CEE) or the MENA countries.

The issue in these studies is to explain nominal exchange rate volatility by a number of macro-economic determinants (such as the relative size of countries, their bilateral openness and so on), in order to identify the potential anchor currency. The main drawback of such an approach is that it ignores the potential endogeneity of OCA, i.e. the fact that stabilising the nominal exchange rate between two countries creates the conditions for more trade, and therefore more desirable exchange-rate anchoring ex-post than it was ex-ante (Frankel and Rose, 1998).

Therefore, the responsiveness of trade flows to exchange rate changes is a major and prior issue for any further investigation about the desirability of pegging or floating. This was the intuition of Rose (1999), who renewed the literature on exchange-rate regimes and trade. Looking at the impact of currency unions on trade, Rose indeed showed that currency unions cannot be identified to zero-volatility in exchange rates, but introduced more radical changes and could lead to sizeable trade increases: according to its estimates, the increase in trade could be 300% - a figure that could not be significantly lowered in further research.

Turning to MENA countries, existing research (Benassy-Quéré and al., 2002) founded on the OCA theory shows that these countries would have an advantage if they pegged more to the euro than to the dollar. This was shown to be true both for nominal and real pegging strategies (i.e. focusing on competitiveness), although the MENA countries were found to be highly heterogeneous, and the structure of the optimal pegging basket did not suggest 100% anchoring to the euro.

Given the existing literature, one could expect that the heterogeneity in MENA currencies *de facto* and *de jure* pegging strategies, because it leads to intra-MENA exchange-rate volatility, is an impediment to real integration within the region. However, the recent experience of NMS, and the older one of Asia countries, suggests that monetary and financial integration within emerging areas does not necessarily stem from intra-regional integration, but can be led by a common integration to a third region. Asia is a well known example, where common pegs to the dollar have led to real (through trade) and financial (through common pegs) integration. Asia also brightly showed that common and un-coordinated anchoring could be fragile, because increasing integration makes uncoordination of monetary policies unsustainable (Mundell's holy trinity). The NMS offer an alternative example, where common anchorage to the euro leads regional integration, and is made more sustainable through the commitment to enter the euro zone.

In this paper, the potential for further monetary integration within the MENA area is investigated using the methodology developed by Rose. More precisely, the sensitiveness of trade to exchange-rate regimes – defined in a *de facto* way by the level and the volatility of the exchange rate - is explored for a large sample, that includes the MENA countries. We first gauge the situation of MENA countries with respect to other

emerging countries. We also characterize intra-MENA trade with respect to MENA trade with other countries, and compare it with the situation in other countries – especially NMS. Gains from anchoring are assumed to be larger when the elasticity of trade to exchange rate volatility is higher, and this assumption allows to investigate the potential gains of further intra-regional integration, depending on whether this integration is limited to the region or lead by increased integration with the euro area.

## 2.2 The empirical model

Here, we use a gravity setting to investigate the impact of monetary integration on trade flows. The use of the gravitational equation is now well established in trade issues, both for theoretical reasons (this equation proves to be consistent with most existing theoretical models of international trade) and empirical reasons (it has a very good and robust explanatory power for trade flows). Moreover, it allows for a bilateral analysis, which is of particular interest as the regional dimension of trade become a striking feature of international trade flows.

The impact of real exchange-rate changes on trade is now being quite well identified: a real appreciation usually has a deleterious impact on exports through a demand effect (lower competitiveness) or a supply effect (higher profitability of the traded goods sector compared to the non-traded goods sector).

The link between exchange-rate volatility and trade flows is less clear. According to McKenzie (1999), the elasticity of trade flows to exchange-rate volatility can be either positive or negative, and the results depend on the precise measure of volatility, on the estimation technique and on the sectors and countries concerned. Moreover, the impact of exchange-rate volatility might differ according to the countries under study: Sauer and Bohara (2001) show that exchange-rate volatility has a negative impact on African and Latin American exports, a non-significant impact on Asian exports and on developed countries exports. The gravitational analysis of trade flows has renewed the literature however. Frankel and Wei (1995, 1996) evidence a significant negative impact of exchange-rate volatility on trade flows across Asian countries on a cross-section basis, a result found to be strongly robust by Rose (2000), who finds exchange-rate volatility to be a significant and systematic impediment to trade for an extensive sample of countries.

The typical gravitational equation links trade (defined either as total trade, imports or exports) to the product of country sizes, impediments to trade, and a set of bilateral variables. In its theoretical expression, it has the following traditional form

$$X_{ij} = Y_i^\alpha Y_j^\beta D_{ij}^\gamma \delta_{ij}^\eta Z_{ij}, \text{ with } \alpha, \beta > 0, \gamma < 0 \text{ and } \eta > 0 \quad (1)$$

where  $X_{ij}$  stands for exports from country  $i$  to country  $j$ ,  $Y_i$  refers to the economic size of country  $i$  (usually GDP when the sectoral dimension of production is not taken into account),  $D_{ij}$  is the distance between countries,  $\delta_{ij}$  is a dummy for common borders<sup>3</sup> and  $Z_{ij}$  is a vector of bilateral variables which frequently includes a dummy for the use of a common language, and can also include exchange-rate variables, as in Rose (2000). While gravity models are often estimated on a cross-country basis, panel data analysis is being more and more common (See Frankel, 1997, or Egger and Pfaffermayr, 2003), as it allows for the inclusion of relevant, time-varying variables, such as exchange rates.

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<sup>3</sup> Notice that  $\delta$  could also be defined more generally as a vector including a number of geographical and historical variables explaining the pattern of trade (for instance, the presence of a common colonizing country, the presence of a similar official language, etc.).



This paper focuses on the impact of exchange-rate variables on trade flows, and consequently does not seek to improve or refine the underlying gravity framework. This is the reason why the baseline equation used in this paper is the most standard one, including both the bilateral and time dimensions, as follows:

$$\ln X_{ijt} = \beta + \alpha_1 \ln GDP_{it} + \alpha_2 \ln GDP_{jt} + \alpha_3 \ln DIST_{ij} + \alpha_4 \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_6 VOL_{ijt} + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \quad (2)$$

The dependent variable is the volume of exports in constant dollars (trade data from the CHELEM-CEPII database, price indexes from the World bank and the IMF).

GDP is the PPP-converted GDP for either country i or j (in volume, World Bank data). The gravitational variables are summarised in DIST and GRAVITY. DIST is the geodesic distance between i and j. GRAVITY is a vector of variables relating to gravitation, which includes variables such as dummies for common languages or borders, a common coloniser, and so on. These data are taken from the CEPII website.<sup>4</sup>

RER is the RER, computed using CPI and defined as the relative price of j to i (an increase therefore signals a real depreciation of the currency of country i),

VOL is a measure of volatility. This measure is one of the less obvious to build, as can be seen from the large number of volatility proxies that are available for the exchange rate.

First of all, a large part of the financial literature highlights the fact that, as long as agents are information-seeking, only the unexpected part of exchange-rate volatility can have potential consequences on economic decisions. This is the reason why this literature has developed econometric models of the exchange-rate volatility (see e.g. ARCH models – and their various derivatives – for exchange rate series) aiming at extracting information from volatility series, and therefore allowing build unexpected volatility series.

In the longer run, exchange-rate are often described as following a random walk, and their standard deviation (or their coefficient of variation) is often enough to describe their volatility. While this might be true for nominal exchange rates, it is less relevant for real exchange rates, that are driven by fundamentals. In order to correctly measure their volatility, de-meaning is usually necessary, and a better measure of volatility is therefore the standard deviation of the rate of change of exchange-rate series.

A first technical choice is therefore related to the choice of the volatility indicator. While working on short-run data would call for the use of ARCH models, usually ARCH effects are shown to be less prevalent in the longer run (from the quarter to the year). Standard deviations of exchange rates in levels or log-differences are therefore preferred here.

A second choice is between the use of nominal and real exchange rates. While in the short run price stickiness ensures that nominal and real exchange rates are empirically highly correlated, this is less and less true as the long run is considered.<sup>5</sup> In order to test of the relative relevance of these indicators, the following various definitions of exchange-rate volatility are used alternatively :

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<sup>4</sup> Available at <http://www.cepii.fr/anglaisgraph/bdd/distances.htm>.

<sup>5</sup> Notice that real exchange rates in levels are sometimes identified as a measure of long-run volatility (Sapir et al., 1994). This is not however the interpretation that is given to this variable.

**Various measures of exchange-rate volatility**

Code	Definition
sd_rer	Standard-deviation of monthly real exchange rate in year t
sd_ner	Standard-deviation of monthly nominal exchange rate in year t
mean_rer	Mean of monthly real exchange rate in year t
mean_ner	Mean of monthly nominal exchange rate in year t
vol_rer	Real exchange rate monthly volatility (sd_rer / mean_rer)
vol_ner	Nominal exchange rate monthly volatility (sd_ner / mean_ner)
sd_growth_rer	Standard deviation of monthly real exchange rate changes in year t
sd_growth_ner	Standard deviation of monthly nominal exchange rate changes in year t

The sample includes 47 countries, of which all the countries of the EU15 and the CEE new European members, and 6 MENA countries (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Turkey, Israel, Algeria). The time sample spans from 1980 to 2003. Hence, the total possible number of observations is 49,726. Due to missing data, the available number of observations is reduced to 34,457.

Because the data are pooled over the cross-country and time dimension, the equation is estimated using the panel within estimator, which implies the use of individual and time fixed effects. Here, the fixed effects are included for country  $i$ , country  $j$  and time ( $\beta_i$ ,  $\beta_j$  and  $\beta_t$ ), the pure bilateral dimension  $ij$  being caught by the distance variable. Additional fixed effects are also introduced to control for regional features of the countries (summarised in vector  $\Phi_{ij}$ ). This vector includes fixed effects for the region to which either the exporter or the importer belong (6 regions have been defined) and bilateral regional fixed effects (i.e. a dummy for each pair of region to which the exporter/importer belong).

The main focus of this paper is to investigate whether exchange-rate changes have an impact on trade flows in the MENA countries, in order to have an insight on the potential for monetary integration, either within the region, or at least with the main trading partner, i.e. the EU15/25. The availability of a large sample of countries allows to investigate this issue with more precision, as it also allows to measure the degree of symmetry of the MENA country with respect to the rest of the world. This is the reason why a step-by-step estimation strategy is implemented here.

In a first step, the trade equation is estimated on the whole sample of countries, assuming that all the countries of the sample behave symmetrically as far as the estimated elasticities are concerned, and only differ up to a constant term, which includes regional effects. In further steps, the model accounts for region-specific effects, in order to investigate potential asymmetries between the countries of the sample.

### 3 Bilateral trade and the bilateral exchange rate

#### 3.1 Panel estimates on the whole sample

In the following, we display a number of estimates run on the whole sample, both on (the log of) exports and imports.<sup>6</sup>

##### 3.1.1 Exports

The results are quite sensible, and very close to what is usually obtained in similar empirical analysis. First of all, gravitational variables are highly significant and bear the expected sign, a result that further confirms the large explanatory power of gravitational modelling for trade flows.

The estimated coefficient for GDP are near to 1, which is the expected order of magnitude, and the distance coefficient is also near to minus 1. Other gravity variables are also highly significant, and with most of them proximity (either in history or in space) tends to increase exports. The only exception is with contiguity, which unexpectedly bears a negative sign. However, this variable is potentially collinear to the adjacency variable (close countries have a higher probability to share the same language), which could explain the sign of the estimate.

Turning to exchange-rate variables, the real exchange rate has the expected positive sign, meaning that **a 10% depreciation leads to a 5% increase in bilateral exports**. This is a rather sensible price-elasticity estimate (working on the G7 countries, and relying on time-series econometrics, Hooper et al., 1998, find the long-run price-elasticity of exports to be ranging between .2 and 1.6). The volatility of the exchange rate also has a detrimental effect on exports, which is significant at the 1% level. Here, a 10 point increase in volatility leads to a 3% decrease in exports.

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<sup>6</sup> Estimated for fixed effects are not displayed but are available upon request.

**Table 1. Exchange rates and the volume of exports**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Nb. obs	34457	34273	34273	34273
IXivol				
lGDP_i	0,951*** (-0,043)	0,967*** (-0,043)	0,970*** (-0,043)	0,969*** (-0,043)
lGDP_j	0,973*** (-0,043)	0,982*** (-0,043)	0,991*** (-0,043)	0,982*** (-0,043)
ldist	-0,955*** (-0,015)	-0,951*** (-0,015)	-0,951*** (-0,015)	-0,951*** (-0,015)
lrert_cpi_ij	0,538*** (-0,022)	0,536*** (-0,022)	0,539*** (-0,022)	0,594*** (-0,023)
vol_ner	-0,299*** (-0,078)	-	-	-
vol_rer	-	-0,784*** (-0,128)	-	-
sd_growt~rer	-	-	-0,933*** (-0,152)	-
sd_rer	-	-	-	-0,641*** (-0,093)
contig	-0,080** (-0,034)	-0,076** (-0,034)	-0,074** (-0,034)	-0,076** (-0,034)
comlang_off	0,431*** (-0,023)	0,420*** (-0,023)	0,420*** (-0,023)	0,420*** (-0,023)
colony	0,409*** (-0,04)	0,411*** (-0,04)	0,411*** (-0,04)	0,411*** (-0,04)
comcol	0,676*** (-0,049)	0,656*** (-0,049)	0,655*** (-0,049)	0,656*** (-0,049)
col45	0,428*** (-0,062)	0,424*** (-0,062)	0,425*** (-0,062)	0,424*** (-0,062)
smctry	0,574*** (-0,054)	0,569*** (-0,054)	0,569*** (-0,054)	0,569*** (-0,054)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.7705	0.7713	0.7713	0.7713

Standard errors between brackets. \*\*\*, \*\* and \* denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10% level respectively

These results seem to be robust to alternative definition of the exchange-rate volatility, as shown when comparing columns (1) to (4). The various definitions of exchange-rate volatility (monthly nominal or real exchange rate coefficient of variation in columns (1) and (2), standard deviation of monthly variations in nominal or real exchange rate in the two last columns) do not change the picture: a higher volatility in exchange rates tends to reduce exports.

### 3.1.2 Imports

On the import side, the results are roughly similar: gravity variables still have a high explanatory power, and act in the expected direction: the GDP elasticity is around 1, and the distance coefficient is very close to minus 1. A depreciation of country *i*'s

currency (increase in the real exchange rate) leads to an increase in country  $j$  imports from  $i$ . In other words, when  $j$  appreciates in real terms, imports increase, with an elasticity around .2. This elasticity is lower than the available estimates for the G7, and would suggest that **the Lerner-Marshall and Robinson critical values are not met on average for the countries of the sample** (the sum of price elasticities in absolute value is  $.5+.2=.7$ , which is lower than 1). Once again, this result keeps consistent with the empirical literature, which often highlights the low level of price elasticities (see for instance the elasticities pessimism, as reviewed in Obstfeld, 2002).

The volatility of the exchange rate has a detrimental effect on imports, and its size is comparable to the impact on exports (which is expected, since the CHELEM trade data are harmonised, and  $X_{ij}=M_{ji}$ ). Because the various definitions of exchange-rate volatility yield similar results, only one table is displayed, where the volatility of the nominal exchange is used.

**Table 2. Exchange rates and the volume of imports**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Nb. obs	34458	34274	34274	34274
lmivol				
lgdp_i	1,006*** (0,043)	1,019*** (0,043)	1,023*** (0,043)	1,018*** (0,043)
lgdp_j	0,89*** (0,043)	0,903*** (0,043)	0,909*** (0,043)	0,903*** (0,043)
ldist	-0,961*** (0,015)	-0,958*** (0,015)	-0,957*** (0,015)	-0,958*** (0,015)
lrert_cpi_ij	0,192*** (0,022)	0,195*** (0,022)	0,192*** (0,022)	0,252*** (0,023)
vol_ner	-0,279*** (0,08)			
vol_rer		-0,778*** (0,129)		
sd_growt~rer			-0,898*** (0,152)	
sd_rer				-0,539*** (0,076)
contig	-0,088*** (0,034)	-0,086*** (0,034)	-0,084*** (0,034)	-0,086*** (0,034)
comlang_off	0,432*** (0,023)	0,419*** (0,023)	0,419*** (0,023)	0,419*** (0,023)
colony	0,414*** (0,04)	0,423*** (0,04)	0,422*** (0,04)	0,423*** (0,04)
comcol	0,68*** (0,049)	0,658*** (0,049)	0,658*** (0,049)	0,657*** (0,049)
col45	0,426*** (0,062)	0,417*** (0,062)	0,418*** (0,062)	0,418*** (0,062)
smctry	0,574*** (0,054)	0,568*** (0,054)	0,568*** (0,054)	0,569*** (0,054)
R <sup>2</sup>	0,8000	0,8004	0,8004	0,8005

Summing-up the whole-sample estimates, it appears that nominal or real exchange rate volatility is unambiguously detrimental to trade, since both exports and imports are adversely affected by an increase in volatility. As far as economic policy is

concerned, such a result provides some ground for stabilizing exchange rates, the currency of the main trade partner (or a basket of currencies reflecting the geographical composition of trade) being the most obvious anchor.

The conclusion of real exchange rate appreciation or depreciation is less clear-cut. A real exchange-rate appreciation reduces exports and increases imports, and the impact seems to be more important on exports than on imports. However, because the price effects do not seem to be integrally balanced by volume effects (sum of price elasticities lower than 1), the efficiency of the real exchange rates as an adjustment tool is not guaranteed. Moreover, this first set of estimates ignores the impact of third countries real exchange rate changes (the real exchange rate variable is bilateral), and this latter conclusion therefore deserves further investigation.

### 3.2 *Are the MENA countries behaving differently?*

The previous set of estimates provides with a broad picture of the impact of exchange-rate variables on trade, showing that both exchange-rate volatility and changes in the level of the real exchange rate affect trade.

A question is however to determine whether this is a general feature of all the countries of the sample, or whether some country groupings could behave differently. In order to address this issue, regional dummies are built, corresponding to the following groupings: EMU, EU15, OCDE, Accession countries, Asia and MENA countries. These dummies (either for exporters or importers) are then interacted with the exchange-rate variables, in order to catch potential asymmetries in the reaction of trade to exchange-rate regimes changes.

In a first step, the behaviour of MENA countries with respect to all the remaining countries of the sample is investigated. The estimated equations are the following, for exports and imports respectively:

$$\ln X_{ijt} = \beta + \alpha_1 MENA_i \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_2 (1 - MENA_i) \ln RER_{ijt} \\ + \alpha_3 MENA_i \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_4 (1 - MENA_i) \cdot VOL_{ijt} + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

$$\ln M_{jit} = \beta + \alpha_1 MENA_j \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_2 (1 - MENA_j) \ln RER_{ijt} \\ + \alpha_3 MENA_j \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_4 (1 - MENA_j) \cdot VOL_{ijt} + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

Where MENA is the dummy variable associated to MENA countries (taking the value of 1 if country i or j – depending on whether estimates are run on exports or imports – belongs to the corresponding grouping). Therefore, the coefficient associated to the interaction of the MENA dummy with exchange-rate data reflects the MENA-specific impact of the real exchange rate (resp. the exchange rate volatility) on trade, which can be directly compared to the same coefficient in the other countries of the sample.

Results are displayed in the Table 3.

As far as the MENA countries are compared to the rest of the sample (Table 3), the results show there is some heterogeneity in terms of behaviour between the MENA countries and the rest of the sample, as **MENA exports are much less affected by real exchange-rate changes than the other countries of the sample. The impact of exchange-rate volatility is also less important.**

**Turning to imports, MENA countries are much more sensitive to exchange rate changes than other countries of the sample,** while the difference in volatility estimates is not sizeable (in contrast to what was obtained for exports).

This result of course is not a surprise, but is the outcome of the trade specialisation of these countries. The share of raw products (such as oil) is higher in their exports than it is for other countries of the sample. As the prices of these products are set on international markets – where market power has almost no impact – and directly in international currencies, exports are rather inelastic to changes in prices. On the import side, the situation is opposite: MENA countries import more manufactured goods, for which the price-elasticity of demand is higher. Whether this reflects a composition (MENA countries import a higher share of price-elastic goods than the other countries of the sample) or a structural effect (the price elasticity of demand of MENA countries is higher, regardless of the composition of imports) is an issue that cannot be further investigated within the framework of this paper.

**Table 3. Do MENA countries behave differently from all the countries of the sample?**

	IXivol	IMjvol
Nb. Obs.	34273	34274
MENA <sub>i</sub> lnRER <sub>ijt</sub>	0,266*** (0,049)	0,308*** (0,047)
(1-MENA <sub>i</sub> )lnRER <sub>ijt</sub>	0,603*** (0,025)	0,156*** (0,026)
MENA <sub>i</sub> vol_rer <sub>ijt</sub>	-0,523* (0,312)	-0,600** (0,29)
(1-MENA <sub>i</sub> )vol_rer <sub>ijt</sub>	-0,862*** (0,145)	-0,824*** (0,149)
IGDP <sub>i</sub>	0,807*** (0,046)	0,911*** (0,045)
IGDP <sub>j</sub>	0,854*** (0,045)	0,756*** (0,046)
contig	-0,374*** (0,034)	-0,384*** (0,034)
comlang_off	0,534*** (0,024)	0,529*** (0,024)
colony	0,331*** (0,041)	0,350*** (0,041)
comcol	0,330*** (0,051)	0,326*** (0,051)
col45	0,753*** (0,063)	0,740*** (0,063)
smctry	0,893*** (0,056)	0,896*** (0,055)
ldist	-1,216*** (0,009)	-1,218*** (0)
R <sup>2</sup>	0.7437	0.7383

Going further, we investigate here the existence of asymmetries in the behaviour of MENA countries relative to other developing countries of the sample. Therefore, 3 regional belonging dummies are interacted with the level and the volatility of the real exchange rate (the three regions being the MENA countries, Asia countries and the European new member states and acceding countries). The real exchange rate level and

volatility are also included in the analysis. They give an information about what happens in the remaining countries of the sample (i.e. OECD developed countries).

The estimated equations are therefore the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln X_{ijt} = & \beta + \alpha_1 MENA_i \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_2 MENA_i \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_3 ASIA_i \cdot \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_4 ASIA_i \cdot VOL_{ijt} \\ & + \alpha_5 AC_i \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_6 AC_i \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_6 \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_7 VOL_{ijt} \\ & + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \\ \ln M_{jit} = & \beta + \alpha_1 MENA_j \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_2 MENA_j \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_3 ASIA_j \cdot \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_4 ASIA_j \cdot VOL_{ijt} \\ & + \alpha_5 AC_j \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_6 AC_j \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_6 \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_7 VOL_{ijt} + \\ & GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \end{aligned}$$

Results are displayed in Table 4. Gravity variables estimates other than for GDP and distance are not displayed to save space, but they remain unchanged in terms of sign and significance.

The coefficient on the real exchange rate describes the all-countries sensitivity of trade to exchange rates, net from regional specificities. The interaction of regional dummies with exchange rate variables identifies the additional impact of belonging to a given region on the sensitiveness of trade to exchange rate changes. For instance, the total impact of real exchange rates on MENA exports is given by the sum of  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_6$ .

**Table 4. Heterogeneity of estimates across developing countries of the sample**

	IXivol	IMjvol
Real exchange rate	0,681*** (0,033)	-0,032 (0,034)
Volatility of the real exchange rate	0,460** (0,205)	-0,112 (0,199)
MENA <sub>i</sub> * Real exchange rate	-0,414*** (0,057)	0,337*** (0,057)
AC <sub>i</sub> * Real exchange rate	-0,491*** (0,068)	0,333*** (0,068)
ASIA <sub>i</sub> * Real exchange rate	0,049 (0,05)	0,385*** (0,05)
MENA <sub>j</sub> * volatility	-0,949*** (0,364)	-0,454 (0,343)
AC <sub>j</sub> * volatility	-1,335*** (0,327)	-0,933*** (0,348)
ASIA <sub>j</sub> * volatility	-3,022*** (0,329)	-1,334*** (0,328)
GDP <sub>i</sub>	0,787*** (0,046)	0,928*** (0,045)
GDP <sub>j</sub>	0,868*** (0,045)	0,791*** (0,046)
Distance	-1,218*** (0,009)	-1,221*** (0,009)
N° obs.	34273	34274
R <sup>2</sup>	0.7449	0.7390

According to Table 4, heterogeneity can be sizeable in the sample. Looking first at the real exchange rate, MENA countries and Accession countries seem to behave



similarly, with a total impact of real exchange rate changes on exports of  $0.7-0.4=0.3$  (approximately). The elasticity of exports to the real exchange rate is much higher in the Asian countries of the sample ( $0.681+0$ , since the estimate is not significant). On the import side however, the differences are quite marginal that is the sensibility of MENA, ASIAN and AC countries to RER is quite similar. These results suggest once again that export specialization might play a dominant role in the behavior of the trade balance with respect to the exchange rate (since the behavior of imports is quite homogeneous across regions).

Volatility has apparently a general positive impact (variable *vol\_rer*), but this result refers mostly to the remaining developed countries of the sample. Once developing countries features are taken into account, this result is reversed. Indeed, the coefficient on volatility is always negative and highly significant for these countries. This general feature however hides regional heterogeneity between countries. Exchange-rate volatility always has a much higher impact on Asian countries, both for exports and imports, may be reflecting the Asian specialization in low-grade manufactured goods. NMS countries are in an intermediate position, between Asian countries and MENA countries. The latter display the lower sensitiveness of trade (both exports and imports) to exchange-rate volatility, a result that somehow runs against what is displayed in Table 3.

To sum up, MENA countries and the other neighbouring frontier of the EU (i.e. the NMS) are similarly affected by real exchange rate changes, both for exports and imports, while Asian countries stand out as outliers. As far as exchange rate volatility is concerned, MENA countries are much less affected by changes in exchange-rate uncertainty, a feature that probably directly relies to their primary-product specialization.

### 3.3 *Is intra-MENA trade specific?*

In order to gauge the potential for monetary integration within the MENA countries, the impact of exchange-rate features on *intra*-MENA trade should also be explored. To this aim, another set of dummies is included into the regression, to identify the impact of intra-MENA exchange-rate changes. Because the EU is the closest and largest neighbor of MENA countries, the euro is the most obvious candidate for external anchoring of the currency, as already shown by existing studies (Bénassy-Quéré et al., 2002). A dummy is therefore also included, that identifies MENA/EU trade flows. The definition of dummies is the following:

- $MENA_{ij}$  takes the value of 1 when both trade partners are MENA countries. Therefore, this dummy identifies intra-MENA trade.
- $MENA/UEM$  takes the value of 1 when trade takes place between a MENA country and a EU member. Therefore, this dummy identifies EU trade with the MENA countries.

All dummies are interacted with exchange-rate variables, so that the following equation is estimated both for imports and for exports:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln X_{ijt} = & \beta + \alpha_1 \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_2 MENA_{ij} \cdot \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_3 MENA / UEM \cdot \ln RER_{ijt} \\ & + \alpha_5 VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_6 MENA_{ij} \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_7 MENA_i UEM_j \cdot VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_8 MENA_j UEM_i \cdot VOL_{ijt} \\ & + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt} \end{aligned}$$

This equation identifies the impact of exchange-rate variables on intra-MENA trade and, additionally, of trade between EU and MENA countries.

In order to obtain more evidence about the specificity of MENA imports and exports with the EU, we also estimated the equation by substituting  $MENA/UEM$  by :

- $MENAiUEMj$  takes the value of 1 when  $i$  is a MENA country, and  $j$  belongs to the EU. This dummy describes MENA imports from the EU.
- $MENAjUEMi$  takes the value of 1 when  $j$  is a MENA country, and  $i$  belongs to the EU. This dummy describes MENA exports to the UE.

Results are displayed in Table 4bis.

**Table 4bis.**

	IXivol	IXivol	IMjvol	IMjvol
Real exchange rate	0,604*** (0,024)	0,61*** (0,024)	0,246*** (0,024)	0,251*** (0,024)
Volatility of the real exchange rate	-0,132*** (0,14)	-0,132*** (0,139)	-0,135*** (0,14)	-0,135*** (0,14)
$MENAi_{i,j} \cdot$ Real exchange rate	-0,307*** (0,11)	-0,312*** (0,11)	0,196* (0,11)	0,201* (0,11)
MENA/UEM. $\cdot$ Real exchange rate	-0,487*** (0,057)		-0,433*** (0,057)	
$MENAiUEMj_{i,j} \cdot$ Real exchange rate		-0,883*** (0,08)		-0,904*** (0,08)
$MENAjUEMi_{i,j} \cdot$ Real exchange rate		-0,141* (0,079)		0,009 (0,079)
$MENAi_{i,j} \cdot$ volatility	0,281*** (0,578)	0,286*** (0,577)	0,302*** (0,592)	0,296*** (0,591)
MENA/UEM. $\cdot$ volatility	0,453*** (0,327)		0,503*** (0,336)	
$MENAiUEMj_{i,j} \cdot$ volatility		0,835*** (0,498)		0,715*** (0,449)
$MENAjUEMi_{i,j} \cdot$ volatility		0,201*** (0,419)		0,277*** (0,486)
IGDP_i	0,823*** (0,045)	0,811*** (0,045)	0,899*** (0,045)	0,88*** (0,045)
IGDP_j	0,893*** (0,045)	0,867*** (0,045)	0,806*** (0,045)	0,777*** (0,045)
ldist	-0,12*** (0,009)	-0,12*** (0,009)	-0,12*** (0,009)	-0,12*** (0,009)
contig	-0,355*** (0,034)	-0,344*** (0,034)	-0,362*** (0,034)	-0,354*** (0,034)
comlang_off	0,525*** (0,024)	0,524*** (0,024)	0,522*** (0,024)	0,52*** (0,024)
colony	0,331*** (0,041)	0,329*** (0,04)	0,348*** (0,041)	0,343*** (0,041)
comcol	0,338*** (0,05)	0,344*** (0,05)	0,341*** (0,05)	0,342*** (0,05)
col45	0,729*** (0,063)	0,716*** (0,063)	0,715*** (0,063)	0,706*** (0,063)
smctry	0,894*** (0,055)	0,898*** (0,055)	0,9*** (0,055)	0,908*** (0,055)
N° obs	34274	34273	34274	34274
R <sup>2</sup>	0.7456	0.7465	0.7405	0.7413

Compared to what is observed over the whole sample (real exchange rate elasticity of exports around .6), intra-MENA seems to be little reactive to changes in the real exchange rate. The total impact of 10% a real exchange rate change (say, a depreciation) is a 3% increase in intra-MENA exports ( $0.6 - 0.3 * 10\%$ ). However, this is more than the total impact of a change in the bilateral MENA/UE exchange rate ( $0.6 - 0.48 = 0.12$ ). As to EU exports to MENA countries, it turns out to display the unexpected sign ( $0.6 - 0.8 = -0.2$ ) while MENA exports to the EU are the most sensitive to exchange rate changes ( $0.6 + 0.1 = 0.5$ ). Once again, the influence of sectoral trade specialisation is probably very important: MENA countries tend to export primary goods and import differentiated, manufactured goods; and intra-MENA trade is in-between, which could explain the ranking of export elasticities.

As to volatility, it always has a positive impact on exports, which opposes the results obtained for other countries of the sample (-0.13). The highest impact is found when MENA countries import from the EU, a result that could stem from reverse causality (increases in exports are significantly run by increases in primary exports, which prices are set in international currency and can be quite volatile, therefore feeding exchange-rate instability).

As to imports, a depreciation of country *i*'s currency (increase in the real exchange rate) leads to an increase in country *j* imports from *i*. In other words, when *j* appreciates in real terms, imports increase, with an elasticity around .2. This estimate is therefore robust to the changes in specification (see e.g. Table 2). When both countries belong to the MENA grouping, the total impact of exchange-rate changes is  $0.2 + 0.2 = 0.4$ . The magnitude of the response is therefore symmetric for exports and imports, which was expected (the elasticity of exports to the exchange rate is around 0.3 for intra-MENA exports), and it is higher within the MENA than between the other countries of the sample. MENA imports from the EMU (interaction dummy MENA/UEM) do not differ from what is observed in the rest of the world, but there are some differences for other estimated coefficients, which are of course explained by the difference between import and export structures.

Turning to volatility, it always has a positive impact on imports for the identified groups of countries (MENA/EU), which is quite surprising given previous estimates.

All in all, while some results seem to be unevenly robust, an interesting conclusion for this series of estimates is the fact that real exchange rates appear to have a slightly larger impact on intra-MENA trade than on MENA trade with other countries. For exports, the elasticity of MENA trade with the rest of the world was found to be 0.2 on average, and it reaches 0.3 for intra-MENA trade. As to intra-MENA exchange-rate volatility, it has a surprising – though limited – positive impact on trade, while MENA trade is on average adversely hurt by exchange-rate volatility. Similar conclusions arise for imports

### ***3.4 What is the impact of third countries competition?***

Are MENA countries submitted to competitive pressures coming from their neighbours? This is an important issue, as far as the other European periphery (i.e. NMS) is concerned, because more substitutability between the MENA and the NMS would imply that MENA countries are compelled to give more attention to exchange-rate developments in the NMS when designing their optimal exchange-rate regime. For instance, if the perspective of EMU integration leads the NMS to smoother exchange-rate variations against the euro (which is actually the case for some NMS) going along with a better control of inflation in the NMS (which is the case in all NMS), MENA countries would have either to rely more on price competitiveness to stay on the European market, at the potential expense of more volatility.

In order to investigate this issue, we build an index that summarises price competitiveness of third countries on destination markets, as in Bénassy-Quéré and Lahrière-Révil (2003). Denoting  $RER_{jzt}$  the real effective exchange rate of  $j$  relative to all countries of the sample, weighted by the share of  $i$  in its trade:

$$RER_{jzt} = \sum \frac{TRADE_{ijt}}{TRADE_{.jt}} RER_{ijt},$$

Then the price competitiveness of country  $i$  against the rest of the world is given by  $RER_{izt} = RER_{ijt} / RER_{jzt}$

The estimated equation is therefore the following:

$$\ln X_{ijt} = \beta + \alpha_1 \ln GDP_{it} + \alpha_2 \ln GDP_{jt} + \alpha_3 \ln DIST_{ij} + \alpha_4 \ln RER_{ijt} + \alpha_5 \ln RER_{izt} \\ + \alpha_6 VOL_{ijt} + \alpha_7 \ln RER_{izt} + GRAVITY_{ijt} + \beta_i + \beta_j + \beta_t + \Phi_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijt}$$

The results are displayed in Table 5 for the whole sample.<sup>7</sup>

**Table 5. Relative price competitiveness against the rest of the world**

	IXivol 5
Volatility of the real exchange rate	-0,858*** (0,136)
Real exchange rate	0,483*** (0,03)
Price competitiveness of $i$ against the rest of the world	0,110*** (0,04)
GDP if country $i$	0,836*** (0,048)
GDP if country $j$	0,818*** (0,049)
Distance	-0,122*** (0,01)
N° obs	34273
R <sup>2</sup>	0.74

Confirming the results of previous estimates, an increase in bilateral competitiveness in country  $i$  increases its exports, while an increase in volatility reduces exports. When the competitiveness of  $i$  increases on  $j$ 's market, relative to the competitiveness of the rest of the world  $z$ , bilateral exports also increase, meaning that a country can increase its exports when real depreciation in this country is higher than in the rest of the world. The order of magnitude is very limited however: if country  $i$  experiences a 10% real depreciation, the increase in exports is 5%. If this country is the only one in the world to depreciate, the real depreciation against the ROW is 10% also, and the additional gain is 0.6% - or 10% more.

## 4 Summary of results and policy implications

The choice of an exchange rate regime, and eventually the move towards greater monetary cooperation between countries is an important issue for emerging countries, which are getting more and more open and seek both growth and stability.

The optimum currency area theory states that countries should feel a greater incentive to peg to the same currency, the more bilaterally opened they are, and the

<sup>7</sup> For the sake of saving space, only the coefficient on distance is displayed among the gravity variables. However, all were included in the estimate.

smoother internal adjustment to shocks is. However, recent developments in this area also state that bilateral openness is endogenous to exchange rate developments, and that a given exchange-rate strategy could eventually prove ex-post more desirable than it could have been ex-ante.

This conclusion is however conditional to the structural patterns of trade. On the empirical side, the gravity analysis has shown with continuous robustness that trade was determined by very structural and slowly changing (if ever) determinants as the size of the partner countries and distance – as an approximation for trade costs.

The potential for monetary integration should therefore primarily be determined by a number of geographical determinants, and in a second step by exchange-rate developments, as these also influence trade flows.

The analysis developed above yields a number of conclusions, and some insight for MENA countries.

First of all, it confirms the powerfulness of the gravity equation for explaining trade flows. It also confirms that de facto exchange-rate regimes – defined by the level of and the volatility of the (real) exchange rate – also contribute to the determination of trade flows.

All in all, once gravity determinants are controlled for, exchange-rates have only limited impact on trade flows: the elasticity of exports to the real exchange rate is found to be low (compared to standard macro-economy results), around 0.5, as is the elasticity of imports (0,2). Volatility has a negative impact on both kinds of flows, ranking between  $-0.2$  and  $-0.9$  depending on the definition of this variable.

Within this framework, MENA countries do not behave as strong outliers: the elasticity for exports is lower than for the whole sample (while the elasticity for imports is slightly larger), and the impact of volatility compares with what is obtained for the whole sample. Moreover, they behave quite similarly to European NMS and accession countries – in this respect, Asian countries display a more asymmetric behaviour, with higher sensitivity to exchange-rate volatility and standard price elasticities of trade.

Compared to the NMS, MENA countries display more volatility of intra-area exchange rates, which is by sure an impediment to trade, and therefore an obstacle for further monetary integration. However, some of them also display high volatility against the most obvious candidate currency for anchoring (namely, the euro and the dollar in the second place), and the failure to coordinate monetary policies against the same international anchor further depletes intra-MENA monetary stability.

What would be the best strategy for further increasing monetary integration within the region? An attempt was made in this paper to identify the impact of *de facto* exchange-rate regime characteristics on intra-MENA trade, compared to MENA trade with other countries. While results are unevenly conclusive, it appears that intra-MENA trade is slightly more – but not significantly – impacted by real exchange rate changes than MENA trade irrespective of the partner.<sup>8</sup> Therefore, increasing intra-MENA monetary integration would probably not yield overwhelming gains in terms of trade, given that intra-MENA trade integration is still very limited.

Once proximity to the EU and the size of EU is controlled, the estimates were not able to put forwards any interesting impact of exchange rates on MENA/EU trade. This could be interpreted as the fact that MENA/EU trade does not differ much from overall MENA trade in terms of sensitivity of the de facto exchange-rate regime. But given the weight of the EU as a trade partner for most MENA countries, stabilizing the

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<sup>8</sup> the elasticity of exports to the real exchange rate is 0.3 for whole MENA trade – 0.681-0.414, while it is also 0.3 – 0.61-0.312 – for intra-MENA trade

exchange rate and containing real exchange rate shifts appears as a more important target as monetary integration within the EU.

Moreover, it could be the case that MENA countries, by stabilizing their exchange rates against the euro, would by the same time stabilize also intra-MENA currencies. Such a phenomenon was actually grounding the process of intra-Asian integration before and after the Asian crisis of 1997.

As far as competitiveness vis-à-vis the rest of the world is concerned, the analysis confirms that the countries of the sample tend to export more when their exchange rate depreciates *more* than the currency of their main competitors in export markets. Given that MENA countries tend to display a similar pattern of partners as NMS (at least as long as manufacturing exports are concerned), and given that NMS are their main competitors (with Asian countries for textile) on EU markets, this means that MENA countries should feel an incentive, not only to contain the volatility of the exchange rate against the euro, but also to contain real appreciation, compared to their main competitors.

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## 6 Appendix

### 6.1 Data description

variable name	variable label	Source
t	Year	
Xivol	Exports from i to j, constant USD millions, base year in 2000	CHELEM + WB/IMF export-price indexes
Xival	Exports from i to j, value, Nci mns.	CHELEM
Mjvol	Imports of j from i, constant, USD mns, base year in 2000	CHELEM + WB/IMF import-price indexes
Mjval	Imports of j from i, current value, mns.	CHELEM
GDP_i	GDP, PPP (constant 1995 international \$), WDI	WB
GDP_j	GDP, PPP (constant 1995 international \$), WDI	WB
nertij	Bilateral monthly nominal exchange rate, source IMF, International Financial Statistics, line rf.	IMF, line rf
rer_ppp_ij	PPI deflated bilateral real exchange rate	IMF, line rf and 63 + national sources
rert_cpi_ij	CPI deflated bilateral real exchange rate	IMF, line rf and 64 + national sources
sd_rer	Standard-deviation of monthly real exchange rate in year t	Authors calculations
sd_ner	Standard-deviation of monthly nominal exchange rate in year t	Authors calculations
mean_rer	Mean of monthly real exchange rate in year t	Authors calculations
mean_ner	Mean of monthly nominal exchange rate in year t	Authors calculations
vol_rer	Real exchange rate monthly volatility	Authors calculations
vol_ner	Nominal exchange rate monthly volatility	Authors calculations
sd_growth_rer	Standard deviation of monthly real exchange rate changes in year t	Authors calculations
sd_growth_ner	Standard deviation of monthly nominal exchange rate changes in year t	Authors calculations
dist	simple distance (most populated cities, km)	CEPII online database
distcap	simple distance between capitals (capitals, km)	CEPII online database
distw	weighted distance (pop-wt, km)	CEPII online database
distwces	weighted distance (pop-wt, km) CES distances with $\theta = -1$	CEPII online database
<b>Dummy variables</b>		
ichlnum	Exporter dummy	
jchlnum	Importer dummy	
reg_exp	Exporter's region	



reg_imp	Importer's region	
contig	1 for contiguity	CEPII online database
comlang_off	1 for common official of primary language	CEPII online database CEPII online database
comlang_ethno	1 if a language is spoken by at least 9% of the population in both countries	CEPII online database
colony	1 for pairs ever in colonial relationship	CEPII online database
comcol	1 for common colonizer post 1945	CEPII online database
curcol	1 for pairs currently in colonial relationship	CEPII online database
col45	1 for pairs in colonial relationship post 1945	CEPII online database
smctry	1 if countries were or are the same country	CEPII online database



PART 2.

# Le Cycle des affaires dans les pays MENA

## Une Application du Filtre Hodrick-Prescott

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*Aomar Ibourk*<sup>2</sup>

### 1 Introduction

Les pays du Sud de la Méditerranée (PSM) entrent aujourd'hui dans une phase très délicate de leur développement. Ils se sont engagés dans un processus d'ouverture sans précédent. D'abord avec le Nord; signature d'accords d'association avec l'Union européenne et les Etats-Unis pour quelques uns tels que le Maroc ou la Jordanie. Ensuite entre eux ; l'accord d'Agadir regroupant l'Egypte, la Jordanie, le Maroc et la Tunisie, ou l'accord Maroc-Turquie, ..., . Dans le même temps, la structure de leur production et le contenu de leurs échanges extérieurs demeurent typiques de pays en développement. Ceci les fragilise sur leur propre marché. Cette ouverture nous paraît fondamentale car elle peut générer une croissance forte et durable à condition qu'elle soit bien séquencée et qu'une politique de réformes structurelles soit mise en œuvre. L'intégration Sud-Sud paraît à cet égard fondamentale. Il n'est pas utile de revenir sur ses avantages<sup>3</sup>.

La théorie des zones monétaires optimales est basée sur l'hypothèse selon laquelle les pays appartenant à cette zone réagissent de la même manière à des chocs extérieurs. Sans revenir en détail sur les conditions dans lesquelles un groupe de pays peut constituer une union monétaire, il est à signaler que les pays du Sud de la Méditerranée (PSM) subissent des contraintes particulières. Leurs marchés de capitaux sont en général peu profonds et peu liquides. Les PSM sont souvent dans l'incapacité d'emprunter à l'étranger dans leur propre monnaie et doivent recourir à des monnaies tierces comme le dollar par exemple, doctrine du « péché originel », formulée par Eichengreen et Hausmann (1999). Les PSM<sup>4</sup>, confrontés à ce problème, y ont apporté

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<sup>3</sup> Voir différentes contributions du présent rapport.

<sup>4</sup> Voir Bouoiyour et al (2004).

des réponses très différenciées et, qui plus est, ont fréquemment modifié leurs choix. « L'Égypte a rattaché sa monnaie au dollar en 1991, mais elle a abandonné cette politique en 2000 pour basculer en 2003 vers un régime de change flottant. La Jordanie, après avoir adopté un régime de fixité par rapport à un panier s'est ancrée « de facto » sur le dollar en 1995. Le Liban a fait le même choix en 1997 alors que jusque-là il avait opté pour les parités glissantes. L'Algérie, en flottage pur « de jure », pratique en réalité le flottage géré. La Tunisie est passée à la fin des années 90 des parités glissantes au flottage géré, la Libye a ancré sa monnaie à un panier, tout comme le Maroc », Bouoiyour et al (2004).

Cette hétérogénéité traduit au fond la caractéristique commune des PSM : un faible degré d'intégration intra-régionale ; la difficulté de concilier une double dépendance : face au dollar, monnaie dominante dans laquelle sont exprimées les dettes extérieures, et face à l'euro, monnaie du principal partenaire commercial.

Au delà des critères économiques d'optimalité des ZMO, d'autres facteurs explicatifs peuvent être considérés, ils s'agit de la volonté politique (Mintz, 1970 et Willms, 1994). Cette dernière doit jouer sûrement un rôle important dans le cas des PSM.

L'objet de cette contribution est de mesurer le degré d'intégration monétaire des PSM à travers l'analyse des corrélations entre les cycles des affaires entre les différents pays.

## 2 Propriété des cycles des affaires

### 2.1 La notion du cycle des affaires

La notion de cycles des affaires peut paraître a priori simple. Mais dans la réalité cette notion est trompeuse, car elle laisse entendre une régularité dans l'apparition des phases de hausse et de baisse, alors qu'en réalité la longueur des cycles varie dans le temps. Il s'agit de fluctuations caractérisées par des expansions et de contractions de l'activité agissant de façon simultanée sur l'ensemble de l'économie.

On peut globalement distinguer trois concepts de cycle des affaires<sup>5</sup>. Le *cycle classique* considère l'évolution du niveau de produit. Les contractions se caractérisent par un taux de croissance négatif. Cette définition n'est pas très appropriée pour les pays développés qui ne connaissent que rarement une baisse de leurs activités. Le *cycle de croissance* (ou *cycle de différentiel*), les périodes de contraction correspondent au cas où le taux de croissance constaté est inférieur au taux de croissance potentiel (ie la composante cyclique du produit est négative). Le *cycle du taux de croissance* correspond aux changements de rythme de croissance (dérivée second du produit).

Nous avons adopté dans le cadre de ce travail la deuxième définition qui implique l'extraction de la composante cyclique. L'approche proposée, pour justifier la pertinence d'une intégration commerciale et monétaire au sud de la méditerranée s'inspire des travaux de Beine et Coulombe (2002) et repose sur l'analyse des corrélations entre les cycles des affaires des différents pays.

En ce qui concerne l'agrégat utilisé, on utilise en général la PIB (ou le PIB/tête) ou la production industrielle. Nous avons opté pour le PIB réels au lieu de la production industrielle à cause de la disponibilité des données. Les données utilisées sont les PIB réels (en Dollars base 1995) de 8 pays et couvrent la période de 1960-2004<sup>6</sup>.

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<sup>5</sup> Kaiser M. (2005).

<sup>6</sup> Voir Annexe 1.

## 2.2 Le filtre de Hodrick-Prescott

Nous avons donc opté dans le cadre de ce travail pour la méthode du filtre de Hodrick-Prescott (1997) qui distingue les composantes tendancielle et cyclique, en imposant une contrainte sur la somme des déviations par rapport à la tendance (voir Encadré 1). Il a l'avantage de conserver les données de fin de séries contrairement à d'autres méthodes telle que celle de Baxter et King (1999) qui elle tronque les séries. Mais il a l'inconvénient de ne pas supprimer l'intégralité du « bruit » qui entoure les tendances.

### Encadré 1

Le filtre de Hodrick-Prescott décompose additivement une série  $y_t$  en une composante tendancielle (ou structurelle)  $y_t^s$  et une composante cyclique (ou conjoncturelle)  $y_t^c$  :

$$y_t = y_t^s + y_t^c$$

L'utilisation de ce filtre implique la minimisation de la variance de la composante cyclique  $y_t^c$  en plus d'une pénalisation de la variation de la différence seconde de la composante tendancielle  $y_t^s$ , soit :

$$y_t^s = \min \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ (y_t - y_t^s)^2 + \lambda \{ (y_{t+1}^s - y_t^s) - (y_t^s - y_{t-1}^s) \}^2 \right]$$

$$y_t^c = \min \sum_{t=1}^T \left[ (y_t^c)^2 + \lambda (\Delta y_{t+1}^s - \Delta y_t^s)^2 \right]$$

Il importe de choisir la valeur du paramètre de lissage  $\lambda$ . Cette valeur doit être choisie en fonction de propriétés statistiques et économiques que l'on veut voir satisfaites par la tendance et le cycle ainsi obtenus.

Sur un plan statistique, choisir la valeur de  $\lambda$  revient à sélectionner la part des fluctuations qui relèvent du court terme et celle des mouvements qui affectent le long terme. En pratique, un  $\lambda$  trop faible affecte à tort une partie des cycles de périodicité courte à la tendance conduisant cette dernière à être trop volatile. A l'opposé, un  $\lambda$  trop élevé conduit à surestimer la composante cyclique. Choisir la valeur du paramètre  $\lambda$  revient donc à déterminer la longueur moyenne des cycles d'activité.

En général, comme proposé par Hodrick et Prescott, une valeur de  $\lambda=100$  est affectée aux données annuelles alors que la valeur  $\lambda=1600$  est associée aux données trimestrielles.

Nous avons opté, suivant en cela Hodrick et Prescott, une valeur de  $\lambda=100$  étant donné que les séries utilisées sont annuelles. Les résultats sont donnés dans le tableau 1.

## CYCLE D'ACTIVITE ET FILTRE D'HODRICK-PRESCOTT

Tableau 1: Corrélations entre les cycles conjoncturels des différents pays (H-P,  $\lambda = 100$ )

	DZA	EGY	JOR	LBN	MAR	SYR	TUN	TUR
DZA	1,00							
EGY	0,37	1,00						
JOR	0,06	0,21	1,00					
LBN	0,03	-0,22	0,39	1,00				
MAR	0,20	0,02	-0,32	-0,29	1,00			
SYR	-0,25	-0,24	0,40	-0,04	-0,18	1,00		
TUN	0,30	0,23	0,20	0,22	-0,09	0,25	1,00	
TUR	0,16	-0,21	-0,06	0,03	0,06	0,06	0,05	1,00

La matrice des corrélations révèle la faiblesse de liaison entre les cycles des affaires des différents pays. En effet, d'une part, la plus grande valeur de corrélation ne dépasse pas 40% (40% entre la Jordanie et la Syrie) et d'autre part 35.7% (10 sur 28 cases) des corrélations sont de surcroît négatives. Ces résultats montrent que les corrélations croisées des cycles des affaires sont très faibles et que les PSM ont des cycles très différents et par conséquent, ils ne remplissent pas les critères de la théorie de ZMO. Autrement dit, ces pays n'ont pas intérêt à se regrouper en zone monétaire.

Malgré les corrélations faibles, nous avons voulu savoir si au moins les cycles d'activité évoluent dans le même sens pour des pays appartenant à une même zone géographique spécifique ou espérant s'inscrire dans une région économique unifiée (UMA).

Nous avons donné un score à chaque pays selon le nombre des signes positifs des corrélations de son cycle des affaires avec celui des autres. Il en découle que les cycles conjoncturels dont les corrélations, quoique faibles, vont dans le même sens sont essentiellement ceux de l'Algérie, la Tunisie, la Jordanie et la Turquie. Celui du Maroc est négativement corrélé avec celui de son voisin la Tunisie ainsi qu'avec celui des pays du Moyen-Orient (sauf la Turquie). Le cycle de l'Egypte évolue inversement à celui des pays du Moyen-Orient (sauf la Jordanie) et dans le même sens que celui des pays du Maghreb.

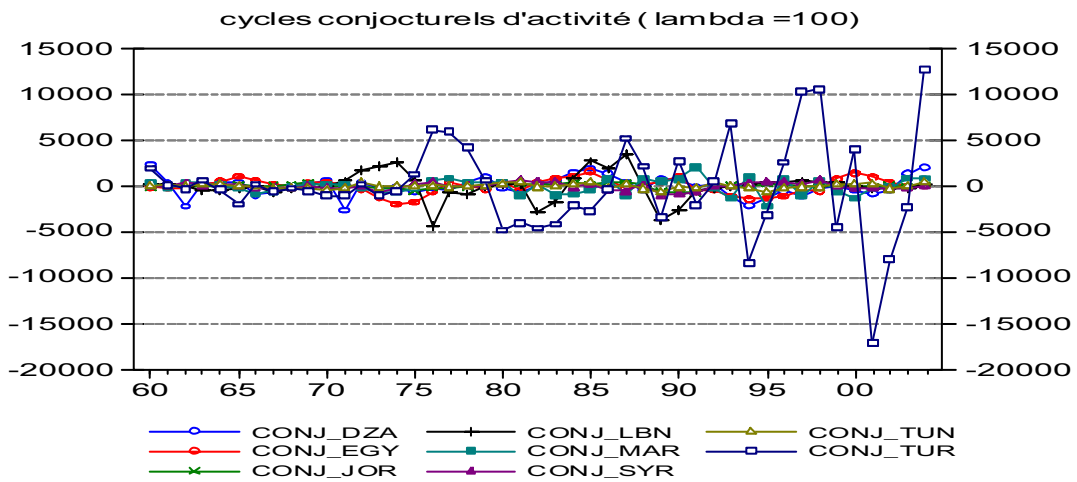
## Scores des différents pays selon le nombre de corrélations positives

MAR	DZA	TUN	EGY	JOR	SYR	LBN	TUR
0,43	0,86	0,86	0,57	0,71	0,43	0,57	0,71

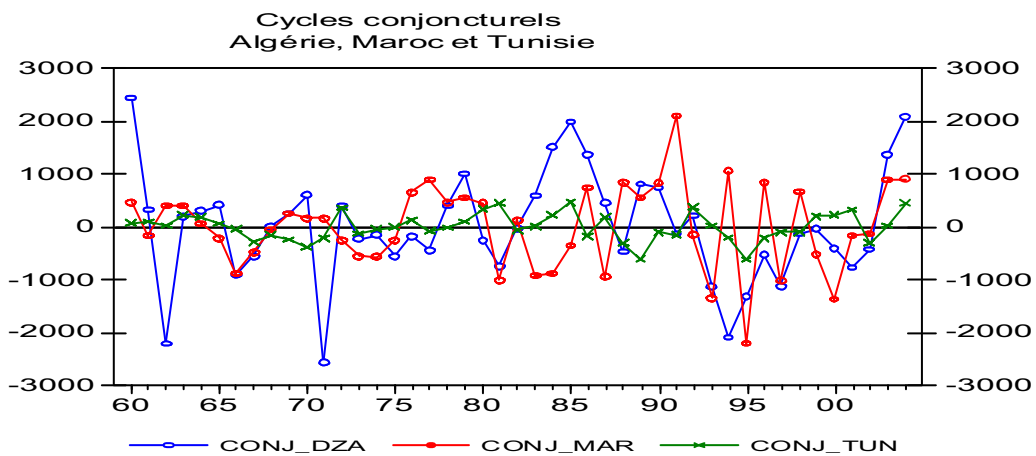
## MATRICE DES SIGNES DES CORRELATIONS ENTRE CYCLES D'ACTIVITE SELON LES ZONES GEOGRAPHIQUES

	MAR	DZA	TUN	EGY	JOR	SYR	LBN
MAR							
DZA	+						
TUN	-	+					
EGY	+	+	+				
JOR	-	+	+	+			
SYR	-	-	+	-	+		
LBN	-	+	+	-	+	-	
TUR	+	+	+	-	-	+	+

Le graphique confrontant les cycles conjoncturels de ces pays montre la singularité du cycle turque, qui montre une volatilité apparente par rapport aux autres cycles.



En éliminant le cycle turque du graphique et en séparant les pays selon les régions (Maghreb et Moyen-Orient), on peut apercevoir l'hétérogénéité qui caractérise ces différents pays sauf peut être dans le cas de la Syrie et de la Jordanie où on ressent un certain rapprochement, quoique d'une ampleur faible.

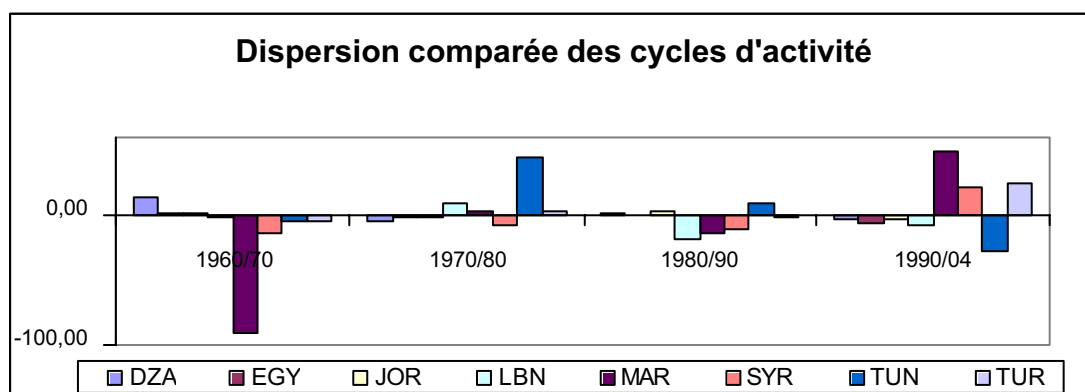


Nous avons également procédé au calcul des coefficients de variation comme mesure de dispersion de la composante conjoncturelle et ce pour les différentes décennies :

#### Dispersion des cycles d'activité mesurée par les coefficients de variation

	DZA	EGY	JOR	LBN	MAR	SYR	TUN	TUR
<b>1960/70</b>	14,27	1,59	1,75	-1,35	-91,25	-15,26	-5,04	-5,07
<b>1970/80</b>	-5,11	-2,17	-1,75	9,12	3,21	-8,28	44,83	3,55
<b>1980/90</b>	1,60	1,15	3,02	-19,00	-15,26	-11,82	9,16	-2,35
<b>1990/04</b>	-4,29	-6,29	-4,15	-9,10	49,90	21,98	-28,62	25,23

Il en ressort, comparativement aux tendances moyennes de ces cycles, que le PIB conjoncturel marocain est le plus volatil surtout pendant les décennies 60-70 et 90-2004 suivi par celui de la Tunisie, la Turquie et la Syrie.



Toutes ces remarques sont fondées sur l'étude des cycles conjoncturels dérivés de l'application du filtre Hodrick-Prescott aux séries de PIB en tenant compte d'une valeur de lissage  $\lambda=100$ . Cependant, le problème qui se pose est d'une part celui de la valeur de  $\lambda$  qui ne fait pas unanimité et celui de la nature du cycle pris en considération.

### 3 Choix de la valeur de $\lambda$

Comme cité plus haut, la valeur de  $\lambda$  préconisée par Hodrick et Prescott (1997) eux-mêmes est de 100 pour filtrer les données annuelles. Pourtant des études plus récentes ont opté pour des valeurs petites et différentes. Nous citons par exemple Baxter et King (1999) qui la situe entre 100 et 400 alors que Maravall, Pederson (1998) et Ravn & Uhlig (1997) utilisent des valeurs comprises entre 4 et 10.

Cette différence dans l'affectation des valeurs à  $\lambda$  provient de la diversité des définitions de la composante tendancielle comme le souligne d'ailleurs Canova (1998) ainsi que de la relation susceptible de relier cycle et tendance.

Statistiquement, toute série stationnaire peut être décomposée en une somme pondérée de séries cycliques de périodicités différentes et un filtre idéal est celui qui permet d'affecter les cycles supérieurs, à la longueur critique, à la tendance et les cycles de durée inférieure à la composante conjoncturelle.

De ce fait, le filtre H-P n'est pas un filtre idéal du moment où, selon la valeur de  $\lambda$  et de la longueur limite du cycle à étudier, n'affecte pas totalement les cycles à l'une des composantes.

Deux effets indésirables sont associés à l'utilisation de ce filtre :

1. un effet de compression qui consiste dans l'affectation de cycles courts à la tendance et partant la volatilité de la composante cyclique se trouve sous-estimée. Cet effet est de plus vraisemblable quand la valeur de  $\lambda$  est faible.
2. un effet 'leakage' qui est l'effet inverse. Des cycles longs sont attribués à tort à la composante cyclique dont la volatilité se trouve alors surestimée. Ceci apparaît souvent lorsqu'on associe des valeurs élevées à  $\lambda$ .

Kaiser et Maravall (1999) ont trouvé que pour une longueur critique du cycle d'activité de 8 ans et une valeur de  $\lambda = 8$ , environ 73% de l'amplitude du cycle de 8 ans va dans la composante cyclique et 27% est affectée à tort à la composante structurelle. En revanche, si  $\lambda = 100$ , seulement 3% de cette amplitude est affectée à tort à cette dernière composante.



Cependant, la réduction de l'effet compression par l'élévation de la valeur de  $\lambda$  n'a fait que rendre l'effet 'leakage' plus important, puisque 70% de l'amplitude d'un cycle de 16 ans est inclus dans la composante cyclique.

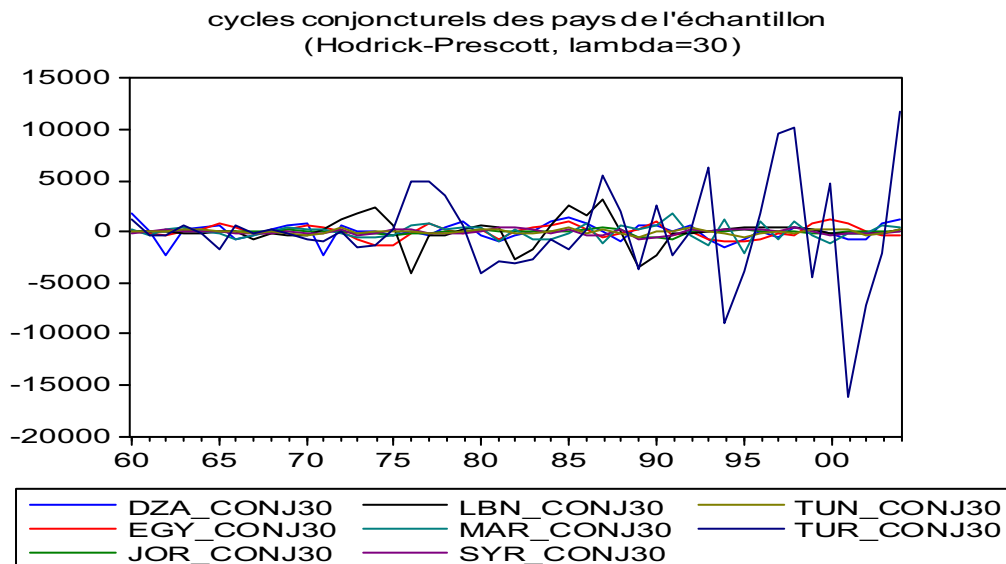
Pour le choix adapté de la valeur  $\lambda$ , nous devons alors et tout d'abord identifier la longueur critique du cycle à retenir et faire un arbitrage entre les effets de compression et de 'leakage'.

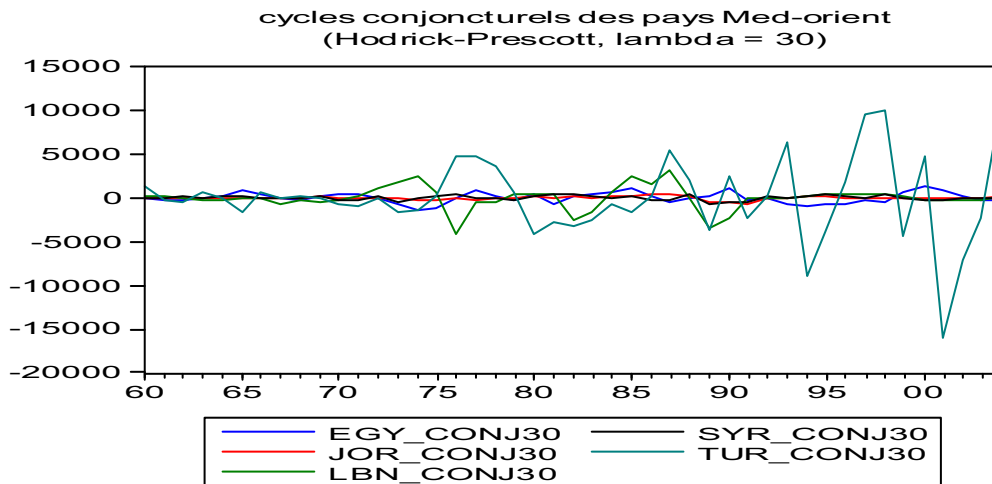
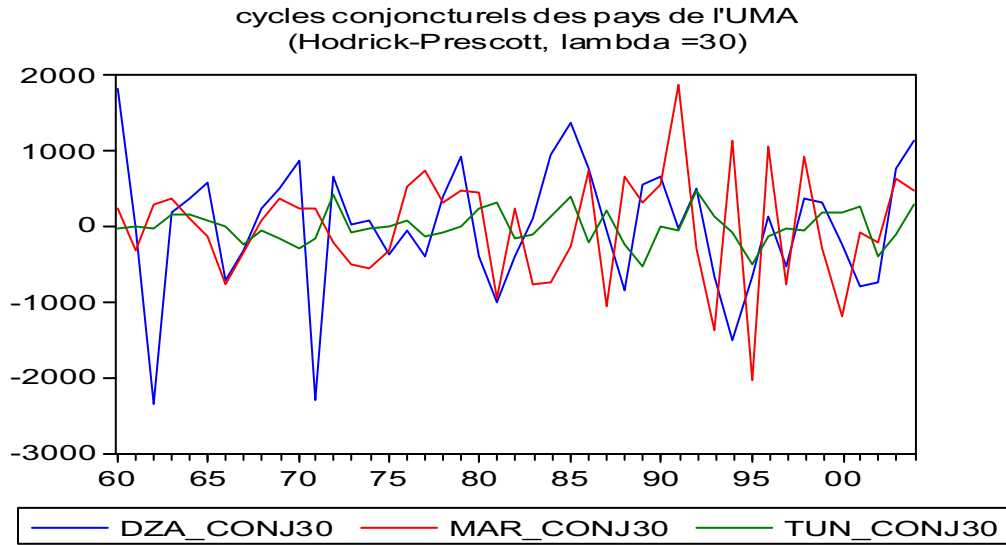
Acceptant une longueur critique des cycles d'activité européens comprise entre 8 et 10 ans (Bouthevillain, 1996), Baghli, Bouthevillain, De Bandt, Fraise, Le Bihan et Rousseaux (2002), sur la base d'une fonction de réponse fréquentielle, optent pour une valeur  $\lambda = 30$  pour les années annuelles qu'ils estiment être une valeur intermédiaire entre les petites valeurs dans les études récentes et la valeur standard retenue par la Commission Européenne.

En effet, Pederson (1998), à partir d'une longueur critique donnée, propose une valeur de  $\lambda$  qui minimise une fonction de coût tenant compte des deux effets de compression et de leakage. Ce critère a pour conséquence le choix d'une valeur de  $\lambda$  très petite, en l'occurrence une valeur de 4 pour les données annuelles.

Ravn et Uhlig (2001) quant à eux suggèrent une valeur de  $\lambda = 6$  ou 8 toujours pour les données annuelles tandis que Kaiser et Maravall (1999) choisissent cette valeur de telle façon que la variance de la composante cyclique soit majoritairement déterminée par les cycles autour de la longueur critique, autrement, le spectre de la composante cyclique doit montrer un pic au niveau de cette longueur limite.

Nous avons dans ce qui suit adopté la valeur  $\lambda=30$  indiquée par Baghli, Bouthevillain, De Bandt, Fraise, Le Bihan et Rousseaux (2002) et calculé la matrice des corrélations entre les cycles conjoncturels :





**Corrélations entre cycles d'activité ( $\lambda =30$ )**

	DZA_C30	EGY_C30	JOR_C30	LBN_C30	MAR_C30	SYR_C30	TUN_C30
DZA_C30	1,00						
EGY_C30	0,23	1,00					
JOR_C30	-0,10	-0,09	1,00				
LBN_C30	0,03	-0,29	0,43	1,00			
MAR_C30	0,12	0,06	-0,27	-0,25	1,00		
SYR_C30	-0,23	-0,29	0,45	-0,02	-0,06	1,00	
TUN_C30	0,19	0,15	0,16	0,32	-0,14	0,19	1,00
TUR_C30	0,23	-0,10	0,06	0,04	0,00	0,08	0,11

On constate que par cette méthode nous aboutissons à une très légère modification qui n'a pas d'impact sur le jugement déjà porté :

- le nombre de corrélations négatives est maintenant de 39.28% au lieu de 36% déjà affichée.
- Les cycles des trois pays voisins du Moyen-Orient sont presque moyennement corrélés.

## 4 Nature du cycle conjoncturel

On rencontre dans la littérature économique plusieurs types de cycles. Des cycles de courte fréquence entre 3 et 5 ans (cycle Kitchin), des cycles long entre 8 et 10 ans (cycle Juglar) et d'autres cycles très longs 48-50 ans (cycle Kondratieff).

Il s'agit alors, comme déjà noté, d'identifier la nature du cycle à introduire dans l'étude.

D'une part, comme le font remarquer Kaiser et Maravall (2001), le choix de cette longueur dépend de l'objectif du chercheur : « for example, a business cycle analyst in policy making may be interested in using a 8-10 year cycle ; an economic historian, looking at several centuries, may be interested in spreading activity over longer periods ».

D'une autre part, Bentoglio, Fayolle et Lemoine (2001) étudiant le cycle conjoncturel de la zone européenne, trouve en fait que ce cycle est composé de deux cycles de périodes distinctes. Un cycle conjoncturel long d'une durée moyenne de 10 ans lié aux mouvements de l'investissement et un autre cycle court de durée de 3 ans relié aux variations des stocks.

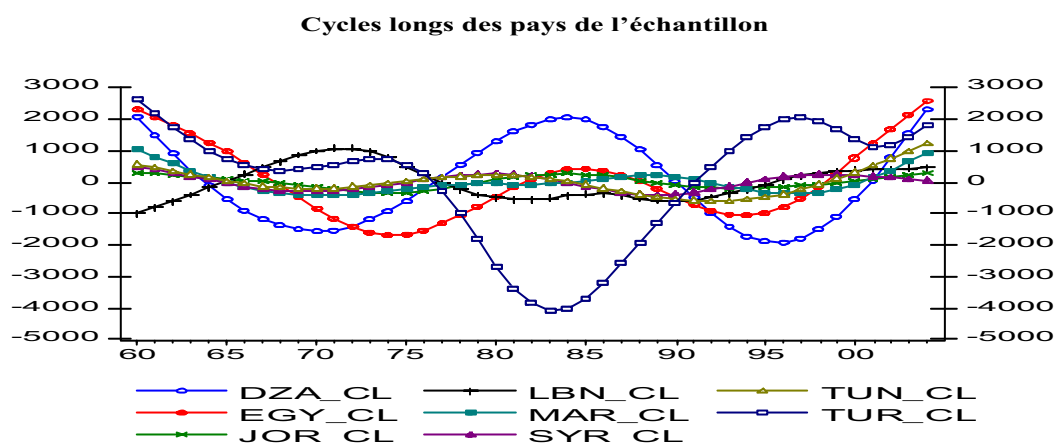
Bentoglio, Fayolle et Lemoine (2002) ont utilisé un modèle à composante inobservée pour extraire les cycles et les résultats trouvés convergent avec ceux issus de l'application des filtres de Hodrick- Prescott et de Baxter-King. Ces auteurs préconisent l'utilisation de ces filtres vu leur simplicité d'utilisation pour extraire les deux cycles court et long.

Le filtre H-P étant considéré comme un filtre pass-bas, deux étapes sont nécessaires pour arriver à cette fin :

1. appliquer le filtre H-P à la série initiale en posant  $\lambda=100$  pour extraire le cycle court  $y^{cc} = y - y^{s1}$  où  $y^{s1}$  est la composante tendancielle issu du filtre.
2. on applique une deuxième fois le filtre H-P à la série  $y^{s1}$  (ne contenant théoriquement plus que les fluctuations longues) pour en extraire le cycle long  $y^{cl}$ .

La somme  $y^{cc} + y^{cl} = y^{cg}$  nous donne le cycle global généralement étudié dans la littérature économique.

Nous avons, en utilisant la méthode à deux étapes su mentionnée, déterminé les cycles courts et les cycles longs des pays de l'échantillon.



L'inspection graphique montre la particularité des cycles longs de l'Algérie, de l'Egypte et de la Turquie.

En plus de la matrice des corrélations entre cycles longs, nous avons également calculé les parts des variances des cycles courts et longs dans le cycle global pour connaître la nature du cycle dominant.

**Matrice de corrélation entre les cycles long d'activité**

	DZA	EGY	JOR	LBN	MAR	SYR	TUN	TUR
DZA	1,00							
EGY	0,57	1,00						
JOR	0,79	0,88	1,00					
LBN	-0,58	-0,28	-0,50	1,00				
MAR	0,72	0,81	0,71	-0,52	1,00			
SYR	0,28	0,38	0,36	-0,25	0,34	1,00		
TUN	0,55	0,69	0,57	0,09	0,61	0,63	1,00	
TUR	-0,56	0,16	-0,28	0,38	0,11	0,24	0,16	1,00

Contrairement aux corrélations des cycles courts, nous constatons de fortes corrélations entre les cycles longs de ces pays sauf peut être les mauvais scores enregistrés par la Syrie et la Turquie :

**scores représentant le pourcentage des corrélations =0,5**

**Cycles longs des pays de l'échantillon**

dza	egy	yor	lbn	mar	syr	tun	tur
0,86	0,57	0,71	0,43	0,71	0,14	0,71	0,14

Cependant, ces résultats ne doivent pas nous faire oublier une question importante : lequel des cycles court ou long gouverne la conjoncture économique dans ces pays.

Pour répondre à cette question, nous avons calculé les parts des variations de ces cycles dans la variance du cycle global. Il s'ensuit que les économies du Liban, du Maroc et de la Turquie sont principalement dominées par les cycles longs liés aux mouvements de l'investissement alors que celles de la Tunisie et l'Egypte sont gouvernées par le cycle conjoncturel lié aux variations des stocks.

**Parts des variances du cycle court et du cycle long dans la variance du cycle global (en %)**

	DZA	EGY	JOR	LBN	MAR	SYR	TUN	TUR
$\sigma_{cc}^2 / \sigma_{cg}^2$	24,20	23,14	44,97	75,10	68,13	44,31	20,66	77,54
$\sigma_{cl}^2 / \sigma_{cg}^2$	39,77	46,18	23,35	11,06	13,64	20,10	51,57	10,63

Tenant maintenant compte du cycle global, les seules corrélations significatives semblent être enregistrées entre d'une part l'Algérie, la Tunisie et l'Égypte et d'autre part entre l'Égypte et la Jordanie.

**Corrélation entre cycles globaux des différents pays**

	CG_DZA	CG_EGY	CG_JOR	CG_LBN	CG_MAR	CG_SYR	CG_TUN
CG_DZA	1,00						
CG_EGY	0,58	1,00					
CG_JOR	0,47	0,62	1,00				
CG_LBN	-0,18	-0,20	0,13	1,00			
CG_MAR	0,41	0,28	-0,05	-0,35	1,00		
CG_SYR	-0,01	0,03	0,32	-0,12	-0,11	1,00	
CG_TUN	0,55	0,56	0,40	0,06	0,22	0,42	1,00
CG_TUR	-0,14	-0,17	-0,21	0,08	0,08	0,08	0,01

## 5 Conclusion

L'intégration Sud-Sud des PSM semble marquer le pas, malgré la multiplication des accords d'association. Les échanges commerciaux sont faibles et les IDE sont ridiculement bas eu égard aux potentialités de la région. L'objet de cet article était d'analyser l'intégration monétaire à travers les corrélations des cycles des affaires entre les différents pays. Différentes méthodes d'estimation ont été utilisées sur des données des PIB réels (en Dollars base 1995) de 8 pays et couvrent la période de 1960-2004. Les résultats montrent que i) les corrélations croisées des cycles des affaires sont très faibles, ii) les PSM ont des cycles très différents et par conséquent, ils ne remplissent pas les critères de la théorie de ZMO.

Pour affiner ces résultats, nous avons distingué deux groupes de pays ; les pays de l'UMA et ceux du Moyen-Orient. Les corrélations demeurent faibles malgré ce regroupement. Cependant, la matrice de corrélation des cycles longs donne des résultats intéressants dans la mesure où dans la plupart des cas, les cycles longs sont bien corrélés à l'exception de la Syrie et de la Turquie.

En conclusion, on peut s'apercevoir de la difficulté de mettre en œuvre une union monétaire entre les PSM, du moins en l'état actuel des choses. Cependant, D'autres études dans le cadre de ce rapport<sup>7</sup> ont montré que la mise en place d'unions entre les pays arabes demeure viable et qu'il est indispensable de mettre en œuvre les réformes nécessaires pour faciliter cette intégration Sud-Sud. La volonté politique joue à cet égard un rôle primordial.

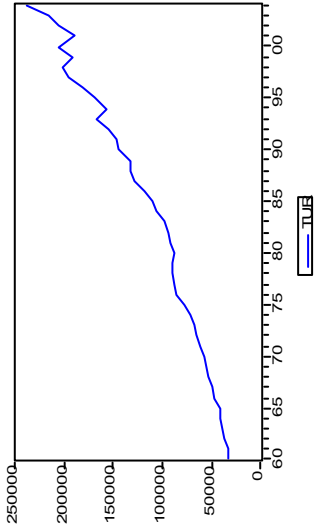
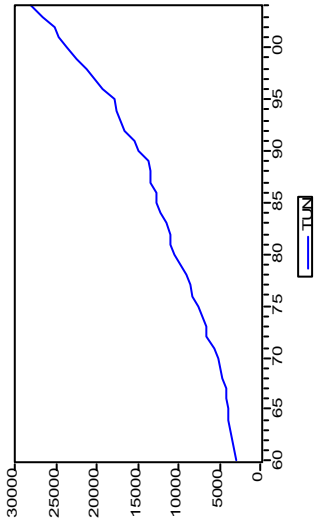
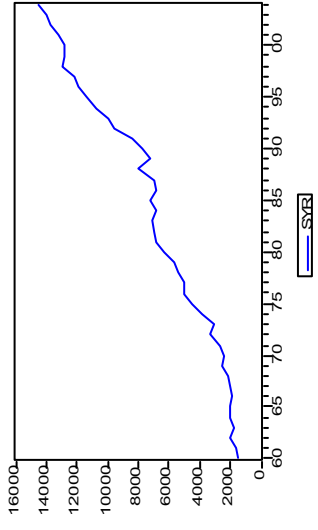
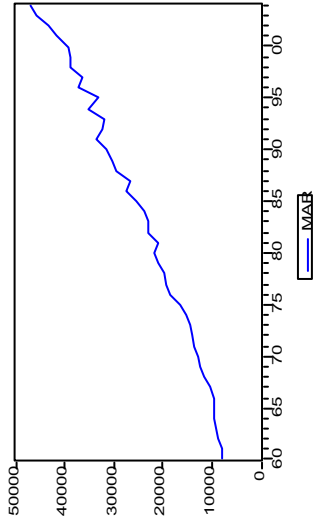
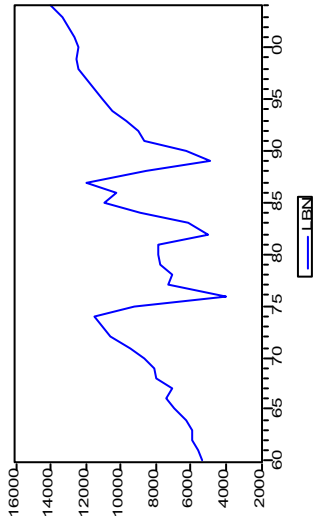
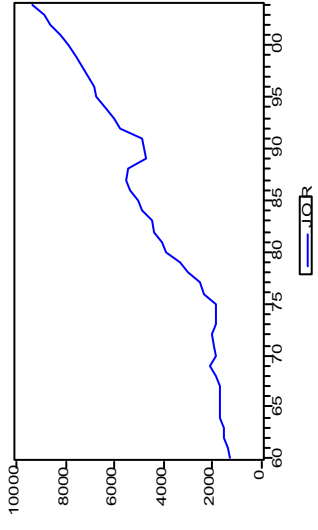
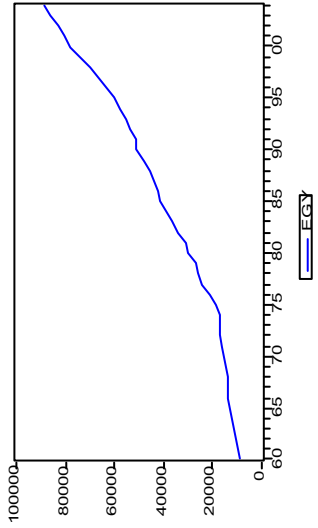
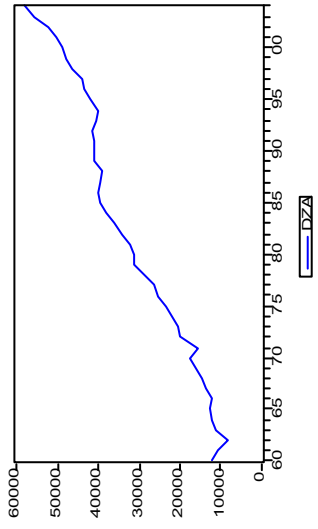
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<sup>7</sup> Voir les autres articles de la présente étude.

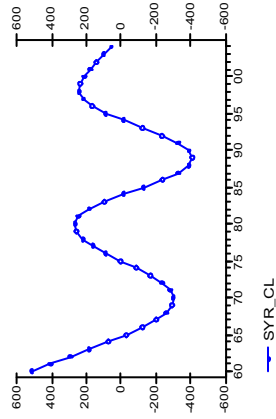
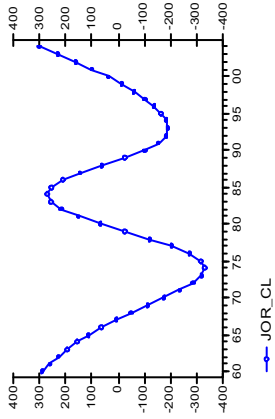
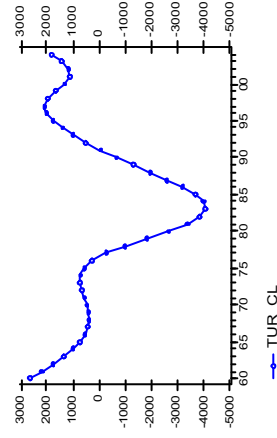
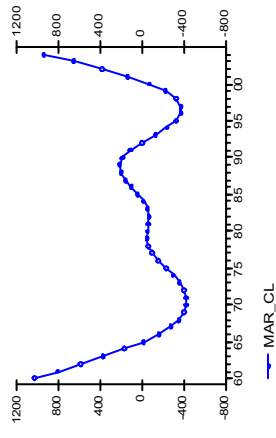
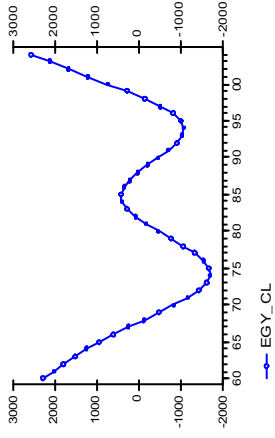
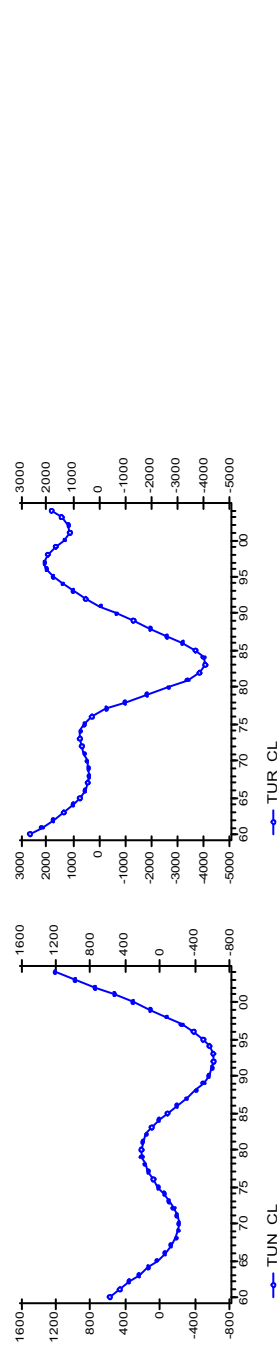
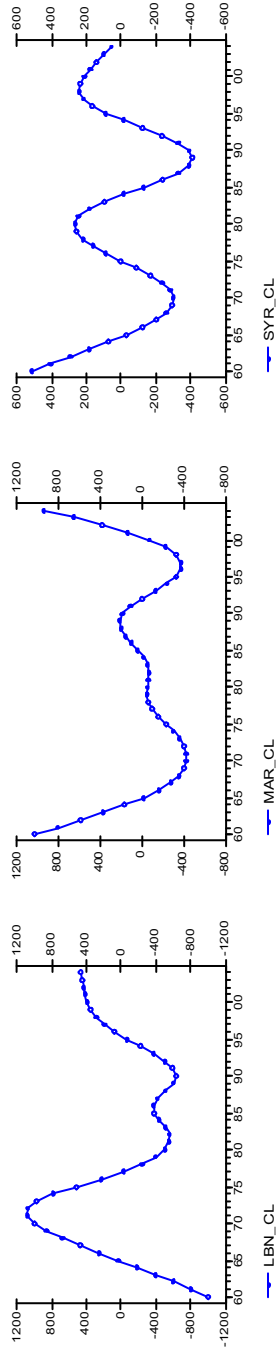
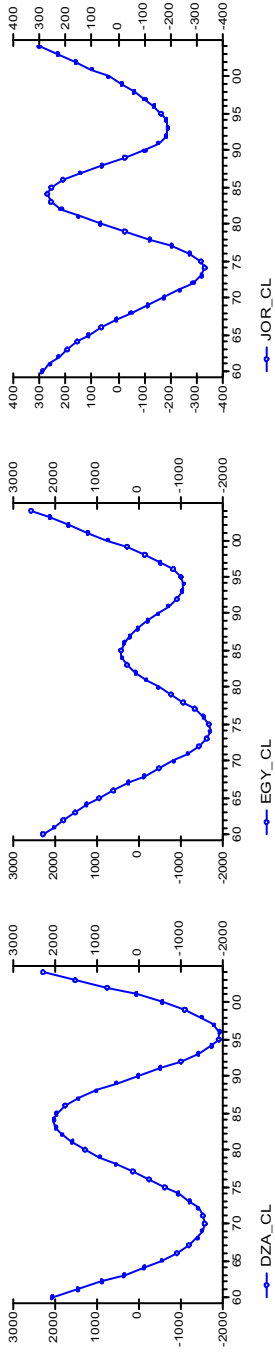
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## Cycles conjoncturels longs des pays de l'échantillon







## Chapter 3.

### *Transport infrastructures and South-South integration*



PART 1.

# Transport costs, Trade and South-Mediterranean integration<sup>1</sup>

*Sandy Dall'erba<sup>2</sup>, Sylvain Dejean, Saad Isseini<sup>3</sup>, Miren Lafourcade<sup>4</sup>*

## 1 Introduction

On 28 November 1995, the members of the European Union and 12 Mediterranean countries solemnly declared in Barcelona their intention to develop a long-lasting, stable partnership founded on economic growth, trade, mutual understanding and respect. One of the most important challenges faced currently by the South-Mediterranean countries is thus to decrease trade barriers in the Mediterranean area in order to promote trade both within this area and between this area and Europe. As recently emphasized by Anderson and Van Wincoop (2004) for industrialized countries, trade costs break down into three major components: retail and wholesale distribution costs, border-related trade barriers and transport costs, equivalent to respectively 55%, 44% and 21% of virtual tariffs on trade flows. In this paper, we investigate the role of the third component, transport costs, in shaping trade flows within the South-Mediterranean area.

We restrict the focus on Turkey and four Northern-African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia) that, altogether, host more than 90% of the population of the South-Mediterranean area, and produce more than 75% of its GDP.<sup>5</sup> Moreover, as illustrated by Figure 1, whereas the share of bilateral flows between these countries contributed to less than 15% of total South-Mediterranean trade in 1980, it experienced a remarkable rise since then to reach up to 30% today. This goes along with the increase in road infrastructure stocks over the same period.

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<sup>1</sup> This article is part of the FEMISE contract "Obstacles to South-south integration, to trade and to foreign direct investment: The MENA countries case". The authors gratefully acknowledge Nuno Limão for kindly providing the Canning (1998) "Database of World Stocks of Infrastructure, 1950-1995". We also thank Oscar Kuikeu for his very helpful comments.

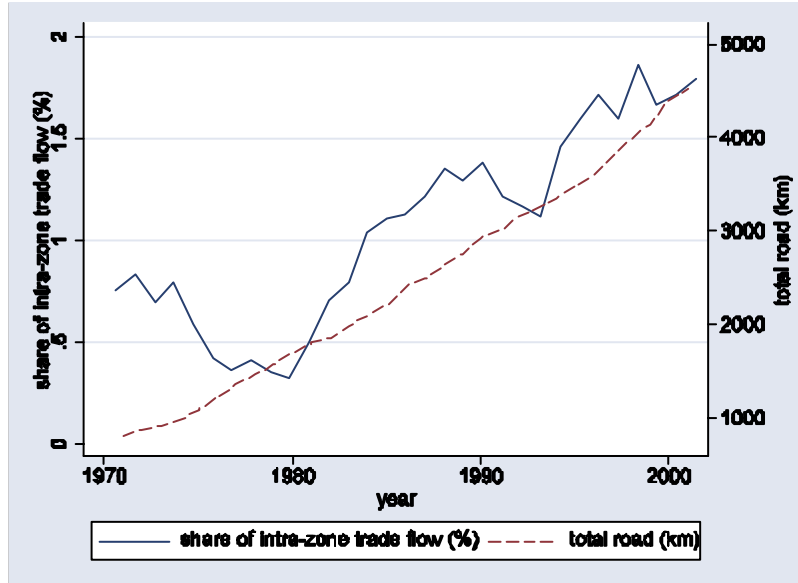
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<sup>5</sup> Transport data is too limited for Libya, Jordan and Lebanon. In addition, we exclude Israel, because its trade with the other South-Mediterranean countries is, to some extent, restricted because of extra-economic motives.

Figure 1: Share of South-Mediterranean bilateral trade in South-Mediterranean total trade



Source: World development Indicators 2004

We develop a transport cost measure in the same spirit as the most recent works of the World Bank, such as Limão and Venables (2001) or Clark *et al.* (2004). Our transport index is built on road and railroad infrastructure endowments, complemented with a measure of telecommunication costs, in order to account for the interdependency of infrastructure networks. However, in addition to previous literature, we pay particular attention to account for extra-transport costs arising from both real geography (the desert covers a large share of these countries), and bilateral conflicts (the Morocco-Algeria border is not crossable since 1994 because of a 20-year political disagreement on Sahara).

We use a standard gravity approach to estimate the trade impediments arising from bilateral maritime distance and the conjunction of poor domestic road and communication infrastructures for the two trade partners. Our main result is that improving infrastructures from the median to the top 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the current distribution leads to an increase of trade volumes by between 34% and 55%, depending on the quality of road networks, on the geography of desert and on the possible re-opening of the Morocco-Algeria border. This trade creating effect is equivalent for each country to being between 512km and 709km closer to its South-Mediterranean trade partners. Therefore, financing the simultaneous reduction of transport and information costs, in conjunction with the decrease of trade policy barriers, would support trade within the Mediterranean area.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. In section 2, we analyze the impact of decreasing trade barriers between the South-Mediterranean countries, on both their economic development and bilateral manufacturing flows, in light of the New Economic Geography theory (henceforth NEG). In section 3, we describe the data constraints and methodological issues we had to overcome to estimate transport costs within the Mediterranean area. Section 4 proceeds with data description, transport indexes construction, before turning to estimations and analyzing the policy implications of our results. Section 5 concludes and opens new lines of research.

## 2 Trade costs, integration and the geography of economic activities

According to the traditional international trade theory, based for instance on the Hecksher-Ohlin paradigm, differences in factor endowments combined with free factor mobility build comparative advantages that create trade. By contrast, the NEG models, which are based

on the conjunction of positive (and potentially large) trade costs and increasing returns to scale, are more appropriate to explain trade between *similar* economies. While decreasing trade costs affect the distribution of economic activities between countries that open up to trade in a way that strongly depends upon the production factors mobility, its trade impact is more consensual. This section is dedicated to a brief presentation of the specialization and trade implications of decreasing trade costs.

## 2.1 Trade costs and (uneven) industrial development<sup>6</sup>

The distribution of economic activities results in NEG models from a trade-off between agglomeration and dispersion forces. Agglomeration forces driven by market interactions rely first on product differentiation. The co-location of plants within the same region enables households to have increased access to a larger variety of goods. In addition, due the existence of vertical relations between input suppliers and final producers, agglomeration also benefits to firms through costs and demand linkages. However, agglomeration forces can also be driven by non-market interactions: communication and human capital externalities arising from interacting face-to-face and exchanging information are likely to increase labor productivity, for instance. Finally, agglomeration may reduce the occurrence of spatial mismatch, as a larger and more diversified labor market is likely to allow firms to find skills more easily, while increasing the workers chances to find a job.<sup>7</sup>

Among the main dispersion forces, one can count competition, when strategic interactions prevail, and the immobility of production factors or consumers. In the case of immobile labor workforce for instance, the co-location of firms is likely to ease pressure on wages and therefore to raise production costs. However, other dispersion forces may be due to increasing rents (Helpman, 1998), non tradable goods (Fujita *et al.*, 1999), urban commuting costs (Krugman and Livas, 1996), congestion or negative environmental externalities (Glaeser, 1996; Brackman *et al.*, 1996), arising from the excessive concentration of activities in the largest economic centers.

Standard NEG models are built on a 2-country/2-industry framework. Most often, they make the assumption that monopolistic competition and increasing returns to scale prevail in the manufacturing industry, as opposed to the perfectly competitive primary sector (for instance agriculture or housing). Consumers' preferences are thus defined over both a manufacturing and a primary good (most of the time in a Cobb-Douglas form). The manufacturing good is a combination of multiple differentiated varieties that can be produced either in the domestic or the foreign country, for instance in the following Dixit-Stiglitz (1977) CES form:

$$C_i = \left( \sum_{s=1}^N \sum_j (c_{ji}^s)^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} \right)^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}},$$

where  $c_i^s$  represents the consumption of product  $s$  in country  $i$ ,  $N = n_i + n_j$  is the total number of manufacturing varieties,  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  are the number of varieties produced respectively locally and abroad, and  $\sigma > 1$  is the elasticity of substitution between varieties.

To study how differences in the distribution of activities arise endogenously from the interaction between trade costs and increasing returns to scale in the manufacturing industry, NEG models postulate the *ex ante* symmetry of the two countries, and then investigate the changes in economic patterns arising from decreasing bilateral trade costs. Trade costs are

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<sup>6</sup> The reader will find a much more detailed presentation of the trade costs effects on specialization and disparities in Fujita *et al.* (1999).

<sup>7</sup> See for instance Thisse and Zénou (1995), Thisse and Van Ypersele (1999), or Combes and Duranton (2005).

modeled in the Samuelson (1954) iceberg way: if  $p_j$  denotes the Free On Board (henceforth FOB) manufacturing price of one variety produced abroad, the Cost Insurance Freight (henceforth CIF) equivalent price for the consumers at home is  $p_{ji} = \frac{p_j}{\tau_{ji}}$ , where  $\tau_{ji} < 1$  is the *ad valorem* trade cost between the two countries.

The demand side of the model solves in the following consumer's demands for each domestic ( $c_{ii}$ ) and foreign ( $c_{ij}$ ) representative variety, in country  $i$ :

$$c_{ii} = \frac{\mu R_i}{P_i} \left( \frac{p_i}{P_i} \right)^{-\sigma} \quad c_{ji} = \frac{\mu R_i}{P_i} \left( \frac{p_{ji}}{P_i} \right)^{-\sigma}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the share of the *endogenous* income  $R_i$  devoted to the consumers' expenses in manufacturing goods, and  $P_i = (n_i p_i^{1-\sigma} + n_j p_{ji}^{1-\sigma})^{1/\sigma}$ , the price index of manufacturing products in country  $i$ .

Turning to the supply side of NEG model, if one assumes that the manufacturing industry uses both labour and intermediate inputs in the same composite version than for final consumption, the total cost of production breaks into:

$$C_i(w_i, P_i, x_i) = w_i^{1-\mu} (P_i)^\mu (\alpha + \beta y_i),$$

where  $w_i$  is the wage in country  $i$ ,  $y_i$  is the production per plant, and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  are respectively the fixed and marginal cost requirements.

Each plant demand for a representative intermediate input takes the same form as for consumers, and breaks down into a demand for local varieties ( $k_{ii}^s$ ) and varieties shipped from abroad ( $k_{ij}^s$ ):

$$k_{ii}^s = \frac{\mu C_i}{P_i} \left( \frac{p_i}{P_i} \right)^{-\sigma} \quad k_{ji}^s = \frac{\mu C_i}{P_i} \left( \frac{p_{ji}}{P_i} \right)^{-\sigma}. \quad (2)$$

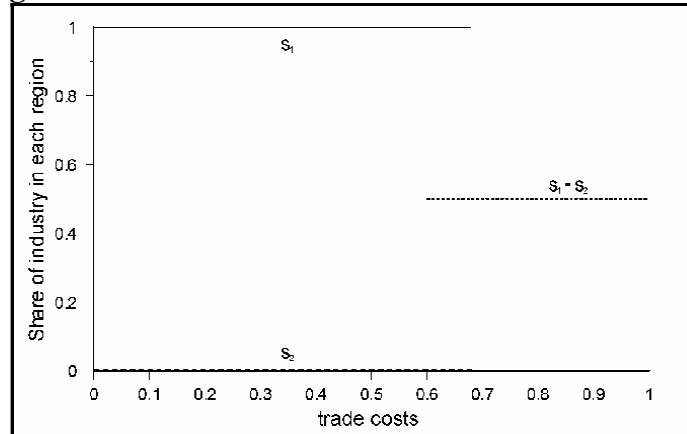
Clearing goods and labour market conditions, endogenizing country incomes as the sum of the wages earned in each country, leads to the zero-profit equilibrium expressions of the FOB price, production per plant and labour per plant:

$$p_i = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \beta w_i \quad \bar{y} = \frac{\alpha(\sigma - 1)}{\beta} \quad l_i = \alpha \sigma. \quad (3)$$

As regards the distribution of the footloose manufacturing industry, multiple equilibria may coexist in both countries, depending on the level of trade costs.

Let us first examine the case when labour can move freely between countries.<sup>8</sup> Figure 2 plots the changes in the distribution of manufacturing industry arising from decreasing trade costs.

<sup>8</sup> This case was studied for instance by Krugman (1991), in a simpler version (without intermediate inputs).

**Figure 2: Trade costs and location when labor is mobile**

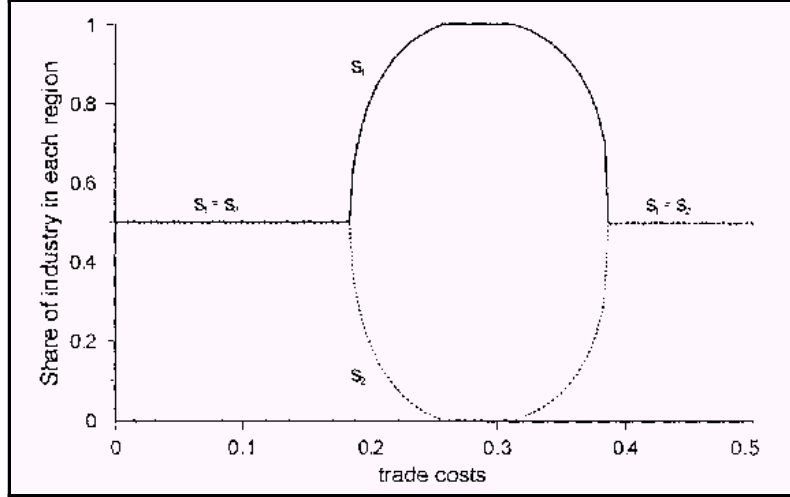
As one can see, when trade costs fall below a first threshold, the “*sustain*” point ( $\tau_{ji} = 0.7$ ), an asymmetric equilibrium where the whole manufacturing industry concentrates in one of the two countries, becomes sustainable, on top of the symmetric equilibrium where the two countries share half of the same industry. Below a second critical threshold, the “*break*” point ( $\tau_{ji} = 0.5$ ), the symmetric equilibrium breaks down and agglomeration in the manufacturing industry occurs systematically at the expense of one of the two countries, which specializes in the primary sector.

The underlying economic mechanisms explaining the concentration phenomenon are simple. Firms concentrate in the country where firms are already the more numerous (workers-consumers are richer and inputs demand is larger) to benefit from increasing returns to scale (one location-plant is preferable to two-location plants because of fixed costs of production), as low trade costs make simultaneously their exports cheaper to the other countries. And the concentration process self-reinforces due to labour migrations: workers-consumers move to the country where they benefit from the lower price index (*i.e.* the country where firms are more numerous because of the trade costs included in the price index). In return, the country attracts new firms because of demand linkages (demand of consumers is larger due to both more numerous and richer consumers), and cost linkages (input suppliers follow final producers), and so forth...

However, as labor mobility may be rather limited in South-Mediterranean countries, one has to study the counterpart case when the absence of migrations acts as a dispersion force that is likely to counterbalance the agglomeration. Figure 3 is the counterpart of Figure 2, when labor is immobile between countries.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> This case was deeply studied by Krugman and Venables (1995) and Puga (1999).



**Figure 3: Trade costs and location when labor is immobile**

As there is no interregional mobility, when trade costs decrease and firms concentrate in the larger market, workers cannot be drawn from the other country and therefore nominal wages increase in the manufacturing industry to poach labor from the primary sector. Under a certain threshold of trade costs ( $\tau_{ji} = 0.25$ ), losses due to high nominal wages cannot be outpaced by the gains arising from increasing returns to scale. Because trade costs are very low, firms therefore relocate to the other country where they can benefit from lower wages (as the two sectors coexist there) and from where they can re-exports at low costs. The result is a bell-shaped pattern of industrialization.

## 2.2 Trade costs and manufacturing flows<sup>10</sup>

It is straightforward to derive from the model presented in section 2.1. a theory-grounded specification of trade flows. Demands from both the consumers (final demand) and the producers of final goods (intermediate demand) lead to the following value of country  $i$  exports towards country  $j$ :

$$X_{ij} = n_i p_{ij} (c_{ij} + k_{ij}) = n_i Y_j \left( \frac{p_{ij}}{P_j} \right)^{1-\sigma},$$

where  $Y_j = \mu(R_j + C_j)$  is total expenditure devoted to manufacturing industry in country  $j$ .

Taking into account that  $Y_i = n_i p_i \bar{y}$  and  $p_{ij} = \frac{p_i}{\tau_{ij}}$ , we obtain:

$$X_{ij} = \frac{Y_i Y_j}{y p_i} \left( \frac{p_i}{P_j} \right)^{1-\sigma} (\tau_{ij})^{\sigma-1}$$

Simple log-linearization leads to the following trade *in volume*:

<sup>10</sup> The reader will find a very detailed presentation of gravity specifications and related issues in Feenstra (2004).

$$\ln(X_{ij}) = \text{Constant} + \ln(Y_i Y_j) - (1 - \sigma)\tau_{ij} - \sigma \ln\left(\frac{p_i}{P_j}\right) \quad (4)$$

Equation (4) involves three groups of variables: Origin-specific ( $Y_i$  and  $p_i$ ), destination-specific ( $Y_j$  and  $P_j$ ), and “dyadic” or bilateral-specific ( $X_{ij}$  and  $\tau_{ij}$ ). Trade flows ( $X_{ij}$ ) and the total expenditures of the origin and destination countries ( $Y_i$  and  $Y_j$ ) are among the data demanding the less variables, as they are directly available from official and reliable sources. Price variables ( $p_i$  and  $P_j$ ), which cannot be derived from any data source, will be controlled for in the econometrics provided in Section 4. The trade cost variable,  $\tau_{ij}$ , combines distribution costs, border barriers and transport costs. While data constraints will lead us to simply ignore the first component, border barriers will be controlled for by nominal exchange rates and contiguity dummies. We investigate thoroughly the third component, transport costs, in Section 3.

### 3 Measuring transport costs in the South-Mediterranean area

Measuring transport costs leads to numerous issues that have been extensively discussed by Anderson and Van Wincoop (2004). The most direct way to measure the transport component of trade costs is to receive accurate data on freight rates from transport carriers, as most of them report their transport expenditures for accounts or regulation necessities. However, as such data is accessible in a few countries only, the value of transport costs is most often inferred by decomposing (either with regression or shift-share analysis) existing data into its main components, in order to extrapolate new measures for the countries where direct data is not available. This is the approach we adopt here.

#### 3.1 Freight cost data

One of the most advanced step towards gathering and analyzing transport carriers accounts is due to Hummels (1999, 2001a, 2001b), who collects freight costs for different countries (USA, New Zealand and a few Latin American countries) and for different transport modes (air and maritime). Limão and Venables (2001) also report the shipping costs of transporting a standard container from Baltimore (USA) to 64 selected destinations worldwide. Micco and Serebrisky (2004) focus on air transport costs and use freight charges per unit of weight from the US Imports of Merchandise Database while Fink *et al.* (2000) for maritime transport costs employ data from The Waterborne Trade Database compiled by the US Department Of Transportation.

Contrasting with these *inter-country* approaches, Combes and Lafourcade (2005) use a Geographic Information System (GIS) of the French road transport network, in conjunction with freight costs data, to measure transport costs between French *regions*. Their measure is built on two different costs: while the first component is based on a *distance* cost that includes gasoline costs (defined as the product of gasoline consumption and oil price), vehicles repairing charges, and the cost of renewing tires, the second component is a *time* opportunity cost accounting for the drivers’ wages, insurances, taxes, vehicle depreciation, maintenance and other general charges. Combining the distance and time costs born by road transport carriers and optimizing over the set all existing routes, Combes and Lafourcade (2005) obtain the *generalized* transport cost of a truck joining any pair of French regions through the real road network for different years (1978, 1993, 1996, and 1998).

For our study, we devoted drastic efforts to collect a sample of freight costs in the Mediterranean area, by requesting different routes quotations to both international and South-

Mediterranean transport companies specialized in maritime and other transport services. Unfortunately, the private nature of this information led most of these companies to ignore our requests,<sup>11</sup> and we had to give up the ambition to collect direct freight costs data.

### 3.2 CIF/FOB *ad valorem* shares of trade values

Transport costs may be calculated according to a CIF/FOB ratio based on the customs trade statistics. Indeed, exporting countries measure trade flows without including freight, insurance and transit costs, while importing countries do include them. The ratio of trade inclusive of Cost Insurance Freight costs over the related Free On Board value is the *ad valorem* transport cost between countries. This measure is thus still exclusive of custom charges. The CIF/FOB approach, which has been widely used by international trade economists,<sup>12</sup> is also the one adopted by the IMF (International Monetary Fund) Direction for trade statistics: the IFS database covers a long period (1948-1997) and numerous developed and developing countries (41 over this period).

However, as revealed by the analysis performed by Hummels and Lugovskyy (2003), the CIF/FOB ratios derived from this database display many inconsistencies, in addition to composition and aggregation biases.

Their main argument is that, most of the time, only one partner reports trade, which requires extrapolating the symmetric missing value for the other partner. In this case, the IMF usually adds 10% of the available FOB to obtain the related CIF value (and conversely). The *ad valorem* cost *postulated* here is thus useless, as it does not reflect any real freight charge. The second limit underlined by the authors is that the CIF/FOB ratios differ from one version of the database to another, because of the corrections made on previous versions. As an example, they illustrate that, for the year 1970, the US ratio is either 1.13, 1.09 or 1.06 depending on the version used, which leads to much larger measurement errors (around 50% for the US case) on transport costs.

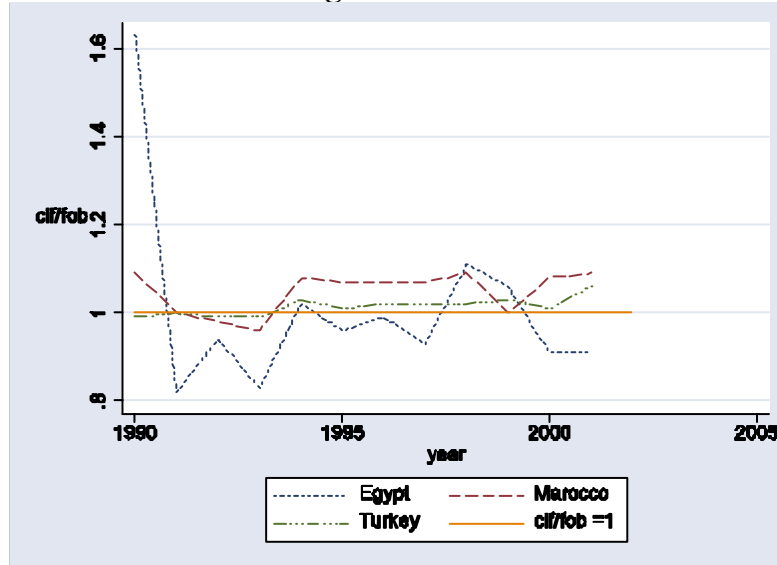
Their second main criticism highlights the drawbacks arising from not reporting outflows carefully. Developing countries are among the most error-ridden reporters, which is very unfortunate for our study. The following figure, that depicts the IMF CIF/FOB ratios obtained for three of our sample countries (Egypt, Morocco and Turkey) over 1990-2002, gives a clear illustration of this issue. As one can see, 43% of the ratios are below unity, or even more dramatic, negative. In addition, the drastic volatility of the Egyptian ratio indicates serious methodological problems.

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<sup>11</sup> 220 demands have been sent for 4% answer back: only 9 replies have been received.

<sup>12</sup> See for instance Amjadi and Yeats (1995), Amjadi *et al.* (1996), Amjadi and Winters (1997), Baier and Bergstrand (2001), Radelet and Sachs (1998), Limão and Venables (2001), or Bernard *et al.* (2003).

Figure 4: CIF/FOB *ad valorem* average ratios in three South-Mediterranean countries



Source: IMF (IFS database)

Anyway, these ratios are *averaged* over all destination countries and not *bilateral*, which is a clear handicap in light of the bilateral trade impact we tend to measure in this study.

### 3.3 Transport costs determinants

As most of our intents to collect direct transport information from carriers operating within the Mediterranean zone were not successful, we turned to the reduced form approach. Determinants that were proved to play a crucial role in shaping real transport costs are numerous. Therefore, this section briefly sketches them, before turning to the presentation of the variables available for our five South-Mediterranean countries.

#### *Distance, Time and Transport Mode*

Distance is the first main determinant of transport costs, as it is more costly to deliver commodities far away than close by, due for instance to energy consumption. However, the impact of distance on transport costs strongly depends upon the transport mode.

Radelet and Sachs (1998) find a 0.13 elasticity of CIF/FOB ratios with respect to maritime distance, which means that increasing sea distance by 100% (thus doubling distance) raises transport costs by 13%. Limão and Venables (2001) estimate that an extra 1,000 km raises transport costs by \$380 (or 8%) for the median shipper from the US. The same extra 1,000 km leads to a \$190 (4%) rise on sea routes, and \$1380 (30%) on overland routes. In the same vein, Clark *et al.* (2004) add that distance has a large impact on the maritime transport charges of liner companies: Doubling sea distance increases transport costs by 18%.

As regards to air transport, Micco and Serebrisky (2004) estimate that distance has an impact of the same order on air transport costs (around 20%). Combes and Lafourcade (2005) find a much larger elasticity for overland transport, at 0.8 in 1998. All the transport expenses related to distance (and not distance only) led to a 19.5% points contribution to the 38.3% decrease in the French road transport costs over 1978-1998.

The Moroccan ministry of transport clearly states that decreasing distance costs was one of the most important challenges faced by Morocco in the future. In order to reflect the extent of the efforts to come, it pointed out that a 1-ton shipment originating from Singapore was at a “virtual distance” of \$10 from the European market, versus \$100 when originating from Casablanca. According to the Moroccan authorities, transport cost per kilometre would be 55 times larger from Morocco than from Singapore.

Time is another major component of transport costs. Indeed, consumers are sometimes ready to pay a large premium to benefit from fast delivery. Transport companies thus bear more and more constraints due to the need to practice “just-in-time” and express delivery.

Hummels (2001b) reports that shipping a container from a European harbour to the Midwest of the US requires 2 to 3 weeks, while taking 1 day only by air. However, although air transport is still much more expensive than maritime transport, the demand for this mode has been increasing recently. Importers are thus willing to pay an extra cost to benefit from fast delivery. This premium is likely to reflect both the extra-inventory costs born by maritime shipments at the departure and arrival harbours, as well as the possible depreciation of goods due to large time delays spent in transport. Moreover, an increasing proportion of trade includes high-valuable or perishable goods that need secure and fast delivering associated with large freight and insurance costs, whereas inventory costs may be extremely large for commodities such as perishable goods. Depreciation more generally “includes all the reasons for which one prefers a new product over an old one”.

Hummels (2001b) expresses any extra day of travel into an *ad valorem* tax. He finds that, on average, 1 extra day of shipping is worth 0.8% of the value of manufacturing goods, which corresponds to a 16% tariff equivalent for maritime transport. Furthermore, Hummels (2001b) estimates that each additional day spent in transport reduces the probability that the US will source the related market by 1-1.5 %, while the tariff-equivalent decrease arising from making transport faster during the 1950-1998 period (through air shipping and performing ocean vessels) would amount to as much as 39% for manufacturing goods.

Combes and Lafourcade (2005) estimate that the decrease in all the transport expenses related to time explains 15.6% points of the 38.3% decrease in road transport costs that occurred in France over the 1978-1998 period.

More generally, Anderson and Van Wincoop (2004) estimate that the time value of goods in transit is equivalent to a 9% tax equivalent for the US country.

### ***Geography and Infrastructure***

However, distance and time determinants of transport costs are intricately linked to real geography. Because infrastructure networks are usually designed to overcome any geographical obstacles to the move of people and goods and to reduce both distance and time, they are also likely to affect transport costs.

Combes and Lafourcade (2005) estimate that the topology of the French road network system affects only slightly transport costs: road networks contributed to 3.2% points of the 38.3% decrease in French transport costs over the past two decades. However, it might be that the gain due to improving transport infrastructures decreases with the level of development. Indeed, based on shipping data from many developing countries to the US, Limão and Venables (2001) find that improving the transportation infrastructure endowment of a country from the 75<sup>th</sup> to the 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles reduces transport costs by 30% and by more than 50% if one uses the IMF ratios. In addition, the same improvement in the infrastructure of transit countries reduces by nearly 60% the disadvantage of being landlocked.

Clark *et al.* (2004) build different measures of infrastructures. An efficiency index based on the Global Competitiveness Report is scaled from 1 to 7. In conjunction with the total square number of largest seaports by unit of population and area, both indices are meant to capture the efficiency of ports. In addition, they replicate the Limão and Venables (2001) index of global infrastructure. They find that improving port efficiency from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile reduces shipping costs by 12%, translating into the distance-equivalence that “bad” ports are on average 60% further away from markets. Variables impacting negatively port efficiency, such as excessive regulation, organized crime, or bad superstructures, would even create self-reinforcing magnification of transport costs.

Micco and Serebrisky (2004) also report that airport infrastructure endowments, as measured by the square of the number of airports with more than 1500m runways by unit of population and area, have a highly significant and negative impact on air transport costs, even once accounted for possible reversal causality. Improving airport infrastructures from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile would reduce air transport costs by 15%.

### ***Transport market structure, insurance fees and public regulations***

One of the most important determinants of transport costs, still rather ignored unfortunately, is the degree of competition on transport markets. Policies that lower entry barriers on these markets reduce the monopoly power of transport companies, thus leading to possible important decreases in transport prices. The recent studies of Fink *et al.* (2005), Clark *et al.* (2004), Micco and Serebrisky (2004), Fink, Mattoo and Neagu (2005) and Combes and Lafourcade (2005) support the argument that excessive mark-up and anti-competitive practices such as cartels magnify transport costs.

Fink *et al.* (2005) find that liberalizing maritime transport services and breaking up private carriers' agreements would lead to a 30% average reduction of liner prices that would translate into up to \$3 billions savings on the goods carried to the US. Following Fink *et al.* (2005), Clark *et al.* (2004) estimate that maritime conferences would magnify transport costs of around 5%. As regards to air transport, Micco and Serebrisky (2004) estimate that improving the quality of regulation (through the level and structure of airport-related fees and aeronautical services tariffs) leads to a 14 % decrease in air transport prices. Open Skies Agreements would further reduce transport costs by 8%. Finally, Combes and Lafourcade (2005) emphasized that the liberalization of road transport in France (through the abolition of license quotas to enter the markets and regulated prices), jointly with the establishment of new contractual arrangements with vehicles concessionaries, contributed to 21.8 percentage points in the decrease in road transport costs over the 1978-1998 period.

In parallel to transport market competition structure, the regulation of other markets upon which transport services are intricately related, such as insurance or labour, is actually also a determinant of transport costs. For instance, Combes and Lafourcade (2005) report that the changes that occurred in the French insurance system over 1978-1998 (as the abolition of the 9% insurance premium tax on both commodities and vehicles) contributed to 1.1% points in the decrease in road transport costs over the same period. Clark *et al.* (2004) also estimate that insurance fees are, on average, around 2% of the international values shipped, and 15% of total maritime charges, an estimation range that is comforted by Micco and Serebrisky (2004) for air transport.

Tunisia recently promulgated a couple of laws designed to control the working conditions of its shipping companies for the 1998-2000 period. In addition, it imposed to port administration the application of a new code defining “the rules that guarantee security and protection of working conditions in harbours”. Over the 2001-2002 period, new organisational measures were also implemented in the Algerian harbours in order to reduce by 36% the average time of stay alongside quays.

### ***Energy***

Energy savings due to the decrease of either fuel price, oil consumption, or related public taxes,<sup>13</sup> are also likely to decrease transport costs.

For instance, Combes and Lafourcade (2005) evaluate that energy savings contributed up to 6.0% points in the 38.3% decrease in the French road transport costs. Once they take into account that oil price decreased by 19.0% and oil consumption by 21.9%, they derive from a shift-share analysis the contribution of each of these two components in the total variation of

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<sup>13</sup> Notice that this element could also enter the regulation savings already mentioned.

transport costs. The impacts of oil price (2.8% points) and oil consumption (3.2%) are found to be as large as the topologic effect of road infrastructures (3.2%).

### ***Transport technology, logistics and norms***

Technological changes and the progresses in logistic chains, through for instance the adoption of yield management strategies, are also important determinants of transport costs.

Clark *et al.* (2004) underline that containerization, the main vector of technological change for both vessels and seaports, reduces cargo handling costs, increases transshipments, and therefore enhances national and international cabotage. Moreover, those lead in turn to the creation of hubs ports and gains arising from increasing returns to scale which may also be large. The authors estimate that containers decrease transport costs by 4%, based on more than 90% degree of containerization for steamships in 1998.

Combes and Lafourcade (2005) find that the contribution of technology to the decrease of road transport is even larger, as it conveyed 10.9% points in the 38.3% decrease in the French road transport costs. The largest gains were driven by the reduction of gasoline consumption, as truck manufacturers reacted to the two oil shocks by developing new engines, eliminating obsolete vehicles and putting incentives to training drivers to save energy, in conjunction with the increase in the quality of vehicles and roadways.

Raballand and Aldaz-Carroll (2005) investigate the impact of various international pallet standards on transport costs. Although pallets are used by the majority of transport carriers (80% in the US), because of its easy stocking, product protection and efficient distribution, hundreds of pallets types still exist. The authors do not focus on the composition of pallets, but rather on their variety and their size. They measure whether a larger diversity leads to an increase in transport costs arising from break-loading in transit countries, as goods have to be taken out of their initial pallet and transferred to a new one which respects the standards of the destination country. As these changes are generally handmade in developing countries, mostly due to low value-added goods, the result is that transport costs are even larger there. Exporting firms of developing countries would thus be more sensitive to extra costs arising from the coexistence of multiple pallet types. White (2000) estimates for instance that the extra-costs due to changing pallets are 21% of the value of the bananas traded from Ecuador to Europe. This example indicates the extent to which harmonising standards could reduce transport costs.

### ***Other determinants***

Trade composition may additionally magnify transport costs, as directional imbalance between imports and exports between countries imply that transport carriers may be forced to haul empty or low volumes vehicles/containers back (Clark *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, if increasing returns to scale prevail in transport, both at the vehicle/vessel or infrastructure levels, the magnification of transport costs linked to trade composition could be even larger. Finally, in industrialized countries, the different tolls and fees paid in order to access the infrastructures can also slightly magnify transport costs (Combes and Lafourcade, 2005) and induce changes in the structure of transport intermodality.

## ***3.4 Transport costs in South-Mediterranean countries***

Transport costs determinants are therefore numerous and, as we mentioned it in sub-sections 3.1 and 3.2, transport data is scarce for the South-Mediterranean area. Data constraints prevent us to use direct measures of freight charges or CIF/FOB ratios, and to capture determinants such as the transport market structure, insurance fees, public regulations and technology.<sup>14</sup> We therefore restrict the study of transport costs to a reduced form of distance, transport mode, infrastructure and geography.

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<sup>14</sup> Available data sources and related contents are listed in the appendix.

As regards to transport mode, it is important to note that most of the shipments conveyed between the five Mediterranean countries under study are maritime flows. Geography obviously explains that maritime transport plays a key role here. First, all those five countries have direct access to the Mediterranean Sea, and therefore most of their economic activities is agglomerated on the coast. Second, the presence of deserts in between Morocco and Algeria and in Libya (which is located in between Tunisia and Egypt), in conjunction with political instability in Lebanon, Jordan and Israel, which are all located in between Turkey and Maghreb, makes maritime shipments the most convenient transport mode. Finally, the conflict between Morocco and Algeria on Sahara, which in practice is reflected by the impossibility for people or shipments to cross the border, imposes additional transport costs linked to the need to drive flows towards the coast, in order to be shipped by boat.

However, we prefer to consider all transport modes, and therefore all types of infrastructures, because they are highly interdependent in practice. As an example, improving the performance of harbours would not reduce transport costs without any counterpart support to the road network, in order to favour shipments towards the interior country. In the same vein, we consider that promoting international trade would not be feasible without support to information and telecommunication systems. The efficiency of airports, train stations and harbours strongly depends upon informatics as it is the only means to manage the increasing demand for transport.

The reduced form of transport cost we use is therefore:

$$t_{ij} = f(\underbrace{Dist_{ij}}_+, \underbrace{Bord_{ij}}_-, \underbrace{Inf_i}_-, \underbrace{Inf_j}_-), \quad (5)$$

where  $Dist_{ij}$  is the average bilateral distance shipped between country  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $Inf_i$  and  $Inf_j$  are their respective indexes of infrastructures, and  $Bord_{ij}$  is a contiguity effect capturing border issues, if any.

## 4 Data, estimations and policy implications

The specification we estimate is therefore the following:

$$\ln(X_{ijt}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln(Y_{it} \times Y_{jt}) - \beta_2 \ln Dist_{ij} + \beta_3 \ln(Inf_{it} \times Inf_{jt}) - \beta_4 \ln\left(e_{ij} \times \frac{PI_i}{PI_j}\right) + \beta_5 Bord_{ij} + v_t + \varepsilon_{ijt}, \quad (7)$$

where  $e_{ij} \times (PI_i/PI_j)$  is the *real* bilateral exchange rate, capturing the changes in relative prices (through the ratio of the two countries price indexes  $PI_i/PI_j$ ), and the changes in nominal exchange rates.  $v_t$  is a yearly fixed-effect that controls for any time variable affecting both countries the same way, and  $\varepsilon_{ijt}$  is the error term.

### 4.1 Data

Trade flows between Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey come from the CHELEM database (CEPII), which displays bilateral export and import values, in current million dollars, for 71 country-groups over the 1967-2001 period. When we aggregate trade flows over all the industries under study, our sample amounts to 700 observations at most (20 bilateral trade flows  $\times$  35 years), depending on whether the data of the RHS (right hand side) variables are missing or not. However, as we have to be cautious that the trends exhibited are not due to specific industry issues, we will compare the estimates on both the aggregate and the disaggregated flows, once we control for industry fixed characteristics (for instance, as Algeria exports mainly natural gas and oil to its trading partners, pipelines infrastructures would have to



be considered). When trade flows are not aggregated over all the industries, our sample includes 50400 observations at most (20 bilateral trade flows  $\times$  35 years  $\times$  72 sectors).

As regards to the explanatory variables of equation (7), we approximate the total expenditures of the origin and destination countries, respectively  $Y_i$  and  $Y_j$ , by their respective per capita GDP in 1995 constant dollar prices, as given by the 2004 version of the *World Development Indicators*.

The first component of transport costs,  $Dist_{ij}$ , can be measured in several ways. The simplest way consists in taking the great-circle distance between countries. However, as we already mentioned it, in the Mediterranean area, geography is likely to impose to surround deserts and to avoid closed borders. As we can expect internal road and railroad infrastructures to capture the extra-costs borne to overcome geography and to join ports, the real bilateral distance shipped is therefore generally much lower than the great circle one (it corresponds to port bilateral distance since maritime transport is the cheapest transport modes). Therefore we compute maritime distance as the arithmetic average of the great-circle distances between the main harbours of each of the two countries.

The second component,  $Bord_{ij} \in (Bord1_{ij}, Bord2_{ij})$ , refers to contiguity.  $Bord1_{ij}$ , indicates that the trade flow observed occurs between countries that share a common border. However, we define a second version of contiguity,  $Bord2_{ij}$ , to take into account the fact that, despite common frontier, Morocco and Algeria do not connect one another in practice, because of political conflict. Thus, in comparison with  $Bord1_{ij}$ ,  $Bord2_{ij} \neq 1$  when the value observed represents trade between Morocco and Algeria after 1994 (and conversely).

As regards to infrastructures, we combine the transport and communication data coming from different sources detailed in the Appendix. The methodology we use to build the related indices is directly inspired from the works of Clark *et al.* (2004) and Limão and Venables (2001), already presented in section 3.

For each country  $i$  available in our sample, we compute a Telecommunication Index,  $TI_i$ , based on the country  $i$ 's share of phone lines per inhabitant in the South-Mediterranean area (restricted to our five countries):<sup>15</sup>

$$TI_i = \frac{\frac{Tel_i}{pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{Tel_j}{pop_j}}$$

As regard to transport infrastructures, we compute two different railroad indices:

$$TFI_1 = \frac{\frac{kmrail_i}{pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{kmrail_j}{pop_j}}, \text{ and } TFI_2 = \frac{\frac{kmrail_i^2}{ter_i \times pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{kmrail_j^2}{ter_j \times pop_j}}$$

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<sup>15</sup> It does not seem relevant to divide the number of phone lines by the country area, as in Clark *et al.* (2004). Indeed, the number of phone lines is an implicit function of the number of people, but not of the size of the territory. As an example, we note that two individuals located at 100 or 1000km from each other would need the same number of phone lines to communicate, whereas the number of km they would have to travel for meeting differs.

The first index,  $TFI_i$ , is the country  $i$ 's share of rail per inhabitant in the South-Mediterranean area. The second index,  $TFI2_i$ , is the country  $i$ 's share of the square of the railroad network length by population and area unit, still in the South-Mediterranean area.

Road transport indices are computed in the same vein:  $TTRI_i$  is computed in reference to the total length of the road network ( $tr$ ), whereas  $TTRPI_i$  only includes paved roads:

$$TTRI_i = \frac{\frac{tr_i}{pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{tr_j}{pop_j}}, \text{ and } TTRI2_i = \frac{\frac{tr_i^2}{ter_i \times pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{tr_j^2}{ter_j \times pop_j}}$$

$$TTRP_i = \frac{\frac{trp_i}{pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{trp_j}{pop_j}}, \text{ and } TTRP2_i = \frac{\frac{trp_i^2}{ter_i \times pop_i}}{\sum_j \frac{trp_j^2}{ter_j \times pop_j}}$$

The distinction between paved road and total roads is meant to test whether infrastructure *quality* is likely to affect transport costs, *in addition to the network length*.

To take into account the interdependency of transport and communication networks, we build a combined index, based on the following averages:

$$Inf_i = average\{TTRI_i, TI_i, TFI_i\}$$

if the three of them do exist

$$Inf2_i = average\{TTRI2_i, TI_i, TFI2_i\}$$

if the three of them do exist.

$$Infp_i = average\{TTRPI_i, TI_i, TFI_i\}$$

if the three of them do exist.

$$Infp2_i = average\{TTRPI2_i, TI_i, TFI2_i\}$$

if the three of them do exist.

As we intend to use all the available information for each index, we use the average of two sub-indexes if the third one does not exist, or a single sub-index if the two others do not exist.

## 4.2 Results on trade flows aggregated over industries

Each table reports 6 columns of results: columns (1) and (2) report the baseline OLS (Ordinary Least Square) estimation results of equation (7) with our two respective measures of contiguity. Columns (3) and (4) are the counterparts of columns (1) and (2) when possible spatial autocorrelation between residuals is controlled for. We report in columns (5) and (6) the estimation results of equation (7) when the current infrastructure indices are instrumented by the 5-year lagged counterparts, in order to correct for possible reverse causality between trade and infrastructure networks.

Table 1a: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per inhabitant

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.43*** (4.66)	0.46*** (5.05)	0.43* (2.00)	0.46** (2.19)	0.41* (1.79)	0.45* (1.98)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.67*** (-5.55)	-0.61*** (5.19)	-0.67** (-2.52)	-0.61** (-2.11)	-0.65** (-2.20)	-0.59* (-1.87)
$Inf_{it} \times Inf_{jt}$	0.98*** (8.34)	0.94*** (7.98)	0.98*** (4.32)	0.94*** (4.27)	1.19*** (4.10)	1.16*** (4.12)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.1 (0.49)		0.1 (0.25)		0.02 (0.04)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.4* (1.81)		0.4 (1.37)		0.3 (1.00)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02** (-2.17)	-0.02** (-2.15)	-0.02 (-0.93)	-0.02 (-0.92)	-0.01 (-0.65)	-0.01 (-0.65)
Intercept	1.4 (0.67)	-0.02 (-0.01)	1.4 (0.32)	-0.02 (0.00)	2.2 (0.49)	0.8 (0.18)
<b>R2</b>	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.58	0.54	<b>0.54</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	547	547	547	547	494	494

Table 1b: Estimation results with paved road infrastructure indexes per inhabitant

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.64*** (7.52)	0.67*** (7.83)	0.65*** (3.57)	0.67*** (3.75)	0.63*** (3.16)	0.65*** (3.28)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.68*** (-5.49)	-0.63*** (-5.26)	-0.68** (-2.51)	-0.63** (-2.17)	-0.64** (-2.16)	-0.6* (-1.97)
$Inf_{it} \times Inf_{jt}$	0.85*** (6.73)	0.81*** (6.34)	0.85*** (3.79)	0.81*** (3.77)	1.35*** (4.25)	1.3*** (4.15)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.22 (0.98)		0.22 (0.47)		0.1 (0.22)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.48** (2.15)		0.48 (1.44)		0.31 (-0.65)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02** (-2.21)	-0.02** (-2.19)	-0.02 (-0.95)	-0.02 (-0.94)	-0.01 (-0.65)	-0.01 (-0.65)
Intercept	-3.51* (-1.84)	-4.65** (2.46)	-3.51 (-1.03)	-4.65 (-1.34)	-1.66 (-0.45)	-2.6 (-0.69)
<b>R2</b>	0.52	0.53	0.56	0.56	0.53	<b>0.53</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	547	547	547	547	494	494

Note: Trade flows pooled over exports and imports. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* mean significant at the level of 1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. <sup>a</sup>Robust standard errors in brackets (Hubber and White sandwich estimator with clusters defined on each value).

Table 2a: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per population and corrected area unit

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.68*** (8.26)	0.7*** (8.58)	0.68*** (3.78)	0.7*** (3.95)	0.69*** (2.90)	0.71*** (3.03)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.87*** (-7.2)	-0.83*** (-7.1)	-0.87*** (-2.95)	-0.83** (-2.74)	-0.88** (-2.55)	-0.85** (-2.44)
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.79*** (8.55)	0.78*** (8.51)	0.79*** (6.11)	0.78*** (6.10)	0.96** (2.77)	0.93*** (2.80)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.61*** (2.83)		0.61 (1.41)		0.58 (1.24)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.84*** (3.99)		0.84** (2.63)		0.79** (2.25)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02** (-2.27)	-0.02** (-2.24)	-0.02 (-0.93)		-0.01 (-0.58)	-0.01 (-0.58)
Intercept	-2.23 (-1.2)	-3.1* (-1.68)	-2.24 (-0.58)	-3.1 (-0.79)	-2.7 (-0.51)	-3.52 (-0.66)
<b>R2</b>	0.58	0.59	0.58	0.59	0.51	<b>0.52</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	547	547	547	547	494	494

Table 2b: Estimation results with paved road infrastructure indexes per population and corrected area unit

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.93*** (10.58)	0.94*** (10.87)	0.93*** (4.77)	0.94*** (4.88)	1.03*** (3.96)	1.03*** (4.05)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.89*** (-7.05)	-0.85*** (-6.94)	-0.89*** (-3.01)	-0.85** (-2.81)	-0.97** (-2.60)	-0.95** (-2.57)
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.65*** (6.27)	0.62*** (6.14)	0.65*** (4.11)	0.62*** (4.26)	1.03*** (3.19)	0.99*** (3.18)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.62*** (2.79)		0.62 (1.28)		0.67 (1.28)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.83*** (3.82)		0.83** (2.21)		0.81* (1.87)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02** (-2.33)	-0.02** (-2.30)	-0.02 (-0.95)	-0.02 (-0.95)	-0.02 (-0.58)	-0.01 (-0.58)
Intercept	-7.99*** (-4.43)	-8.69*** (-4.94)	-7.99* (-2.00)	-8.7** (-2.15)	-8.68* (-1.85)	-9.12* (-1.96)
<b>R2</b>	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.56	0.49	<b>0.49</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	547	547	547	547	494	494

Note: Trade flows pooled over exports and imports. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* mean significant at the level of 1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. <sup>a</sup>Robust standard errors in brackets (Hubber and White sandwich estimator with clusters defined on each value).

All results lead to the expected signs for GDP, distance and real exchange rate variables. When the more sophisticated infrastructure indices are used (Tables 2a and 2b), the coefficient on GDP are very close to unity, which is the value expected in theory (see specification (4) in section 2.). The elasticity of trade with respect to distance ranges between -0.59 and -0.97, which means doubling distance decreases trade flows by 59% to 97%. Distance impediments to trade are therefore in the average range of values displayed in Disdier and Head (2005).

More importantly, infrastructures impact trade positively and very significantly in all the specifications estimated. Once accounted for possible reverse causality, the trade creating impact of infrastructures is even magnified. Moreover, the coefficients are larger for the indexes based on total roads, which means that secondary roads and paved roads are complementary to trade, as the maximum gains arising from the road transport network cannot be achieved by paved roads alone. One can notice that maritime distance impediments to trade are also larger when we consider paved roads only (the absolute value of distance coefficients are lower in Table 1a and 2a than in 1b and 2b), which gives further evidence that secondary road networks convey also trade gains arising from facilitating transport inter-modality.

While comparing the coefficients on both the infrastructure indexes and the distance in Tables 1a and 1b (or similarly in Tables 1b and 2b), we observe that geography plays a key role in impeding trade within the South-Mediterranean area. Once corrected for deserted area, distance impediments to trade increase by 51% (from -0.59 in Table 1a column (6) to -0.85 in Table 2a column (6)), while the trade-creating effect of infrastructure reduces by 20% (from 1.16 in Table 1a column (6) to 0.93 in Table 2a column (6)).

Contiguity has a significantly positive impact on trade. Based on the coefficients provided in Table 2a column (1), the countries sharing a common border trade 84% more than non contiguous countries ( $[\exp(0.61)-1] \times 100 = 84\%$ ). Furthermore, the coefficient on  $Bord1_{ij}$  is smaller and less significant than the one of  $Bord2_{ij}$ . The difference between the two coefficients reflects the trade depressing impact of the conflict opposing Morocco to Algeria. “Closing” the border between the two countries in 1994 is found to be equivalent to decreasing the benefits of contiguity by 132% ( $[\exp(0.84)-1] \times 100 = 132\%$ ).

We conduct the same work considering industrial desegregation on trade flows. The CHELEM database gives us bilateral trade flows over 71 product categories. The estimation method is the same as described in section 4 and results are displayed in Appendix B. Results on these industry regressions comfort aggregated results, and we do not observe any change in the sign and robustness of our explanatory variables. However, infrastructure coefficients are always smaller when the model takes sector differentiation into account, mainly because some aspects of trade specialisation are concealed by the aggregate trade flows variable. For example Algeria essentially exports natural gas, and this product is probably not highly dependent upon road, railroad or telecommunication infrastructures (transport occurs by pipelines).

Let us now investigate more thoroughly the trade creating effects of infrastructures.

### 4.3 The trade creating impact of infrastructures

As in the recent works of the World Bank, we quantify the trade-creating impact of driving variables from the median to both the 75<sup>th</sup> (third quartile) and 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles (first quartile) of their distributions, as depicted in Table 3.

**Table 3: Explanatory variables percentiles**

	25 <sup>th</sup>	Median	75 <sup>th</sup>
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.135	0.193	0.310
$Dist_{ij}$	682	1752	2192

Based on the estimates provided in Table 2a column (6) for total road infrastructures, improving infrastructures from the median to the top 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the distribution increases the volume of bilateral trade by 55% ( $[0.193/0.31]^{-0.93} = 1.55$ ). This improvement is equivalent to bringing these countries 709km closer to each other ( $1752 - 1752 \times (0.193/0.31)^{0.93/0.85} = 709$ ). Moving from the median to the bottom 25<sup>th</sup> percentile leads to a 28% reduction in trade volumes, representing for each country an additional distance of 838km from its South-Mediterranean trading partners. These estimates point therefore to the same range of effects than in Limão and Venables (2001), who find that moving from the median to the top 75<sup>th</sup> percentile raises trade volumes by 68%. It means that the countries of their sample would be 2005km closer to the US market, whereas moving from the median to the bottom 25<sup>th</sup> percentile reduces trade volumes by 28%, representing an additional distance of 1627km from the same market.

Based on the other estimates provided in Tables 1a, 1b, 2a and 2b, we reach the general conclusion that improving infrastructures from the median to the top 75<sup>th</sup> percentile leads to an increase in trade volumes in between 34-55%. For each country, it represents a 512km to 709km decrease in distance to the other South-Mediterranean trade partners. Moving from the median to the bottom 25<sup>th</sup> percentile leads to a reduction in trade volumes in between 20% and 28%, representing an additional distance of 522km to 838km from the other partner countries.

It is interesting to infer from these results the trade creating contribution of each country. Figure 5 details the average share of each country in the total infrastructure of the South-Mediterranean area for the 1967-2001 period.

Figure 5: Share of each country in total infrastructure

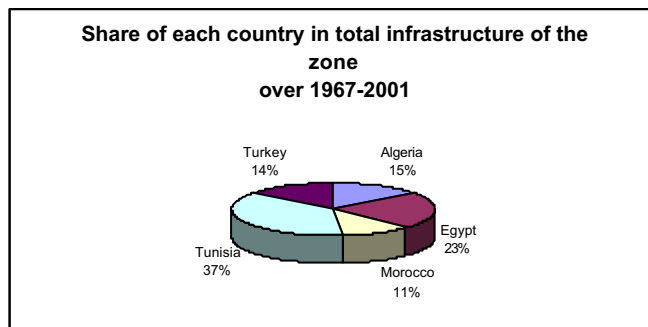
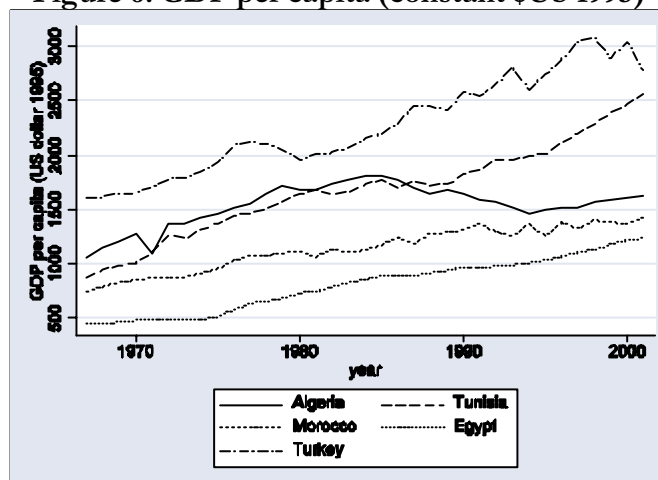


Figure 6: GDP per capita (constant \$US 1995)



Source: World Development Indicators 2004

It is straightforward to see that, even if Turkey is the richest country in this sample, as testified by Figure 6, it accounts for only 14% of total infrastructures. This is an important feature, as the wealth of this country should make it contribute relatively more to the area trade creation (since the wealth of trading partners increases bilateral flows in the gravity equation). However, because of its relatively low level of infrastructures, most of the gains arising from liberalizing trade are not achieved. Therefore priority should be devoted to improve infrastructure networks in this country. By contrast, Egypt, the poorest country of our sample, has the second most important endowment of infrastructures in the area. This is mostly due to tourism, which is one of the main activities contributing to the development of transports in the country. However, because of its low GDP per capita, most of the gains due to trade liberalisation in manufacturing goods are not achieved here either.

#### **4.4 Time evolutions**

We replicate in this sub-section the exercise performed in sub-sections 4.2 and 4.3 on two different balanced time sub-samples, in order to see whether the magnitude of the effects remains stable over the whole period. Results for total road infrastructures are displayed in Tables 4a and 4b.

The results indicate that trade impediments to distance have increased over time. This apparently paradoxical result is however standard in gravity equations, as reported by the meta-analysis recently conducted by Disdier and Head (2005). Changes in the trade composition of South-Mediterranean countries towards commodities shipped by ocean could be at the core of this phenomenon. As emphasized by Hummels (1999), maritime transport costs did increase over the last decades.

The impact of infrastructure also reduces over time (coefficients are larger for the second sub-period). As displayed in Table 4b, improving infrastructure from the median to the third quartile leads to a trade creation that ranges between 30% and 75% over 1967-1984 (representing a 546km to 568km decrease in distance from the other trading partners), whereas the same improvement increases trade by 18% to 38% only for the 1985-2001 period (representing a 244km to 957km decrease in distance from the other trading partners).

**Table 4a: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per inhabitant for the 1967-1984 and 1985-2001 sub-periods**

	OLS (1)		OLS (2)		OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>		OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	
	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1985-2001
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	-0.02 (-0.1)	0.81*** (10.45)	-0.02 (-0.1)	0.86*** (11.2)	0.29 (1.41)	0.89*** (4.75)	0.29 (1.41)	0.94*** (13.05)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.77** (-2.31)	-0.93*** (-8.33)	-0.77** (-2.31)	-0.89*** (-8.48)	-0.71** (-2.05)	-0.86*** (-3.36)	-0.71** (-2.05)	-0.84*** (-8.21)
$Inf2_{it} \times Inf2_{jt}$	0.84*** (3.23)	0.94*** (8.81)	0.84*** (3.23)	0.89*** (8.53)	0.44 (1.47)	1.15*** (3.24)	0.44 (1.47)	1.1*** (9.79)
$Bord1_{ij}$	-0.72 (-1.05)	0.47** (2.5)			-0.36 (-0.49)	0.6*** (3.28)		
$Bord2_{ij}$			-0.72** (-1.05)	0.86*** (4.59)			-0.36 (-0.49)	0.92*** (5.1)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02 (-1.28)	-0.01** (-2.01)	-0.02** (-1.28)	-0.01** (-1.98)	-0.02 (-1.34)	-0.01** (-2.06)	-0.02 (-1.34)	-0.01** (-2.06)
Intercept	11.9* (1.81)	-3.66** (-2.07)	11.9* (1.81)	-5.28*** (-3.03)	3.54 (0.57)	-8.18*** (-2.76)	3.54 (0.57)	-6.57*** (-4.15)
<b>R2</b>	0.24	0.5	0.24	0.52	0.21	0.53	0.21	<b>0.55</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	212	335	212	335	212	335	212	335

**Table 4b: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per population and corrected area unit for the 1967-1984 and 1985-2001 sub-periods**

	OLS (1)		OLS (2)		OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>		OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	
	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1967-1984	1967-1984	1967-1984	1967-1984	1967-1984
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.38** (2.02)	0.99*** (13.0)	0.38** (2.02)	1.04*** (13.84)	0.85*** (3.63)	1.14*** (14.77)	0.85*** (3.63)	1.18*** (15.61)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.67** (-2.11)	-1.13*** (-9.56)	-0.67** (-2.11)	-1.1*** (-9.93)	-0.7** (-2.13)	-1.1*** (-9.49)	-0.7** (-2.13)	-1.1*** (-9.87)
$Inf2_{it} \times Inf2_{jt}$	0.85*** (4.95)	0.64*** (6.51)	0.85*** (4.95)	0.62*** (6.52)	0.93*** (3.51)	0.58*** (6.0)	0.93*** (3.51)	0.56*** (5.98)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.31 (0.51)	0.79*** (4.0)			0.19 (0.3)	0.86*** (4.26)		
$Bord2_{ij}$			0.31 (0.51)	1.1*** (5.99)			0.19 (0.3)	1.2*** (6.15)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.02 (-1.33)	-0.01* (-1.93)	-0.02 (-1.33)	-0.01* (-1.89)	-0.02 (-1.46)	-0.01* (-1.91)	-0.02 (-1.46)	-0.01* (-1.87)
Intercept	2.7 (0.52)	-7.16*** (-4.14)	2.7 (0.52)	-8.47*** (-2.76)	-6.44 (-1.17)	-10.5*** (-6.53)	-6.44 (-1.17)	-11.6*** (-7.43)
<b>R2</b>	0.29	0.45	0.29	0.48	0.25	0.44	0.25	<b>0.47</b>
<b>Obs.</b>	212	335	212	335	212	335	212	335

Note: Trade flows pooled over exports and imports. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* mean significant at the level of 1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. <sup>a</sup>Robust standard errors in brackets (Hubber and White sandwich estimator with clusters defined on each value).



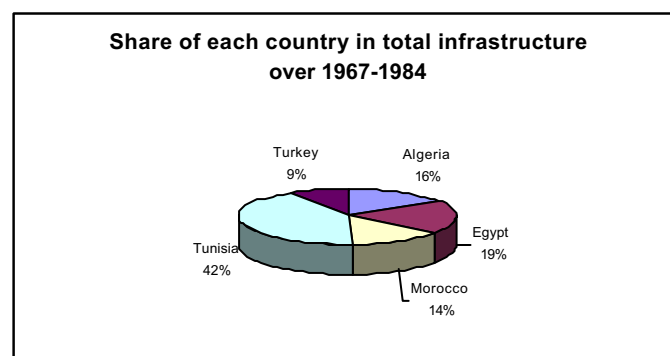
**Table 5: Explanatory variables percentiles for the 1967-1984 and 1985-2001 sub-periods**

	25 <sup>th</sup>		Median		75 <sup>th</sup>	
	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1985-2001	1967-1984	1985-2001
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.138	0.116	0.174	0.204	0.318	0.274
$Dist_{ij}$	682		1752		2192	

As apparent from the percentiles related to each sub-period (see Table 5), the distribution of infrastructures is less unequal for the most recent period. This is confirmed by the related Ginis for the 1967-1984 and 1985-2001 periods. They are respectively 0.34 and 0.28. The distribution of infrastructure is therefore less concentrated over the second period. Because of infrastructure indivisibility and sunk costs<sup>16</sup>, countries with the lowest endowments at the beginning of the period may have started to converge towards those with larger endowments. In other words, the relative distribution of transport infrastructures among Mediterranean countries is getting more equal. There is no doubt that this is a mandatory condition for decreasing transport costs<sup>17</sup> in the intra-zone trade, and thus for conveying the benefits of the ongoing political integration among South-Mediterranean countries. For instance, if Algeria improves its airports to allow big carriers to land and take off, then this will benefit the other countries, but only under the condition that they also develop similar airport infrastructures.

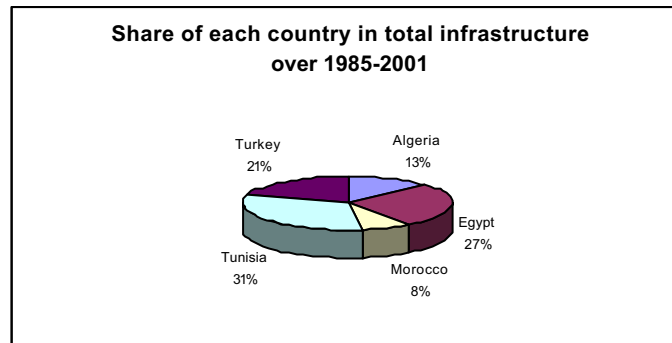
Therefore, the seemingly paradoxical evidence of decreasing marginal gains to infrastructures can be highlighted by increasing returns to scale considerations. The positive impact on trade due to the first development of the network infrastructures is much larger than any further marginal development.

A final comparison of the share of infrastructure indexes for each country over the two sub-periods confirms that, relatively to its development level over the 1985-2001 period, Turkey increased his share of infrastructure endowments relatively more than its neighbours, as displayed in Figure 7.

**Figure 7: Average share of countries in the total infrastructures index of the South-Mediterranean area for the 1967-1984 and 1985-2001 sub-periods**

<sup>16</sup> Indeed, it is not possible for the level of rail and phone lines to decrease over time in absolute terms.

<sup>17</sup> Note that we can say there is an equal distribution of transport infrastructures among the countries under study since our indexes take both the population and the area of each country into account.



This relative increase in infrastructure went along with an increase in trade over the same period, as illustrated by Figure 1. Despite its development gap, Egypt contributes to a big extent to the share of infrastructures in the area for both time periods.

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we have quantified the trade impediments arising from poor transport and communication infrastructures for five countries of the Mediterranean area (Algeria, Morocco, Egypt, Tunisia and Turkey). The trade depressing impact of maritime transport costs is large and increasing over time: doubling maritime distance between ports would lead to decreasing trade between these countries by up to 98% over the 1967-2001 period. However, domestic infrastructure networks also impede trade. Thus, improving the transport and telecommunication infrastructures of these countries from the median to the top 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the current distribution would increase their bilateral trade volumes by 34% to 55%, depending on the quality of road networks, on the geography of desert and on the possible re-opening of the Morocco-Algeria border. This trade creating effect would represent a 512km to 709km decrease in distance between these countries. Therefore, financing the simultaneous reduction of transport and telecommunication costs in conjunction with the on-going regional integration process is likely to support trade in the Mediterranean area.

## Appendix A

### Data sources on infrastructure

Variables	Description	Source	Name used for the variable
Number of main phone lines	Multiplication of the share of main phone line by population	WDI 2004	Tel
Population	In units	WDI 2004	Pop
Area	In squarred km	WDI 2004	Area
Share of desert	Share of the country covered by desert	TERRASTAT from FAO (www.fao.org)	a
Area corrected	km <sup>2</sup> corrected by the share of desert = (1-a) x Area	Calculation by the authors based on WDI 2004	Ter
Total road network	Total road network in km	IRF (1963-1989) and WDI 2004 (1990-2001) and Canning	TR
Paved roads	Total paved road in km. = % of paved roads x TR.	Calculation from the authors based on IRF (1963-1989), WDI (1990-2002) and Canning.	Trp
Km of rail	km of rail	EUROSTAT (1996-2001) and Canning (1967-1995)	Kmrail

Note: all infrastructure data are in stocks.

➤ **Data on the total length of the road network (in km)** are provided by the Canning (1998) Database. They come from two sources: the International Road Federation (IRF), which is responsible for the yearly publications of World Road Statistics, and the regional delegations of the United Nations. When data from these two sources exist conjointly but are significantly different, he privileges the United Nations sources, as it is official. We used in priority data from IRF and WDI and completed missing data with Canning (1998), as values match rather well between the two sources for common years of available data.

➤ **Data on the total length of the paved roads network (in km)** are provided by the Canning Database. They come from both the IRF source and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. As for total roads network, we use the Canning (1998) Database to complete data from IRF and WDI.

➤ **Data on the total length of the railroad network (in km)** come from two sources. The main one, which is Canning (1998), is collected from the publications of Mitchell « International Historical Statistics (1992, 1993 and 1995) until 1980, and from the data of the World Bank for the following years. The data we use is the length of the network, based on the assumption that a line is made of two tracks, one for each direction. This data refers to the public networks opened to private or public users. Private networks, whenever they exist, are not considered. The second source is the EUROSTAT database.

➤ **Corrected Area:** As the desert covers a large share of the South-Mediterranean countries we study, we restrict their area to non deserted space in order to get the effective real area available for locating economic activities and population.

## Appendix B

### Results on trade flows by industry

Table 6a: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per inhabitant

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.52*** (20.30)	0.55*** (21.22)	0.52*** (8.2)	0.55*** (8.56)	0.47*** (6.93)	0.5*** (7.27)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.56** (-17.05)	-0.52*** (-16.25)	-0.56*** (-7.17)	-0.51*** (-6.87)	-0.59*** (-7.54)	-0.55*** (-7.31)
$Inf_{it} \times Inf_{jt}$	0.6*** (15.84)	0.56*** (14.50)	0.6*** (7.25)	0.56*** (6.65)	0.92*** (8.19)	0.87*** (7.64)
$Bord1_{ij}$	-0.06 (-1.08)		-0.06 (-0.46)		-0.1 (-0.77)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.17*** (3.02)		0.17 (1.27)		0.12 (0.91)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.04*** (-13.27)	-0.04*** (-13.69)	-0.04*** (-4.69)	-0.04*** (-4.87)	-0.03*** (-4.35)	-0.04*** (-4.51)
Intercept	-3.92*** (-4.51)	-5.16*** (-5.9)	-3.93*** (-2.7)	-5.15*** (-3.48)	-1.49 (-0.92)	-2.73* (-1.65)
<b>R2</b>	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.34	0.35
<b>Obs.</b>	13409	13409	13409	13409	12743	12743

Table 6b: Estimation results with paved road infrastructure indexes per inhabitant

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.62*** (25.27)	0.64*** (25.92)	0.62*** (9.9)	0.64*** (10.15)	0.61*** (9.56)	0.63*** (9.79)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.53*** (16.09)	-0.5*** (-15.60)	-0.52*** (-6.71)	-0.5*** (-6.56)	-0.55*** (-6.98)	-0.53*** (-6.98)
$Inf_{it} \times Inf_{jt}$	0.59*** (15.12)	0.55*** (13.98)	0.59*** (7.36)	0.55*** (6.83)	0.96*** (8.56)	0.91*** (7.94)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.02 (0.41)		0.02 (0.17)		0.04 (0.28)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.21*** (3.93)		0.21 (1.62)		0.20 (1.55)
$e_{it} \times (PI_i / PI_j)$	-0.04*** (-13.80)	-0.04*** (-14.11)	-0.04*** (-4.85)	-0.04*** (-4.96)	-0.04*** (-4.56)	-0.04*** (-4.68)
Intercept	-6.01*** (-7.24)	-6.94*** (-8.31)	-6.01 (-4.40)	-6.94*** (-4.98)	-4.35*** (-3.00)	-5.25*** (-3.53)
<b>R2</b>	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.34	0.34	0.35
<b>Obs.</b>	13409	13409	13409	13409	12743	12743

Note: Trade flows pooled over exports and imports. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* mean significant at the level of 1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. <sup>a</sup>Robust standard errors in brackets (Hubber and White sandwich estimator with clusters defined on each dyad). Industry fixed-effects in all specifications.

**Table 6c: Estimation results with total road infrastructure indexes per population and corrected area unit**

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3) <sup>a</sup>	OLS (4) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (5) <sup>a</sup>	2SLS (6) <sup>a</sup>
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.61*** (24.6)	0.63*** (25.36)	0.6*** (9.79)	0.63*** (10.08)	0.58*** (8.89)	0.6*** (9.2)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.67*** (-20.16)	-0.64*** (-19.60)	-0.67*** (-8.49)	-0.64*** (-8.27)	-0.76*** (-9.37)	-0.74*** (-9.26)
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.4*** (13.46)	0.39*** (13.14)	0.40*** (6.28)	0.39*** (6.17)	0.66*** (6.95)	0.64*** (6.85)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.17*** (3.30)		0.17 (1.34)		0.23* (1.79)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.37*** (7.12)		0.37*** (2.89)		0.42*** (3.2)
$e_{it}$	-0.04*** (-15.31)	-0.04*** (-15.52)	-0.04*** (-5.40)	-0.04*** (-5.46)	-0.04*** (-5.26)	-0.04*** (-5.32)
Intercept	-5.7*** (-6.74)	-6.58*** (-7.76)	-5.7*** (-4.01)	-6.58*** (-4.57)	-3.5** (-2.19)	-4.38*** (-2.69)
<b>R2</b>	0.34	0.35	0.34	0.35	0.34	0.34
<b>Obs.</b>	13409	13409	13409	13409	12743	12743

**Table 6d: Estimation results with paved road infrastructure indexes per population and corrected area unit**

	OLS (1)	OLS (2)	OLS (3)	OLS (4)	OLS (5)	OLS (6)
$GDP_{it} \times GDP_{jt}$	0.70*** (29.03)	0.72*** (29.74)	0.7*** (11.23)	0.72*** (11.46)	0.74*** (11.49)	0.76*** (11.73)
$Dist_{ij}$	-0.66*** (-19.82)	-0.63*** (-19.34)	-0.66*** (-8.25)	-0.63*** (-8.06)	-0.75*** (-9.15)	-0.73*** (-9.07)
$Inf 2_{it} \times Inf 2_{jt}$	0.36*** (12.34)	0.34*** (12.00)	0.36*** (5.65)	0.35*** (5.57)	0.56*** (6.90)	0.53*** (6.69)
$Bord1_{ij}$	0.21*** (4.00)		0.21 (1.60)		0.31** (2.28)	
$Bord2_{ij}$		0.39*** (7.48)		0.39*** (3.01)		0.47*** (3.53)
$e_{it}$	-0.04*** (-15.95)	-0.04*** (-16.11)	-0.04*** (-5.58)	-0.04*** (-5.63)	-0.04*** (-5.59)	-0.04*** (-5.63)
Intercept	-7.91*** (-9.75)	-8.68*** (-10.68)	-7.9*** (-5.75)	-8.68*** (-6.23)	-7.29*** (-5.09)	-8.03*** (-5.55)
<b>R2</b>	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.34
<b>Obs.</b>	13409	13409	13409	13409	12743	12743

Note: Trade flows pooled over exports and imports. \*\*\*, \*\*, \* mean significant at the level of 1%, 5%, and 10% respectively. <sup>a</sup>Robust standard errors in brackets (Hubber and White sandwich estimator with clusters defined on each dyad). Industry fixed-effects in all specifications.

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PART 2.

## Integration in the Arab Maghreb Union

### Some evidence from the cointegration theory<sup>1</sup>

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## 1 Introduction

On February 17<sup>th</sup> 1989, the treaty creating the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) was signed in Marrakech by Algeria, Libya, Morocco Mauritania and Tunisia. The writers of the constitutive Treaty of the AMU wanted to highlight, in the Preamble, the close-knit relationship that links the people of the Arab Maghreb. These links are based on the community of history, religion and language.

Of course their aim was the strengthening of (economic and political) relationships between the State members. They went even further by foreseeing “a progressive pace towards the carrying out of a complete integration” thanks to which the AMU will have “a specific weight” on the international field, which will enable the AMU to participate actively to the world balance, to the consolidation of peaceful relationships and to the strengthening of security and stability in the world. The treaty was aimed at several objectives, including coordinating economic policy, encouraging trade and allowing freedom of movement across frontiers.

As of May 1997, there have been a total of 37 Maghreb conventions. “While member countries have ratified varying numbers of these agreements, only five have been ratified by all members of the union. These include agreements on trade and tariffs (covering all industrial products); trade in agricultural products, investment guarantees; avoidance of double taxation; and phyto-sanitary standards”.

“Since 1989, the Governors and technical staff of the five central banks of the AMU have been meeting regularly. In December 1991, the five banks signed a multilateral agreement to help facilitate interbank payments within the union. The

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<sup>1</sup> I would like to thank Oscar Kuiku for compiling data and for his valuable comments. I am especially indebted to Mouhoub El Mouhoub. I would also like to thank for comments on an earlier draft of the paper presented during the 4<sup>th</sup> FEMISE Conference in Marseilles during the period July 28-29, 2005. I am the only responsible for the opinions expressed here and any mistakes that may remain.

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agreement sets unified modalities of payments between the five central banks, and provides for monthly settlement of balances between any two countries without charge of interest on interim balances. The unit of account is the SDR and the settlement currency is chosen by the creditor country”.

Despite these meetings and signatures of conventions, real problems remain between the Maghreb countries. The main cause of differences is still the issue of the Occidental Sahara. This issue divides these countries – in particular Morocco and Algeria – and prevents any process of economic integration from being realized.

The aim of this work is double. First, looking for the existence possible integration between the maghreb countries. Second trying to see whether the setting up of the AMU, since 1989, has enabled any improvement in terms of economic integration. According to Darrat and Pennathur’s results (2002), we consider three types of integration: economic integration, financial integration and monetary integration. The existing data enable us to consider only three countries instead of five. The three countries concerned are Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. Indeed, the data concerning Libya and Mauritania are too fragmented.

Our results confirm those of Darrat and Pennathur (2002) concerning the economic, financial and monetary integration of these countries on a long period (1970-2003) in the way of the existence of a long-term stable relation. On the other hand, and contrary to Darrat and Pennathur’s results (2002), the setting up of the AMU has not permitted to accelerate this integration. The reason is very simple. The AMU remains, until there is proof to the contrary, an empty shell for the reasons quoted above. The existence of long-term stable relations between the three countries is due to the fact that the same external shocks remain because their political and economic links with the European Union are very developed. On the other hand, we will notice the almost absence or the weakness of economic and commercial relations between the three partners. The intra-Maghreb commercial exchanges are in the best circumstances inferior to 6% of the total of the external total trade of each country. The setting up of the AMU does not change this situation.

This article will be organised as follows: section 2 will deal with the data and the choice of variables; section 3 will be the subject of a brief report on the different econometric estimations. The last section will conclude this article.

## 2 Data

We perform our empirical investigation with annual time series data spanning the period 1970 – 2003. The data are taken from the *International Financial Statistics*, CD ROM published by the International Monetary Fund. Due to lack of data we restrict the UMA to three Maghreb countries (Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia). We assess the degree of integration under three alternatives:

The economic integration: In this case we focus on the cointegrating relationship among the three countries Gross Domestic Product (GDP) *in log*, respectively  $YA$ ,  $YMa$ ,  $YT$  for Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, since it is customary in economic literature to consider GDP of any countries as representative of its overall activity.

The financial integration: We focus on the cointegrating relationship among the three countries money stocks (M1) *in log*, respectively  $MA$ ,  $MMa$ ,  $MT$  for Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia.

The Monetary integration: We focus on the cointegrating relationship of the three countries Monetary Base *in log*,  $BA$ ,  $BMa$ ,  $BT$  for Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. Assessing interrelations among Monetary Base could provide information on the extend that the monetary policy actions have been coordinated among the three Arab Maghreb countries.

It is known that in developing countries, financial market outside the banking system are relatively weak. As noted by Darrat and Pennathur (2002), empirical researchers applied to these countries use financial market and banks interchangeably (Khan 1980 and King and Levine, 1993).

### 3 Methodology

#### 3.1 Unit Root Tests

The econometric methodology used in this paper is based on the so-called cointegration analysis, and the first task is them to check the stationarity of our variables.

To side of the traditional unit root tests Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips and Perron (PP)<sup>3</sup>, we led a whole of tests much more specific. On the one hand, the test of Bhargava (1986) which makes it possible to raise the problem of asymmetry involved in the tests of Dickey - Fuller. To test, the null assumption of simple random walk against the alternative of stationnarity, Bhargava proposes to retain the R1 statistics. The R2 statistics, to test, the null assumption of random walk with drift against the stationnarity around a trend. In each case, one rejects the null assumption of unit root, when the computed value of the statistics exceeds it critical value.

A major criticism of the ADF and PP tests is their incapability to distinguish between a unit root and near unit root stationary process. For this reason, we complete our tests by using the KPSS test (Kwiatkowski, Phillips, Schmidt and Shin (1992)) which has the effect of testing the alternative of presence of a unit root against the null assumption of stationnarity either around a constant term - statistics  $ETA(\mu)$  -, or around a linear trend - statistics  $ETA(\tau)$  - In each case, if the test statistics is greater than the critical values we reject the null hypothesis of stationarity in favour of the alternative of unit root.

#### 3.2 Multivariate Cointegration Test

The tool become standard today in macroeconometry for the analysis of the long run relationships that may arise between a set of variables, is the very popular approach of Johansen (1988), Johansen and Juselius (1990).

Soren Johansen's approach is to estimate by maximum likelihood, the vector autoregression of an  $n$ -dimensional process  $X_t$  written as a Vector Equilibrium Correction Model (VECM), under the assumptions of Gaussian white noise:

$$\Delta X_t = \alpha + \beta X_{t-1} + \Gamma \Delta X_t + U_t \quad i=1,2,\dots,p$$

Where  $\Delta$  is the difference operator.  $\beta$  contains  $n \times n$  "short run" parameters.  $\alpha$  is an  $n \times 1$  coefficients matrix. The  $n$ -dimensional regressor  $X_{t-1}$  contains deterministic terms with coefficients  $\Gamma$ . Finally the  $n$  dimensional innovations  $U_t$  are  $iid N_p(0, O)$ . When  $rank \beta = r < n$  such that  $\beta = a\beta'$  with  $a$  and  $\beta'$  of full column  $rank$   $r$ , then the model implies that  $X_t$  is cointegrated. In other words, the hypothesis of cointegration is formulated as a reduced rank  $r$  of the matrix  $\beta$ , where  $r$  is the number of cointegrating relations. Johansen (1988) proposes two statistics of tests for  $r$ : The  $\lambda_{trace}$  and  $\lambda_{max}$  statistics, with:

$$\lambda_{trace} = -T \cdot \sum_{i=r+1}^N \log(1 - \hat{\lambda}_i) \text{ and } \lambda_{max} = -T \cdot \log(1 - \hat{\lambda}_{r+1}).$$

*T is the size of sample,  $\hat{\lambda}_i$  is*

the  $i$ -th largest eigenvalue. Each of them tests the null hypothesis that the cointegration rank is equal to  $r$  against the alternative that the cointegration rank is equal to  $r+1$ .

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<sup>3</sup> The PP test takes into account both serial correlation and time-dependent heteroscedasticity.

Both tests have non-standard asymptotic null distributions. Moreover, this asymptotic null distribution is quite sensitive to the specification of the deterministic components  $D_t$  of the VECM<sup>4</sup>. Although the unit root tests indicate that the series have a linear trend, nevertheless we have made the choice to conduct these tests without imposing linear restrictions on the constant term. The Vectorial Autoregressive Model (VAR) for the variables in level have been fitted with the lag length long enough for the residuals to be uncorrelated, has recommend by Johansen – Juselius (1992).

### 3.3 Gregory – Hansen approach

In the analysis of economic times series it is often necessary to allow breaks in the deterministic components. While this issue have been discussed in the literature and mainly in a univariate setting (see inter alia Perron 1989, Zivot and Andrews, 1992), some recent papers tend to focuses on cointegration analysis in presence of breaks into the cointegrating relations. The motivation for this class of tests came from the fact that the Monte Carlo experiments (Gregory, Nason and Watt, 1994) show that in the presence of structural change the standard cointegration tests (like one the Engle – Granger, 1987) falls sharply and falsely signal the absence of equilibrium in the system. This is the case of Gregory – Hansen (1996) approach.

In particular the standard Engle Granger’s (1987) Residual – based test of cointegration in models with regime shifts have been expounded by Gregory – Hansen (1996). The Gregory – Hansen test assumes the null hypothesis of no cointegration against the alternative of cointegration with a single structural break at unknown point of time.

Considering the standard Engle – Granger’s model of cointegration with no structural change, the so – called by Gregory – Hansen (1996) *Model (1)*:

*Model(1)*

$$y_{1t} = a + \beta y_{2t} + e_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n$$

$$y_{1t} = a + dt + \beta y_{2t} + e_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n$$

$y_{1t}$  is a scalar,  $y_{2t}$  an  $m$  – dimensional vector.

To model structural change Gregory – Hansen (1996) defines an dummy variable  $d_t$  such that  $d_t = 0$  if  $t \neq TB$  et 1 otherwise. Gregory and Hansen (1996) suggest three alternative models accommodating changes in parameters of the cointegration vector under the alternative:

The *level shift model* allows for the change in the intercept only

*Model(2): C*

$$y_{1t} = a_1 + a_2 d_t + \beta y_{2t} + e_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n$$

$a_1$  represents the intercept before the shift,  $a_2$  the intercept after the structural change.

The second model also restricts shift only in the intercept but allows a time trend to lies into the cointegrating space:

*Model(3): C/T*

$$y_{1t} = a_1 + a_2 d_t + dt + \beta y_{2t} + e_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n$$

The last specification, the *regime shift model* allows for changes both in the intercept and the slope of the cointegration vector

*Model(4): C/S*

$$y_{1t} = a_1 + a_2 d_t + \beta_1 y_{2t} + \beta_2 y_{2t} d_t + e_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, n$$

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<sup>4</sup> For more discussion of this point see Johansen (1994)

$\beta_1$  represents the cointegrating slope coefficients before the regime shift,  $\beta_2$  represents the cointegrating slope coefficients after the regime shift.

The null of no cointegration against the alternative of cointegration with an eventual structural change *Models (2), (3), (4)* is assessed with the conventional *ADF* and *PP* tests. But in this case the asymptotic distribution is not the same. A relevant set of critical values in this case have been computed by Gregory – Hansen using Monte Carlo experiments. The break point is one that minimizes the test statistic.

## 4 Empirical Results

### 4.1 Unit Root Test Results

We first perform unit root tests in order to determinate the univariate properties of our data. We use the BIC model selection criterion for choosing the optimal lags<sup>5</sup> in *ADF* tests. The results are presented in table 1. It is evident that the calculated statistics conclude the variables are not level stationary, except the Tunisian's Monetary Base (*IBT*), for which the hypothesis of stationary can not be rejected. The results are consistent with the fact that most of the macroeconomic aggregates are differences stationary processes<sup>6</sup>.

Nevertheless the conditions are already satisfied for the implementation of Johansen's procedure and the existence of cointegrating relations. In fact it is noteworthy to point that the Johansen procedure allows series that are integrated of mixed orders up to  $I(1)$ . As Johansen (1995) note "Thus one can include in the cointegration analysis the variables that are considered economically meaningful as long as they are  $I(1)$  or  $I(0)$ . [...] It is this possibility to have unit vectors as cointegrating vectors that force us to have a definition of  $I(1)$  that allows both  $I(1)$  and  $I(0)$  components.

**Table1: Unit Root Test Results**

Series	PP	ADF	KPSS		BHARGAVA	
			<i>mu</i>	<i>tau</i>	R1	R2
YA	(1) -3.61*	-3.49**	0.64**	0.21**	0.05	0.08
	(2) -3.34**	-3.38*	0.53**	0.15**	1.41**	1.09**
YMa	2.87	-3.47***	0.90*	0.13**	0.04	0.24
	-2.87*	-3.47***	0.18	0.07	1.30**	1.21**
YT	-3.47**	-3.40**	0.91*	0.17**	0.03	0.16
	-5.23*	-5.20*	0.39***	0.13**	1.78**	1.97**
MA	-2.57	-2.84**	0.32	0.21**	0.07	0.06
	-2.57**	-2.72*	0.38***	0.16***	0.87**	0.81**
IMMa	3.41	-3.18	0.92**	0.06	0.03	0.18
	-1.72**	-3.53**	0.11	0.09	0.80**	0.74**
IMT	-4.02*	-4.20*	0.87	0.19	0.03	0.11
	-5.01*	-5.02*	0.48**	0.19**	1.55**	1.89**
BA	-2.47	-2.84**	0.36**	0.19**	0.08	0.07
	-3.09*	-2.72*	0.31	0.17**	1.12**	1.08**
IBMa	3.57	-2.88	0.91*	0.07	0.03	0.18
	-2.07**	-3.53**	0.216	0.09	1.08**	0.95**
IBT	-4.32*	-4.15**	0.92*	0.19**	0.02	0.12
	-5.22*	-5.25*	0.47**	0.17	1.70	2.04

\* (\*\*, \*\*\*) denotes the rejection of the Null Hypothesis at 1% (5%, 10%) level.

(1): Level ; (2): First Difference.

<sup>5</sup> The use of other criterions like the SIC does not change our results.

<sup>6</sup> See Bouoiyour (2003) for an application to Morocco.

## 4.2 Cointegration test results

### 4.2.1 Full sample (1970-2003)

Having established the order of integration of the variables, we proceed with the Johansen's cointegration procedure which allows us to test for long-run AMU economic, monetary and financial relations for the three Maghreb countries.

The results of these tests are shown in the table 2. Panel (1) provides the cointegration results for the three countries GDP, Panel (2) reports the result for the three countries money's stocks, and Panel (3) the results for the three countries Monetary Base. From these results, we can see that both the trace and the maximal eigenvalues statistics are sufficiently large to reject the null hypothesis of no cointegration among the three Arab Maghreb countries in all three panels at the 99% level of significance.

The existence of long-term relations between the three countries of the AMU shows the interest for these countries to unite and to constitute a strong economic bloc. Besides the purely financial, monetary and economic relations, these countries have in common very strong historical links as well as the same language and religion. So it is altogether reasonable to consider a union between these countries.

**Table2 : Johansen's cointegration test (period: 1970 – 2003).**

Null Hypotheses	TRACE Statistic				Max – Eigenvalue Statistic			
	Alternative hypotheses	Test Statistics	CV (95%)	CV (99%)	Alternative hypotheses	Test Statistics	CV (95%)	CV (99%)
<i>(1) Model: IYA, IYMa, IYT</i>								
$r=0$	$r=1$	74.58*	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	41.68	22.00	26.81
$r=1$	$r=2$	32.89	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	20.88	15.67	20.20
$r=2$	$r=3$	12.00	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	12.00	9.24	12.97
<i>(2) Model: IMA, IMMa, IMT</i>								
$r=0$	$r=1$	101.33*	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	58.94*	22.00	26.81
$r=1$	$r=2$	42.38	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	29.66	15.67	20.20
$r=2$	$r=3$	12.72	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	12.72	9.24	12.97
<i>(3) Model: IBA, IBMa, IBT</i>								
$r=0$	$r=1$	151.48*	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	123.41*	22.00	26.81
$r=1$	$r=2$	28.07	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	15.89	15.67	20.20
$r=2$	$r=3$	12.17	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	12.17	9.24	12.97

\* (\*\*, \*\*\*) denotes the rejection of the Null hypothesis at 1% (5%, 10%) level. Osterwald-Lenum (1992) critical values.

The setting up of the AMU constitutes an appropriate answer to the aspirations of the people from these countries without any doubt. The Treaty highlights the broad economic strategy to be followed, namely, the development of agriculture, industry, commerce, food security, and the setting up of joint projects and general economic cooperation programs. The question that arises now is to know whether this union has really had an impact on the effective integration of these countries.

To answer this question we are going to study the cointegration on the period preceding the setting up of the AMU from 1970 to 1988.

### 4.2.2 Befor AMU (1970-1988)

We use the Johansen Cointegration test to examine also whether cointegration existed even in the pre – AMU period (1970 – 1988). The results which are gathered in table 3 give contradictory results.

The results are contrasted. In the case of Panel (1) both the trace and maximal eigenvalues statistics rejected unambiguously the null of no cointegrating. While in the second Panel the null of no cointegration is rejected by the trace statistic, and in the third Panel both trace and maximal eigenvalues statistics fails to reject the null of no cointegration.

**Table 3: Johansen's cointegration test (period : 1970 – 1988).**

Null Hypotheses	TRACE Statistic				Max – Eigenvalue Statistic			
	Alternative hypotheses	Test Statistics	CV (95%)	CV (99%)	Alternative hypotheses	Test Statistics	CV (95%)	CV (99%)
<i>(1) Modèle: IYA, IYMa, IYT</i>								
R=0	$r=1$	50.17*	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	26.85*	22.00	26.81
R=1	$r=2$	23.31**	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	17.62**	15.67	20.20
R=2	$r=3$	5.69	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	5.69	9.24	12.97
<i>(2) Modèle: IMA, IMMa, IMT</i>								
$r=0$	$r=1$	40.18*	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	17.85	22.00	26.81
$r=1$	$r=2$	22.33	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	11.66	15.67	20.20
$r=2$	$r=3$	10.66	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	10.66	9.24	12.97
<i>(3) Modèle: IBA, IBMa, IBT</i>								
$r=0$	$r=1$	34.28	34.91	41.07	$r=1$	17.13	22.00	26.81
$r=1$	$r=2$	17.15	19.96	24.60	$r=2$	9.60	15.67	20.20
$r=2$	$r=3$	7.54	9.24	12.97	$r=3$	7.54	9.24	12.97

\* (\*\*, \*\*\*) denotes the rejection of the Null Hypothesis at 1% (5%, 10%) level. Osterwald-Lenum (1992) critical values.

In other words, the setting up of the AMU has not really accelerated the process of integration in these countries. Yet, we may notice that the period of estimation is short (19 observations between 1970 and 1988) and that these results remain weak. That is the reason why we will use Gregory and Hensen's method by using the full sample. Before using the Gregory and Hensen's method, we try to identify which can be considered the region's leader in the integration process.

### 4.3 Exogeneity test results

Given the presence of strong cointegration among the three Arab Maghreb countries, it appears useful to identify with countries can be considered the region's leader in the integration process. For that in each Panel, we perform a weak exogeneity test of each countries vis – à – vis the cointegrating relations. The general idea of these tests is that, Shocks that cause deviations from the cointegrating relations in the short run produce should produce eventual convergence only of region's catalyst's towards the cointegrating relations in order to solve the disequilibrium. Therefore, existence of any leadership between the three Arab Maghreb countries implies the rejection of the null of weak exogeneity only for one and same country, in each Panel. The results of theses test are shown into the table4 below:

**Table 4: Weak exogeneity tests (period of estimation: 1970 – 2003).**

<i>Hypothèse nulle</i>	<i>Likelihood Ratio</i> $\chi^2(r)$	<i>Significance</i>
<i>(1) Model: IYA, IYMa, IYT</i>		
<i>Algérie</i>	14.93*	0.00
<i>Maroc</i>	1.01	0.60
<i>Tunisie</i>	9.72*	0.00
<i>(2) Model: IMA, IMMa, IMT</i>		
<i>Algérie</i>	4.00	0.13
<i>Maroc</i>	17.40*	0.00
<i>Tunisie</i>	28.43*	0.00
<i>(3) Model: IBA, IBMa, IBT</i>		
<i>Algérie</i>	4.21	0.12
<i>Maroc</i>	10.06*	0.00
<i>Tunisie</i>	1.38	0.50

\* (\*\*, \*\*\*) denotes the rejection of the Null Hypothesis at 1% (5%, 10%) level.

As such, none of the three Arab Maghreb countries alone shoulders all responsibilities toward regional integration. Thus, each country should receive credit for any future integration success, and none of them can be exempted from responsibility at time of failure.

#### 4.4 Gregory – Hansen results

In order to allow possible changes in the cointegration vector over the estimation period, we use the Gregory and Hensen's procedure (1996). The results for this test are shown below in table<sup>7</sup>. None of the three models reveals a relation of cointegration with break. Even worse, none of the dates suggested in the framework Gregory and Hensen's procedure is close to 1989 – the year of the setting up of the AMU. Thus, for the model (1) for example, we find a non significant break in 1991, 1993 and 1995 concerning the GDP. These results confirm those found in the previous paragraph and contradict those of Darrat and Pennathur (2002). Indeed, Darrat and Pennathur's results "suggest that existing linkages among the three Arab Maghreb countries have apparently become much more visible and robust since the establishment of the AMU in 1989". To confirm these results obtained by Johansen and Jesusus's method, the authors use the test of King et al. (1994). The latter inspects the correlation of time-varying variances and covariance of stochastic (generalizes auto-regressive conditional heteroscedasticity, GARCH) processes across markets or regions. They conclude "coinciding with the creation of the AMU, the degrees of economic and financial integration in the region began to pick up and show considerable improvement in the late 1980s. This improvement continues in the 1990s, particularly for GDP linkages with levels of statistical significance".

All the experienced observers of the economies of these countries think that the setting up of the AMU has had little effect on the integration of these countries. Above the will expressed by the different leaders of these countries for an effective integration in their economies, the countries of the AMU remain divided and the political problems widely outweigh the economic interests of these countries.

Moreover, if we observe the statistics of the intra-maghreb trade, we realize that the setting up of the AMU has not had any effect on the evolution of the latter<sup>8</sup>.

<sup>7</sup> A time trend is not include into the cointegrating space.

<sup>8</sup> See Bouoiyour (2002).

**Table 5 : Gregory-Hansen Cointegration Tests**  
**Period of estimation: 1970 – 2003.**

Dependant Variables	C				C/S	
	Break Point	Test Statistics		Break Point	Test Statistics	
		Cv (95%)	Cv (99%)		Cv (95%)	Cv (99%)
		-4.92	-5.44		-5.50	-5.97
<i>(1) Model: IYA, IYMa, IYT</i>						
<i>IYA</i>	1991	-4.38		1991	-5.00	
<i>IYMa</i>	1995	-4.24		1995	-4.21	
<i>IYT</i>	1993	-4.31		1993	-4.50	
<i>(2) Model: IMA, IMMa, IMT</i>						
<i>IMA</i>	1993	-4.10		1991	-4.68	
<i>IMMa</i>	1981	-3.04		1995	-4.23	
<i>IMT</i>	1993	-3.78		1995	-4.98	
<i>(3) Model: IBA, IBMa, IBT</i>						
<i>IBA</i>	1990	-4.05		1988	-4.53	
<i>IBMa</i>	1980	-3.76		1984	-4.83	
<i>IBT</i>	1982	-4.58		1988	-5.04	

\* (\*\*, \*\*\*) denotes the rejection of the Null Hypothesis at 1% (5%, 10%) level. Gregory - Hansen (1996) critical values.

## 5 Conclusion and Policy Lessons

The economic and political integration of the Maghreb countries is a burning desire which has been expressed many times by the people and the countries' resources. Unfortunately, the political problems, in particular the issue of the Occidental Sahara, poison the intra-maghreb relationships and inhibit any effort of real and effective union.

The aim of this paper was to show, firstly, that economic, financial and monetary integration is definitely possible. The theory of cointegration has been applied on the data of these countries (GDP, stock of money and monetary basis) and has shown the existence of long-term stable relations between these different aggregates. In other words, according to this theory, these countries would better stick together and constitute a union.

Secondly, this work aimed at confirming that the setting up of the AMU in 1989 has had only few consequences on the economic, financial and monetary bringing together of these countries. Gregory and Hensen's method (1996) has been used in that way. This result invalidates that found by Darrat and Pennathur (2002) who come to a contrary conclusion.

In terms of policy implication, we may assert that the Maghreb countries would better unite just to negotiate with the European Union as equals. Moreover, the tests made in the scope of this work show very well the opportunity of such a choice. The setting up of the AMU is a step that could be decisive provided it does not remain an empty shell, which is the case at the moment.

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## **CHAPITRE 4**

### ***Convergence réelle et convergence nominale dans les Pays de la région MENA***

***Septembre 2005***

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*Mots-clés : Convergence, clubs, PIB par tête, taux d'inflation, MENA, estimateurs à noyau, «stochastic kernel», matrices de transition.*

*Classification JEL: C12, C13, C14, F31, F32.*

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## *Convergence réelle et convergence nominale dans les Pays de la région MENA*

### **1. Introduction**

Durant les dernières décennies, la plupart des pays industrialisés et en voie de développement ont participé à des accords d'intégration régionale. Si les accords européens, américains ou asiatiques constituent les meilleurs exemples, les pays de la région MENA (*Middle East and North Africa*) n'échappent pas à ce mouvement général. En janvier 2005, "312 RTAs have been notified to the GATT/WTO, and a further 65 are estimated to be operational, although not yet notified"<sup>1</sup>(Crawford and Fiorentino, 2005).

L'objectif poursuivi est de favoriser un processus d'intégration, condition nécessaire à un développement de la région. Les effets attendus d'un tel processus sont aujourd'hui assez bien cernés. Il s'agit en premier lieu d'accroître la taille des marchés, ce qui permet aux firmes de bénéficier d'économies d'échelle et ce qui offre de meilleures perspectives pour attirer des investissements directs. En deuxième lieu, la suppression des tarifs à l'intérieur de l'accord régional doit constituer un moteur pour la création et la diversification des échanges commerciaux (commerce intra-branche). Enfin, on peut s'attendre à des relocalisations des unités de production entre pays membres. En effet, ces relocalisations seront motivées par les avantages comparatifs des pays membres, par des effets d'agglomération (*clustering effects*), et par la possibilité de transferts technologiques. Dans ces circonstances, ce processus peut être à l'origine d'un phénomène de convergence des revenus, ou plus précisément des PIB par tête. Par exemple, une relocalisation d'activités intensives en main d'œuvre vers des pays à bas salaire conduira à terme à une hausse des revenus de ces pays (accroissement des salaires) qui tendront à se rapprocher des pays les plus riches.

Parallèlement, des politiques monétaires et financières, couplées avec des stratégies de change opportunes, ont pu favoriser une certaine convergence monétaire/nominale (convergence des taux d'inflation)<sup>2</sup>. Or, les processus de convergence réelle et de convergence nominale peuvent être étudiés conjointement. En effet, des évolutions divergentes de PIB par tête peuvent générer des divergences dans les prix relatifs de biens échangés et non échangés (biais de Balassa-Samuelson) qui conditionneront les évolutions des taux de change si les

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<sup>1</sup> RTA pour Regional Trade Agreement; Accord Régional sur le Commerce.

<sup>2</sup> On ne traitera pas ici de la convergence des taux d'intérêt.

différentiels d'inflation sont nuls, ou des taux d'inflation si les taux de change sont fixés. Si on considère qu'une intégration Sud-Sud plus poussée constitue une condition indispensable au développement de la région, une étude conjointe de la convergence des revenus par tête et de la convergence des taux d'inflation doit donc fournir des enseignements utiles pour les politiques futures. En particulier, la mise en perspective des processus de convergence des PIB par tête et des taux d'inflation permettra de discuter de l'opportunité d'un régime de change commun à l'ensemble des pays de la région.

Il reste alors à préciser ce que l'on entend par pays du Sud. On s'intéressera à un ensemble composé des pays du Sud et de l'Est Méditerranéen élargi au monde arabe, même si *a priori* cela ne constitue pas une zone économique et politique parfaitement homogène. Il y a en effet d'un côté les situations particulières d'Israël, de l'Iran et de la Turquie, de l'autre le monde arabe composé, si on s'en tient à la ligue arabe, de 22 pays : l'Algérie, Bahreïn, les Comores, Djibouti, l'Égypte, l'Irak, la Jordanie, le Koweït, le Liban, la Libye, la Mauritanie, le Maroc, Oman, la Palestine, le Qatar, la Somalie, le Soudan, l'Arabie Saoudite, la Syrie, la Tunisie, les Emirats Arabes Unis et le Yémen. Toutefois, même si ces pays se distinguent, par leurs niveaux de développement, leurs niveaux de richesse (PIB par habitant), leurs degrés de libéralisation des économies et des institutions, les liens historiques, la proximité géographique, la volonté de renforcer les relations commerciales et financières, etc..., justifient que l'on s'intéresse au processus de convergence au sein de la région MENA.

Aussi, nous procéderons dans un premier temps (Section 2) à un examen des situations commerciales et financières de ces différents pays. Nous présenterons dans un deuxième temps (Section 3) les différents concepts de convergence et les méthodes statistiques utilisées dans ce travail. La Section 4 sera consacrée à une analyse empirique de la convergence réelle, c'est-à-dire des PIB par habitant. Dans la Section 5 on tentera d'estimer le processus de convergence des taux d'inflation. On reviendra sur le lien entre convergence des PIB par tête et convergence des taux d'inflation dans la Section 6, avant de conclure notre travail (section 7).

## 2. L'environnement économique des pays de la région MENA

Compte tenu de la disponibilité des données, l'échantillon est constitué la région MENA élargie, soient 22 pays ; 19 pays de la ligue arabe (non pris en compte les Comores, la Somalie et le Soudan) ainsi que l'Iran, Israël et la Turquie. On peut distinguer dans cet ensemble, trois groupes de pays (ERF, 2002). D'un coté des pays exportateurs de pétrole ; de l'autre des pays exportateurs de biens primaires (hors pétrole) et enfin des pays à économies diversifiées<sup>3</sup>. Mais ces pays se caractérisent aussi par leurs situations commerciales et financières.

### 2.1. Les relations commerciales

#### 2.1.1. Les accords régionaux

On peut distinguer deux types d'accords. Dans la perspective d'une intégration horizontale, ou encore de la mise en place d'un marché commun, les accords Sud-Sud jouent un rôle fondamental. Les accords Nord-Sud répondent quant à eux davantage à un désir d'intégration verticale.

#### Les accords Sud-Sud

Dès le début des années 50, la signature de l'accord inter-arabe sur le commerce et le transit (Agreement on Trade Facilitation and Organization Transit Trade, 7 septembre 1953), révélait la volonté des pays arabes de faire le choix du libre échange. Cette volonté se trouvait réaffirmée avec la création du Marché Commun Arabe en 1964. Mais c'est en 1997 qu'est décidée la mise en place de la Grande Zone Arabe de Libre Echange (GZALE) qui unit 18 pays (cf. tableau 1), soient les 22 membres de la Ligue Arabe à l'exception de l'Algérie, Djibouti, les Comores et la Mauritanie. L'objectif de cette GZALE est d'éliminer les barrières au commerce pour les produits en provenance des pays arabes, et ceci à un horizon de 10 ans. La réduction des tarifs a commencé en 1998 et se poursuivra à un rythme annuel de 10%. Parallèlement, des discussions ont été engagées pour la réduction des barrières non tarifaires. A terme, c'est-à-dire en 2008, on devrait avoir un marché commun des pays arabes. Créer un grand marché devrait :

- Favoriser la concurrence entre les pays arabes ;

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<sup>3</sup> Cf. l'annexe 3 pour un exposé plus détaillé de la situation économique de ces pays.

- Renforcer le pouvoir de négociation avec des blocs commerciaux bien établis, comme l'Union Européenne (UE), ou avec des organisations internationales (l'OMC par exemple) ;
- Accroître l'interdépendance entre les économies de la région, facteur favorable à la stabilité économique et politique.

Parallèlement, plusieurs pays du Sud de la Méditerranée ont signé des accords intra régionaux, allant dans le sens de ce que l'on pourrait qualifier d'intégration sous-régionale. Les Comores, Djibouti, l'Égypte et le Soudan ont renforcé leur ancrage africain en adhérant au COMESA. Le Maroc, l'Algérie, la Tunisie, la Libye et la Mauritanie se sont associés au sein de l'Union du Maghreb Arabe (UMA), avec comme principaux objectifs<sup>4</sup>:

- L'amélioration du bien-être et le renforcement des liens qui unissent les États membres et leurs peuples ;
- La réalisation progressive de la libre circulation des personnes, des services, des marchandises et des capitaux entre les États membres ;
- L'adoption d'une politique économique commune visant à garantir le développement économique et social des États membres.

De leur côté, Bahreïn, le Koweït, Oman, le Qatar, l'Arabie Saoudite et les Emirats Arabes Unis ont constitué le Conseil de Coopération du Golfe (CCG) en 1981, pour promouvoir la stabilité et la coopération économique.

On doit enfin noter, pour compléter ce tour d'horizon rapide, que de nombreux accords bilatéraux de libre échange ont vu le jour entre pays du Sud, sans compter les multiples accords préférentiels.<sup>5</sup> Mais dans l'ensemble l'impact réel de ces accords reste d'une portée limitée dans la mesure où les échanges intra-région sont relativement faibles.

De manière complémentaire, de nombreux pays de la région ont souhaité renforcer leurs liens avec les pays du Nord.

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<sup>4</sup> On citera par exemple l'Accord d'Agadir, l'Association de Libre Echange entre le Maroc et la Turquie. Pour plus de détails, on pourra se reporter au site web de l'UMA, <http://www.maghrebarabe.org/>.

<sup>5</sup> La note de la DREE de janvier 2002 répertorie plusieurs de ces accords.

## Les accords Nord-Sud

Parmi les accords Nord-Sud, le partenariat Euro-méditerranéen (Euromed), ou accord de Barcelone signé en 1995 entre 12 pays du Sud<sup>6</sup> et l'UE est amené à jouer un rôle fondamental. L'objectif principal est de créer une zone de libre échange entre ces pays et l'UE à l'horizon de 2010.

D'un autre côté, plusieurs de ces pays ont entrepris des négociations pour signer des partenariats avec les Etats-Unis (Jordanie, Maroc). Le tableau 1 résume les principaux accords signés par les pays du Sud.

**Tableau 1 : Principaux accords commerciaux des pays du MENA**

	<i>UMA</i> 1988	<i>CCG</i> 1981	<i>GZALE</i> 1997	<i>Accord</i> <i>Euromed</i>	<i>Membre</i> <i>OMC(a)</i>
Algérie	X		X	X	
A. Saoudite		X	X		
Bahreïn		X	X		01/01/95
Djibouti					
Emirats A. U.		X	X		10/04/96
Egypte			X	X	30/06/95
Gaza Pal.				X	
Israël				X	21/04/00
Iran					
Irak			X		
Jordanie			X	X	11/04/00
Koweït		X	X		01/01/95
Liban			X	X	
Libye	X		X		
Maroc	X		X	X	01/01/95
Mauritanie	X				31/05/95
Oman		X	X		10/10/00
Qatar		X	X		13/01/96
Syrie			X	X	
Tunisie	X		X	X	29/03/95
Turquie				X	26/03/95
Yémen			X		

(a) date d'adhésion

<sup>6</sup> L'Algérie, le Maroc, la Tunisie, la Turquie, l'Egypte, la Jordanie, Israël, la Palestine, le Liban, la Syrie et deux pays qui depuis ont rejoint l'UE, Chypre et Malte.



En fait, les pays du Sud ont jusque là tenté de concilier deux voies d'intégration, l'une allant dans le sens d'un renforcement d'une intégration régionale, l'autre poussant à des alliances avec l'extérieur de la région. Il est à souhaiter que cette stratégie qui repose sur un cumul d'accords (DREE, 2002) préserve une harmonisation indispensable à la réalisation de l'intégration économique. D'autant que l'intégration économique n'a d'intérêt que si elle permet un accroissement de la richesse des pays qui participent au processus. Nombreux sont les économistes qui se sont intéressés à l'impact des accords de libre échange sur le développement économique. Les travaux de Venables (1999, 2003) sont parmi les plus significatifs pour notre travail, dans la mesure où ils mettent en balance les accords Sud-Sud et les accords Nord-Sud. On en rappellera ici les principaux résultats.

### **L'impact des accords de libre échange**

Venables montre que l'impact des accords commerciaux dépend de deux facteurs :

- Les caractéristiques sous-jacentes des économies, et plus particulièrement les avantages comparatifs des états membres ;
- Les forces d'attraction, qui seront à l'origine du regroupement d'activités (*clustering of economic activities*).

Si les accords commerciaux concernent des économies en voie de développement (accords Sud-Sud), qui ont un désavantage comparatif dans la production de biens manufacturés, mais si ce désavantage est moins important dans certains pays que dans d'autres, les pays qui ont le plus faible désavantage bénéficieront de relocalisations d'activités productives au détriment des pays où le désavantage est le plus fort. Il s'opérera ainsi des regroupements d'activités dans certaines régions de la zone. Ce regroupement sera la résultante de forces centrifuges et de forces centripètes (Marshall, 1920, Venables, 1999). Les forces centripètes, qui contribueront au rapprochement d'activités, seront de trois types : la diffusion de la connaissance ou externalités technologiques positives ; le regroupement des forces de travail (*labor market pooling*) ; les liens entre acheteurs et vendeurs. A l'inverse, les forces centrifuges vont encourager la dispersion des activités. Elles pourront résulter d'externalités négatives, comme la pollution, et d'une localisation des consommateurs en dehors des centres d'activités. Dans ce dernier cas, la dispersion sera d'autant plus forte qu'il subsiste des entraves aux échanges entre les pays. Pour ces raisons, les pays en développement peuvent dans certains cas avoir intérêt à privilégier les accords Nord-Sud plutôt que Sud-Sud.

### 2.1.2. L'intensité des échanges entre pays Méditerranéens

Une première indication sur le degré d'intégration de ces pays peut être fournie par l'intensité des liens commerciaux. Dans le tableau 2, on a la part du commerce entre pays arabes dans le commerce total de chacun des pays. Ces données, extraites de l'*Arab Monetary Fund*, permettent de distinguer deux groupes de pays selon que cette part du commerce inter-arabe est en deçà ou au delà de 15%. Dans les pays du premier groupe (part inférieure à 15%), l'intensité des échanges reste faible. On y trouve : l'Algérie, l'Arabie Saoudite, les Emirats Arabes Unis, le Koweït, le Qatar, la Libye, l'Egypte, le Maroc, la Mauritanie et la Tunisie. On remarquera qu'on retrouve les principaux exportateurs de pétrole et plus généralement des pays exportateurs de matières premières. Le second groupe (part supérieur à 15%) comprend : Bahreïn, l'Irak, le Liban, la Jordanie, Oman et le Yémen.

**Tableau 2 : Part du commerce inter-arabe (CIA) dans le commerce extérieur total (CET) de chacun des 19 pays (En pourcentage)**

	1991	1995	2001
Algérie	2.08	2.78	2.12
Arabie Saoudite	7.48	8.36	7.19
Bahreïn	33.43	27.54	15.12
Emirats A.U.	5.97	7.30	7.93
Egypte	6.13	6.09	10.30
Irak	46.30	65.51	9.90
Jordanie	22.41	29.03	25.50
Kuweït	3.77	6.10	6.55
Libye	5.35	8.31	6.19
Liban	17.77	10.16	15.44
Maroc	10.99	7.92	9.04
Mauritanie	4.40	3.01	5.10
Oman	13.03	20.96	19.14
Qatar	8.81	10.19	7.28
Syrie	15.03	14.95	10.52
Tunisie	7.00	7.18	7.42
Yémen	20.77	20.97	16.81

Source : Arab Monetary Fund

Une manière plus robuste d'appréhender le degré d'intégration des ces pays consiste à observer leur commerce intra-branche, ou l'échange croisé de produits similaires. L'indice de Grubel-Lloyd<sup>7</sup> donne cette information. Nous rapportons dans le tableau 3 les calculs de cet indice réalisés par Oulmane et Ripoll-Bresson (2002), pour l'année 2000. Une valeur proche de zéro indique que le commerce est majoritairement inter-industrie, tandis qu'une valeur proche de 1 révèle la présence d'un commerce intra-branche. On peut remarquer que trois pays, l'Algérie, l'Égypte et le Maroc ont un indice plus élevé pour leurs échanges avec les pays du Sud que pour leurs échanges avec l'UE (Union Européenne) à 15 ou le reste du monde. Pour les autres pays, le degré d'intensité des échanges est plus faible avec les pays du Sud. Ces résultats confirment que l'intégration commerciale entre les pays de cette zone reste relativement faible, notamment si on la compare avec les pays de l'UE.

**Tableau 3 : Commerce intra-branche des pays du Sud en 2000**

	Monde	Pays du Sud(2)	UE à 15
Algérie	0.04	0.11	0.03
Égypte	0.29	0.44	0.22
Israël	0.63	0.33	0.56
Maroc	0.32	0.37	0.31
Tunisie	0.38	0.26	0.35
Turquie	0.40	0.17	0.36
Autres(1)	0.36	0.28	0.15

(1) Sont regroupés dans cette catégorie la Jordanie, le Liban, la Syrie et le Yémen.

(2) Pays de la rive Sud de la méditerranée.

Source : Oulmane et Ripoll-Bresson (2002)

## 2.2. Les relations financières

Le développement financier est favorable à la croissance économique dès lors qu'il permet une réduction des coûts d'information, des coûts de transaction et des coûts de surveillance (*monitoring costs*). De ce fait, un système financier moderne contribuera au développement des investissements grâce à une allocation efficace des ressources.

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<sup>7</sup> Rappelons que cet indice se définit comme:  $GL_i = \left( 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n |M_{i,j}^k - X_{i,j}^k|}{\sum_{k=1}^n (M_{i,j}^k + X_{i,j}^k)} \right)$ , où  $X_{i,j}^k$  et  $M_{i,j}^k$

représentent les exportations et les importations de produits k entre le pays i et le(s) pays partenaire(s) j.

Toutefois, si la littérature montre qu'il existe une corrélation positive entre le développement du secteur financier et la croissance du Produit Intérieur Brut (PIB), la relation de causalité peut être ambiguë<sup>8</sup>. En effet, on peut voir dans le développement financier un facteur favorable à la croissance, comme on peut considérer que le secteur financier s'ajustera dans la perspective d'une croissance future. Il est donc possible qu'une causalité bi-directionnelle existe entre ces deux variables. Le secteur financier causerait la croissance durant les premières phases du développement, tandis que dans les phases ultérieures, le développement financier deviendrait endogène à la croissance économique (Calderon et Liu ; 2003, Favara, 2003)<sup>9</sup>.

Au pire donc, le développement financier apparaît comme une condition permissive de la croissance, et pour cela il doit être étudié avec soin. A ce stade une difficulté majeure se fait jour, c'est la définition d'un indicateur pertinent du développement financier. Creane et al. (2004) proposent un indicateur de développement financier qui intègre six critères : (1) la politique monétaire ; (2) le développement du secteur bancaire ; (3) le développement du secteur financier non bancaire ; (4) la régulation bancaire ; (5) l'ouverture financière et (6) la qualité des institutions du pays. L'indicateur global ainsi obtenu varie dans une échelle comprise de 0 à 10. Les auteurs retiennent 5 niveaux de développement financier : très faible, faible, moyen, élevé et très élevé. Le tableau 4 donne un classement, suivant le degré de développement financier, pour 18 pays de notre échantillon.

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<sup>8</sup> Cf. par exemple LEVINE (1997), WACHTEL (2001).

<sup>9</sup> Cf. CREANE et al. (2004) pour plus de détails.

**Tableau 4: Indicateur de développement financier en 2003**

	Niveau de développement financier	Indicateur de développement financier
Bahreïn	Très élevé (>7.5)	7.7
Liban	Elevé (6.0-7.5)	7.0
Jordanie		6.9
Koweït		6.8
Emirats Arabes Unis		6.6
Arabie Saoudite		6.4
Oman	Moyen (5.0-6.0)	5.9
Qatar		5.7
Tunisie		5.6
Maroc		5.5
Egypte		5.4
Djibouti	Faible (2.5-5.0)	4.1
Yémen		3.9
Mauritanie		3.5
Algérie		3.2
Iran	Très faible (<2.5)	2.5
Syrie		1.1
Libye		1.0
Moyenne		5.0

Source : Creane et al. (2004)

### 3. Concepts et mesures de la convergence

Compte tenu des différents accords commerciaux et du mouvement de libéralisation financière, on est amené à se demander s'il s'est opéré un processus de convergence des PIB par tête. En fait, un des éléments du débat consiste à savoir si on a affaire à un processus global de convergence, oui si au contraire cette convergence s'est effectuée autour de groupes.

D'un côté, Barro (1991) et Mankiw et al. (1992) ont montré que les pays à faible revenu tendaient à croître plus rapidement que les pays à hauts revenus. Ce résultat a été interprété à la lumière du modèle de croissance néo-classique de Solow (1956). Dans ce cadre, Sala-i-Martin (1990, 1996a, 1996b) a distingué deux types de convergence: la  $\beta$  – *convergence* qui postule que les pays pauvres connaissent une croissance plus rapide que les pays riches, tandis que la  $\sigma$  – *convergence* indique que la dispersion des revenus par tête tend à se réduire dans le temps.

D'un autre côté, Quah (1995) présente une approche alternative et propose un modèle explicatif pour la constitution de clubs de convergence.

*“When different convergence clubs form, factor inputs (e.g. human capital) and social characteristics (e.g. democracy) will endogenously align around values determined by each country’s convergence club. Conditioning on such ‘explanatory variables’ leads the researcher using the traditional approach to conclude, erroneously, that it is those variables that determine a country’s economic position. By contrast, in the model, it is the factors deciding club membership that determine everything. The traditional researcher never finds and incorrectly attributes growth and convergence to factor inputs and social characteristics.”* (Quah, 1996 p.1053)<sup>10</sup>.

Initialement le concept de convergence a été appliqué à la littérature sur la croissance économique (produit intérieur par tête). C'est sur cette base que nous présenterons les différentes approches de la convergence. Par analogie, les mêmes concepts pourront être appliqués à la convergence des taux d'inflation.

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<sup>10</sup> On peut rappeler que de plus en plus de travaux dans la littérature récente analysent la convergence à partir d'une étude de la cointégration sur séries non stationnaires (Engle, Granger...). Dans ce type d'approche, la relation de convergence n'est pas satisfaite pour une période, mais se vérifie en moyenne sur le long terme. Dans le cas d'un système multivarié, le modèle de Johansen (1991) qui permet de détecter et d'estimer une ou plusieurs relations de cointégration est le plus couramment utilisé. Cf. la revue de la littérature de ISLAM (2003).

### 3.1. Les approches traditionnelles

#### 3.1.1. $\beta$ -convergence

Considérons la variable  $y_{it}$  qui représente le niveau de PIB par habitant de  $N$  pays  $i$  à la période  $t$ , avec  $i=1, \dots, N$ . La  $\beta$ -convergence va rendre compte d'un phénomène de rattrapage du niveau de PIB par tête des pays (ou régions) les plus pauvres vers les pays (ou régions) les plus riches. En d'autres termes, un niveau PIB initial plus élevé pour un ensemble de pays sera associé avec un taux de croissance moyen plus faible pour le même ensemble, dans la mesure où le taux de croissance des pays les plus riches sera plus faible que le taux de croissance des pays les plus pauvres qui opèrent ce rattrapage. Si on se réfère à une relation de régression en coupe transversale (Barro et Sala-i-Martin, 1992) du taux de croissance moyen sur le niveau initial du produit, on doit obtenir un coefficient négatif pour le produit initial. Soit la relation

$$\frac{1}{T} \log(y_{i,t_0+T} / y_{i,t_0}) = a - b \log(y_{i,t_0}) + \varepsilon_{i,t_0,t_0+T} \quad (1)$$

où  $y_{i,t_0}$  représente le PIB par habitant du pays  $i$  à la période initiale  $t_0$ .  $T$  indique la longueur de la période étudiée.  $a$  et  $b$  sont constants, avec  $0 < b < 1$ .  $\varepsilon$  est un terme d'erreur de moyenne nulle et de variance  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$  identique pour les  $i$  pays, et est indépendant dans le temps et entre les  $i$  économies. La condition  $b > 0$  implique la  $\beta$ -convergence et une valeur plus élevée de  $b$  correspond à une plus forte tendance à la convergence. En effet, la vitesse de convergence  $\beta$  peut être dérivée du modèle de croissance log-linéarisé au voisinage de l'état stationnaire, ce qui

donne la relation  $b = \left( \frac{1 - e^{-\beta T}}{T} \right)$ . Si on estime une relation linéaire par les moindres carrés

ordinaires (MCO), on peut déduire une vitesse estimée qui prendre la valeur suivante:<sup>11</sup>

$\hat{\beta} = -\text{Ln}(1 - \hat{b} \cdot T) / T$ . De plus, on appellera demi-vie (notée  $h$ ) le temps nécessaire pour qu'une économie ait accompli la moitié de la variation pour atteindre son état stationnaire, soit  $h = -\text{Ln}(2) / \text{Ln}(1 - b)$ .<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Notons qu'on peut obtenir une estimation directe de  $\beta$  en appliquant à l'équation (1) la méthode des moindres carrés non linéaires (cf. par exemple SALA-I-MARTIN (1996)).

<sup>12</sup>  $h$  se déduit de  $(1 - b)^h = 1/2$ .

Toutefois, un signe négatif ne garantit pas toujours la convergence absolue. L'écart par rapport à la moyenne a pu se réduire entre  $t_0$  et  $T$  sans que pour autant il y ait convergence absolue. C'est le problème de *l'erreur de Galton* soulevé par Quah (1993). De plus, il paraît très difficile de postuler la convergence des PIB par tête sans prendre en compte les caractéristiques structurelles de chacune des économies (infrastructures, capital humain, degré d'intégration au niveau international, croissance de la population, technologies, etc...). D'où l'intérêt de distinguer comme l'ont fait Sala-i-Martin (1990), Barro et Sala-i-Martin (1991,1995), Mankiw et al. (1992), la convergence absolue (ou non-conditionnelle) de la convergence conditionnelle. Rappelons que dans le cas d'une relation *univariée*, un coefficient  $b$  négatif signifie qu'on a une *convergence absolue ou non-conditionnelle*. Les  $i$  pays convergent vers un état stationnaire commun. Si maintenant on a une régression en coupe transversale qui inclut des variables explicatives additionnelles, un coefficient  $b$  négatif est synonyme de *convergence conditionnelle*. Chaque pays  $i$  va converger vers son propre état stationnaire.

Pour estimer cette équation, deux observations temporelles suffisent, l'une en  $t_0$ , c'est-à-dire à la période initiale et l'autre en  $t_0+T$ , à la période finale. Ce type d'approche souffre donc de certaines critiques. En premier lieu, les choix de  $t_0$  et  $t_0+T$  sont essentiels et peuvent conditionner le résultat de l'estimation du modèle. Aussi, certains (Islam, 1995 par exemple) ont proposé d'estimer ce modèle en panel dynamique en retenant une régression de la forme,

$$\frac{1}{T} \log(y_{i,t} / y_{i,t-1}) = a - b \log(y_{i,t-1}) + \varepsilon_{i,t} \quad (2)$$

En deuxième lieu, cette approche de la convergence ne tient pas compte de la dispersion des PIB par habitant, qui peut ne pas toujours coïncider avec une convergence des niveaux de PIB. Le concept de  $\sigma$ -convergence renseigne sur ce phénomène.

### 3.1.2. $\sigma$ -convergence

Pour mesurer la dispersion des revenus en coupe transversale, on retient une variance d'échantillon du log du PIB,

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [\log(y_{i,t}) - \mu_t]^2 \quad (3)$$



où  $\mu_t$  est la moyenne d'échantillon de  $\log(y_{i,t})$ . Lorsque N est grand, la variance d'échantillon est proche de la population et on peut dériver  $\sigma_t^2$  de l'équation (2). Il vient

$$\sigma_t^2 \cong (1 - \beta)^2 \cdot \sigma_{t-1}^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \quad (4)$$

La valeur d'état stationnaire de  $\sigma_t^2$  est donnée par,

$$\sigma^2 = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 / [1 - (1 - \beta)^2] \quad (5)$$

On peut aisément vérifier que la  $\beta$ -convergence est une condition nécessaire mais pas suffisante à la  $\sigma$ -convergence. En effet, en cas de choc exogène (augmentation de  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ ), une valeur plus élevée de  $\beta$  peut être associée à une plus forte valeur de  $\sigma$ . En fait, ces deux concepts peuvent ne pas correspondre. La raison pour laquelle ces deux concepts peuvent donner des résultats apparemment contradictoires vient du fait qu'ils décrivent deux situations différentes. Comme le rappelle Sala-i-Martin (1996): “ *$\sigma$ -convergence relates to whether or not the cross-country distribution of world income shrinks over time.  $\beta$ -convergence, on the other hand, relates to the mobility of different individual economies within the given distribution of world income*”.

### 3.2. Les approches en termes de dynamique des distributions et la mise en évidence de clubs

Galor (1996) démontre, à partir d'un modèle à générations imbriquées de type néo-classique (rendements d'échelles constants, productivités marginales des facteurs décroissantes), qu'il est possible lorsqu'on a hétérogénéité des individus que le système soit caractérisé par une situation d'équilibres multiples localement stables. Le phénomène de clubs de convergence est donc viable.

Les premiers travaux empiriques consacrés à la recherche de clubs se sont pour l'essentiel appuyés sur des modèles de régressions à seuils (cf. par exemple Durlauf et Johnson, 1992, Jean-Pierre, 1997, Gaulier, Hurlin et Jean-Pierre, 1999). Plus récemment une approche en termes de distributions a vu le jour, se référant notamment aux techniques non paramétriques du «kernel» ou estimateurs à noyau<sup>13</sup> (Silverman, 1986). Cette approche peut être complétée par une analyse

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<sup>13</sup> Dans la suite de ce travail, nous utiliserons de manière équivalente les termes estimateurs/densités du «kernel» ou estimateurs à noyau de la densité.

dynamique qui repose sur des processus de Markov. La mobilité à l'intérieur de la distribution est mesurée grâce à des matrices de probabilité de transition à temps discret et des matrices de transition à temps continu (« *stochastic kernel* »<sup>14</sup>). La dynamique de la distribution des revenus ( $F$ ) peut être modélisée comme un processus autorégressif (noté  $AR(k)$ ) qui prend la forme suivante :

$$F_{t+k} = T(F_t)$$

où  $T$  est l'opérateur qui décrit la distribution entre les périodes  $t$  et  $t+k$ . Cet opérateur peut être interprété, soit comme une matrice des probabilités de transition à états discrets, soit comme une matrice avec un continuum d'états (« *stochastic kernel* »).

### 3.2.1. Les matrices de probabilités de transition

La matrice des probabilités de transition divise la distribution initiale des revenus en différents intervalles discrets, en différents « états ». Cela permet de mesurer la transition des économies d'un état à la période  $t$  vers un nouvel état à la période  $t+k$ . Ces transitions sont exprimées comme des fréquences relatives et peuvent être interprétées comme des probabilités de transition. Les probabilités ainsi obtenues donnent le pourcentage qu'a une économie, qui se situe à un certain état de revenu, de rester à cet état ou de migrer vers un autre état qui peut correspondre, soit à un revenu supérieur, soit à un revenu inférieur. A long terme, les résultats de la matrice de transition permettent de déterminer l'état stationnaire du système. C'est l'ergodicité.

La limite de ce type d'approche réside dans la détermination des différents états. Généralement le nombre d'états ainsi que les seuils de passage d'un état à l'autre sont déterminés plus ou moins arbitrairement, à partir de l'observation de la distribution. Or, comme l'a montré (Bandyopadhyay, 2003), ceci peut affecter les estimations des probabilités de transition. Une solution moins arbitraire consiste à partager la distribution en classes d'effectifs identiques, sur la base de pourcentiles.

Toutefois, cette approche sera utilement complétée par la prise en compte de la « *stochastic kernel* » qui va substituer aux états discrets, un continuum d'états.

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<sup>14</sup> Le terme « *stochastic kernel* » peut être défini de manière plus précise comme suit: “*The stochastic kernel (and its related contour plot) is a graphical representation of the transition probabilities which has the advantage that it does not rely on a fixed number of discrete states but instead estimates a generalised form of the transition probability matrix in which renders the state space continuous*”, (EPSTEIN et al , 2000). Il s'agit donc d'une représentation graphique des probabilités de transition dans un espace d'états non dénombrable. Aussi, pour la suite de ce travail nous considérerons comme synonymes les termes « *stochastic kernel* » et probabilités de transition dans une matrice à temps continu/à espace d'états non dénombrable.

### 3.2.2. Les matrices de Markov à temps continu ou « *stochastic kernel* »

Plutôt que de considérer des états disjoints, on retient une distribution qui est estimée pour un très grand nombre de classes, ce qui s'apparente à une fonction de densité de probabilité. La représentation de cette fonction est une surface à 3 dimensions qui peut s'interpréter comme la possibilité d'une économie de migrer vers un rang supérieur ou inférieur, entre la période  $t$  et la période  $t+k$ .

Pour illustrer ces propos, considérons une distribution des revenus relatifs, c'est-à-dire de revenus rapportés à la moyenne de l'échantillon. Supposons que l'axe des  $x$  représente les écarts par rapport à la moyenne en  $t+k$ , l'axe des  $y$  prenant en compte ces écarts en  $t$ . Sur l'axe  $z$ , on obtient le tracé de la fonction de densité (« *stochastic kernel* »). On pourra parler de convergence lorsque la densité de probabilité (*probability mass*) se déplace parallèlement à l'axe des  $y$ . Cela signifie que pour un haut niveau de revenu relatif donné à la période  $t$ , on a un revenu relatif plus faible en  $t+k$ . De même, pour un faible niveau de revenu relatif en  $t$ , on a un revenu relatif plus élevé en  $t+k$ . Si le mouvement est parallèle à l'axe des  $x$ , on aura au contraire un phénomène de divergence, les « riches » devenant relativement plus riches et les « pauvres » relativement plus pauvres. Enfin, lorsque la fonction de densité reste concentrée sur la diagonale du plan  $x-y$ , cela signifie que les positions relatives des économies sont inchangées.

Mais la représentation graphique de la « *stochastic kernel* » est riche d'enseignements supplémentaires. Elle peut d'une part être le révélateur de clubs de convergence. Il y aura clubs, ou phénomènes de coalition, lorsque la fonction de densité laissera apparaître plusieurs pics. Elle peut d'autre part constituer un instrument utile pour la mise en évidence d'un processus de convergence conditionnelle<sup>15</sup>.

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<sup>15</sup> On peut en effet définir une « *stochastic kernel* » conditionnelle (Quah, 1997), basée sur des facteurs auxiliaires comme l'intensité du commerce entre des économies, la proximité géographique, la nature des infrastructures, etc. Dans ce cas, on procède à une représentation de la densité dans un plan  $x-y$  où l'un des axes représente la densité non conditionnelle et l'autre la densité conditionnelle. Il y aura convergence conditionnelle lorsqu'on observe un mouvement de la densité parallèle à l'axe non conditionnel. Par extension, si la « *stochastic kernel* » non conditionnelle fait apparaître des caractéristiques d'agglomérations, de clubs, qui disparaissent lorsqu'on conditionne cette « *stochastic kernel* », on pourra considérer que les facteurs conditionnant, c'est-à-dire les variables auxiliaires prises en compte pour définir la densité conditionnelle, expliquent les clubs de convergence.

## 4. La convergence réelle

### 4.1. La croissance dans les pays de la région MENA

#### 4.1.1. Les déterminants de la croissance

La croissance économique des pays du MENA n'a pas de raisons de suivre un processus identique dans tous les pays de la zone, dans la mesure où on a affaire à des pays très différents, tant au niveau de leurs dotations en ressources naturelles, que de leurs stratégies de développement ou encore de leur gouvernance. En s'appuyant sur les différentes études menées sur les pays de cette zone<sup>16</sup>, on peut mettre en évidence les facteurs suivants :

\* le capital humain : on peut s'attendre à ce que les pays qui ont un stock de capital humain et un niveau de connaissances élevés auront une croissance économique plus forte. Non seulement ce capital humain constitue un facteur de production additionnel, mais il permet de plus d'améliorer la combinaison productive.

\* le taux d'investissement : plus ce taux est élevé, plus la croissance sera forte. Dans ce cas, l'apport extérieur de capitaux, via des investissements directs peut être un facteur décisif.

\* les performances macro-économiques : Fisher (1993) a montré que la croissance économique peut être affectée négativement par un taux d'inflation élevé, par des déficits publics élevés et par des distorsions sur les marchés de changes.

\* l'ouverture économique : les canaux de transmission par lesquels une plus grande ouverture constitue un moteur de la croissance du produit sont multiples.

En premier lieu, lorsqu'on décide d'ouvrir l'économie, cela va se traduire par une réduction progressive des tarifs sur les importations, ce qui entraînera une réduction des prix des biens échangés et donc une appréciation du taux de change réel (*le prix relatif des biens échangeables et non échangeables*). Cette baisse générera un transfert de ressources au profit du secteur abrité de la concurrence internationale, moins productif que le secteur exposé, ce qui constituera un frein à la croissance. A plus long terme, la recherche de gains de productivité dans le secteur exposé inversera le mouvement et on doit retrouver un impact positif de l'ouverture économique.

En deuxième lieu, un pays en développement qui libéralise son commerce avec les pays industrialisés va profiter de transferts de technologie (réduction du gap technologique, Krugman

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<sup>16</sup> On se réfère ici à BEN HABIB et SPIEGEL (1994), MAKDISI et al. (2000).

1985), qui lui permettront d'améliorer sa productivité et sa croissance (Cf. par exemple les résultats de Coe et al. 1997)<sup>17</sup>. Enfin, on pourra noter qu'au delà des effets positifs qui transitent par les échanges de biens et services, l'ouverture des pays en développement aux investissements directs étrangers contribuera à renforcer les mécanismes précédemment décrits.

En troisième lieu, l'ouverture va inciter les pays à accroître leurs investissements. Ceci sera motivé par le souhait de renforcer la compétitivité du secteur des biens échangés et par la volonté de développer la production de biens d'équipements. Les travaux de Levine et Renelt (1992), Baldwin et Seghezza (1996), Wacziarg (1998) et Vamvakidis (1999) confirment cette hypothèse.

\* l'abondance en ressources naturelles : ces ressources peuvent avoir des effets contrastés sur la croissance. D'un côté, les ressources naturelles peuvent contribuer positivement à la croissance. Une hausse des revenus provenant de la vente de produits pétroliers peut faciliter des investissements dans les infrastructures. De même, les pays bénéficiant de ces recettes auront davantage de moyens pour que leurs populations puissent accéder à un niveau de connaissance, de qualification, de développement humain supérieur. D'une autre côté, ces ressources en abondance peuvent générer des effets pervers. Le premier mécanisme négatif est connu dans la littérature sous le terme de syndrome hollandais (*Dutch-disease*). Un pays riche en ressources et qui dégage des excédents de la balance courante peut voir sa monnaie surévaluée, ce qui pénalisera un développement de son secteur exposé à la concurrence internationale (biens manufacturés exportables et importables). Un pays riche en ressources naturelles peut aussi être enclin à une mauvaise utilisation des revenus en finançant des investissements peu productifs et en créant des incitations à la recherche de rentes. Enfin, ce pays sera très sensible à des chocs exogènes et en particulier à une forte volatilité des termes de l'échange, ce qui augmentera la volatilité de la croissance et pourra pénaliser le trend de long terme du PIB.

#### 4.1.2. Les faits stylisés

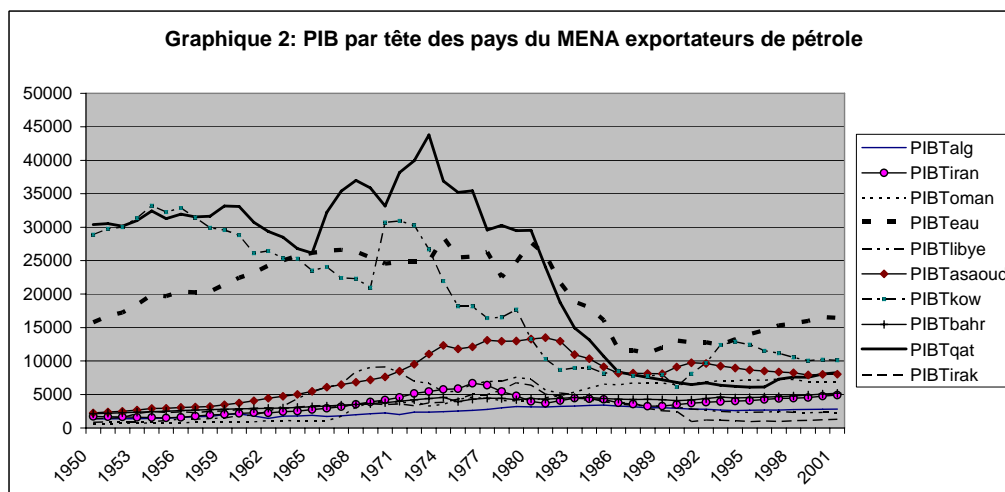
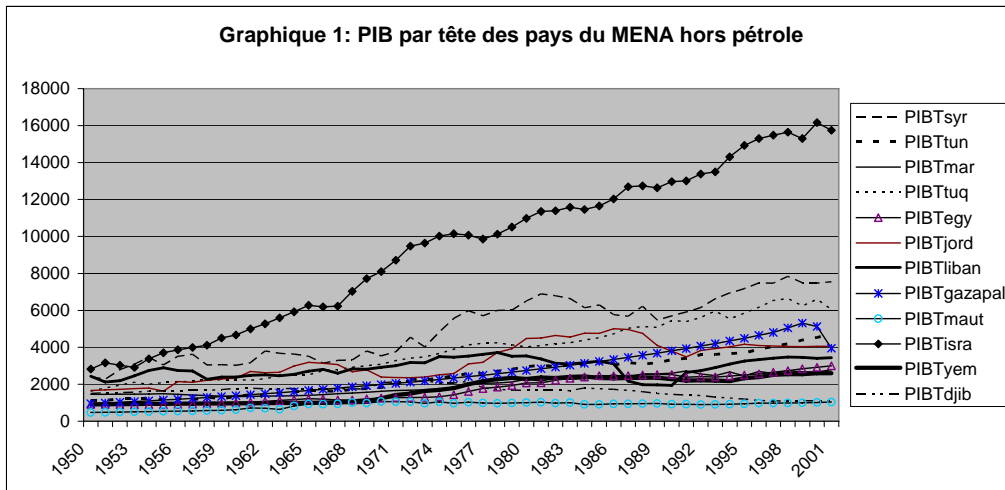
Un examen de l'ensemble des pays du MENA à la lumière des facteurs explicatifs de la croissance doit permettre de constituer des groupes de pays homogènes. Nous présentons dans ce qui suit des statistiques qui permettent de rendre compte des évolutions des PIB par tête pour l'ensemble des pays de la région.

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<sup>17</sup> Cf. REY (2001) pour un rappel détaillé de ces mécanismes.

## A- Les PIB par tête

Les graphiques 1 et 2 donnent les évolutions des PIB par habitant<sup>18</sup> sur l'ensemble de la période. On présente séparément le groupe des pays exportateurs de pétrole. Pour le premier groupe, on peut remarquer qu'à l'exception de la Mauritanie et de Djibouti, les PIB croissent régulièrement sur la période. Les pays qui connaissent la plus forte croissance sont respectivement Israël, la Turquie et la Syrie. Ce qui distingue le second groupe de pays c'est la volatilité du PIB. Ainsi après une période de croissance, on observe une baisse des PIB par tête à partir du milieu des années 1970 pour le Qatar, Les Emirats Arabes Unis, la Libye et à un degré moindre l'Arabie Saoudite.

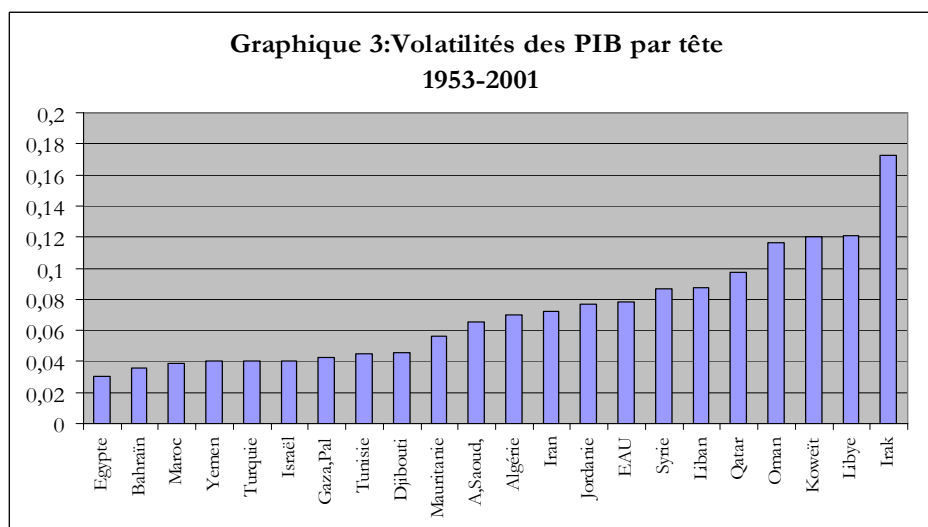


Ces observations nous amènent à nous interroger sur le lien entre la croissance du PIB et sa volatilité.

<sup>18</sup> Il s'agit des PIB réels corrigés des disparités de pouvoirs d'achat. Cf. annexe pour plus de détails.

## B- Volatilité et croissance

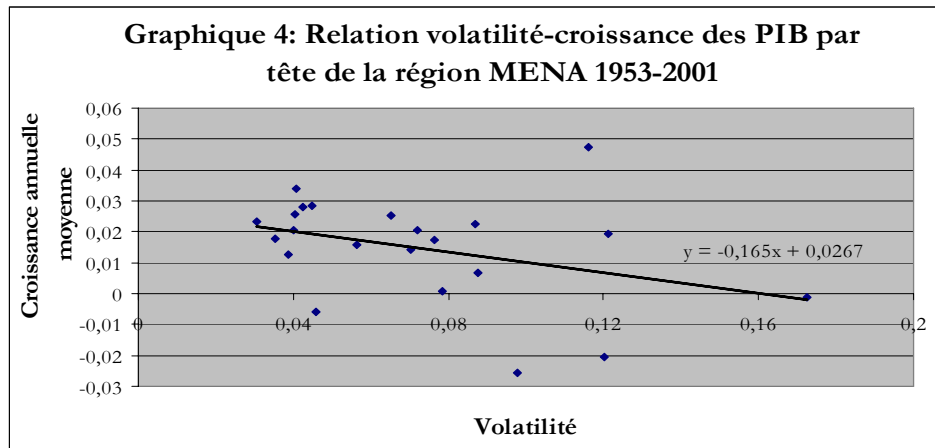
Dans un premier, on mesure la volatilité du PIB par tête à partir de l'écart type de son taux de croissance. Cet indicateur est calculé sur la période 1953-2001. En classant par ordre croissant de volatilité les pays de l'échantillon, on remarque sur le graphique 3 que ce sont principalement les pays exportateurs de pétrole qui ont subi la plus forte volatilité.



Aussi, on peut s'attendre à ce qu'une plus forte volatilité soit associée à une plus faible croissance (Kose, Prasad et Terrones, 2003). Les mécanismes de transmission peuvent être classés en plusieurs catégories :

1. une volatilité plus forte de l'output sera source d'incertitude sur les rendements futurs, ce qui tendra à réduire la croissance des investissements et donc de l'output.
2. la faiblesse des institutions financières et l'insuffisance des marchés financiers domestiques aggraveront l'impact négatif de cette volatilité, dans la mesure où cela limitera les options d'investissement (Aghion et al. 2004). A l'inverse, un degré d'ouverture de l'économie plus élevé contribuera à réduire cet impact négatif.
3. l'origine de la volatilité jouera aussi un rôle déterminant. Un choc budgétaire qui affecte à la fois l'épargne et l'investissement aura des effets significatifs sur la croissance (Fatàs et Mihov, 2003). Dans le cas des pays producteurs et exportateurs de pétrole, la croissance pourra aussi être affectée négativement par une plus grande volatilité des termes de l'échange.

Le graphique 4 confirme l'existence d'une relation négative entre volatilité et croissance pour les pays de la région MENA.



Les évolutions des PIB par tête ayant révélé des tendances divergentes pour certains pays, on va observer s'il s'est opéré un processus de convergence.

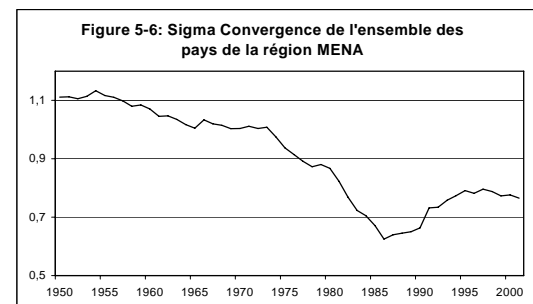
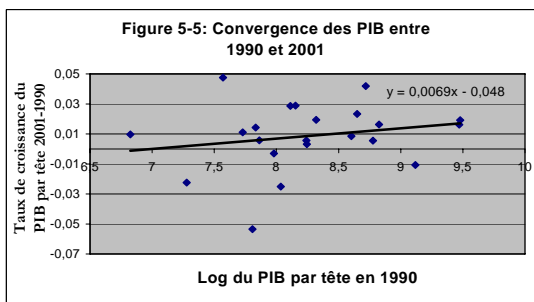
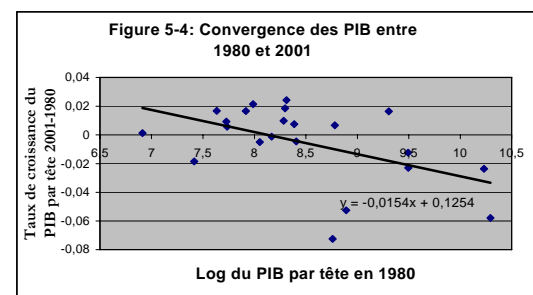
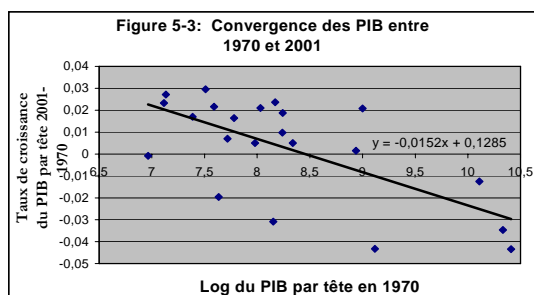
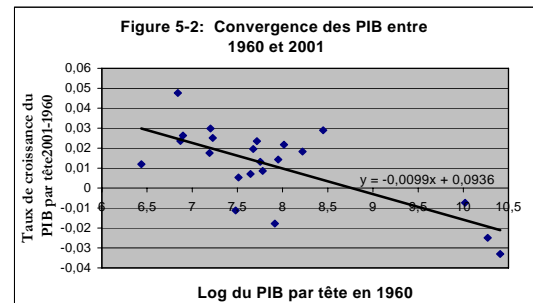
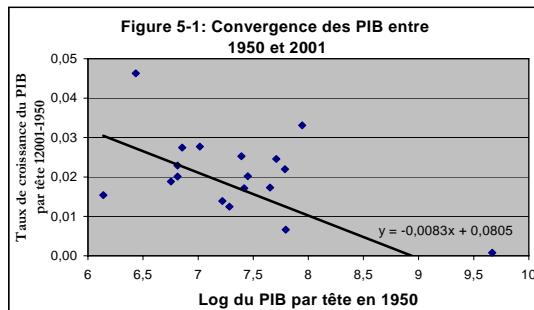
### B- $\beta$ -convergence et $\sigma$ -convergence

Les graphiques 5-1 à 5-5 représentent la relation entre le Log du PIB par tête (noté  $x$ ) à différentes dates (1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990) et le taux de croissance moyen (noté  $y$ ) du PIB par tête entre chacune de ces dates et 2001. Intuitivement, l'observation d'une tendance négative dans la relation est une présomption de  $\beta$ -convergence. On peut remarquer, à partir des graphiques 5, qu'il s'est opéré un processus de convergence sur l'ensemble de la période<sup>19</sup>. En effet un faible (fort) niveau de PIB par tête en début de période est associé avec une plus forte (faible) croissance du PIB. Néanmoins ce processus de convergence est remis en cause à partir des années 1990. L'examen de la volatilité des PIB ( $\sigma$ -convergence, graphique 5-6) confirme ces observations. Des années 1950 à 1986, la dispersion des revenus se réduit régulièrement, pour

<sup>19</sup> Sur chacun des graphiques nous rappelons l'équation des moindres carrés ordinaires (MCO) qui permet de mesurer la  $\beta$ -convergence. Pour alléger l'écriture, nous notons  $Y$  pour  $\frac{1}{T} \text{Ln} \left( \frac{y_{i,t_0+T}}{y_{i,t_0}} \right)$  où  $t_0$  représente successivement les années 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980 et 1990 et  $x$  pour  $\text{Ln}(y_{i,t_0})$ .



ensuite se mettre à croître jusqu'au milieu des années 1990, avant de diminuer à nouveau en fin de période.



On peut compléter ces résultats en présentant une estimation des vitesses de convergence et des demi-vies. Ces estimations sont données dans le tableau 5. Lorsqu'on s'intéresse aux périodes les plus longues, de 1950 à 2001 et de 1960 à 2001, on a des vitesses de convergence de 1.1 % et de 1.2% par an. Par comparaison, Sala-i-Martin (1996) trouve pour l'Europe une vitesse de 1.5 % entre 1950 et 1990, et pour les pays de l'OCDE, une vitesse de 1.4% entre 1960 et 1990. C'est pour la période 1970-2001 que la vitesse est la plus élevée (2%) alors que le signe négatif durant les années 1990 révèle un processus de divergence. L'estimation des demi-vies confirme ces observations, dans la mesure où la demi-vie chute de 83 ans pour l'ensemble de la période à 45 années pour les périodes plus courtes, 1970-2001 et 1980-2001.

Tableau 5 : Estimations des vitesses de convergence et des demi-vies pour les PIB par tête

Période	Vitesse ( $\beta$ )	Demi-vie ( $h$ )
1950-2001	0.0109	83.16
1960-2001	0.0128	69.67
1970-2001	0.0208	45.25
1980-2001	0.0188	44.66
1990-2001	-0.0066	N.S.

Lorsque la vitesse négative, le calcul de  $h$  n'est pas significatif (noté N.S.)

Dans la mesure où la fin de période suggère le rejet d'un processus global de convergence, et puisqu'il subsiste des écarts importants dans les niveaux de PIB par tête, on va examiner la possibilité de phénomènes d'agglomération entre pays, c'est-à-dire de clubs de convergence.

### C- Distribution des PIB relatifs par tête

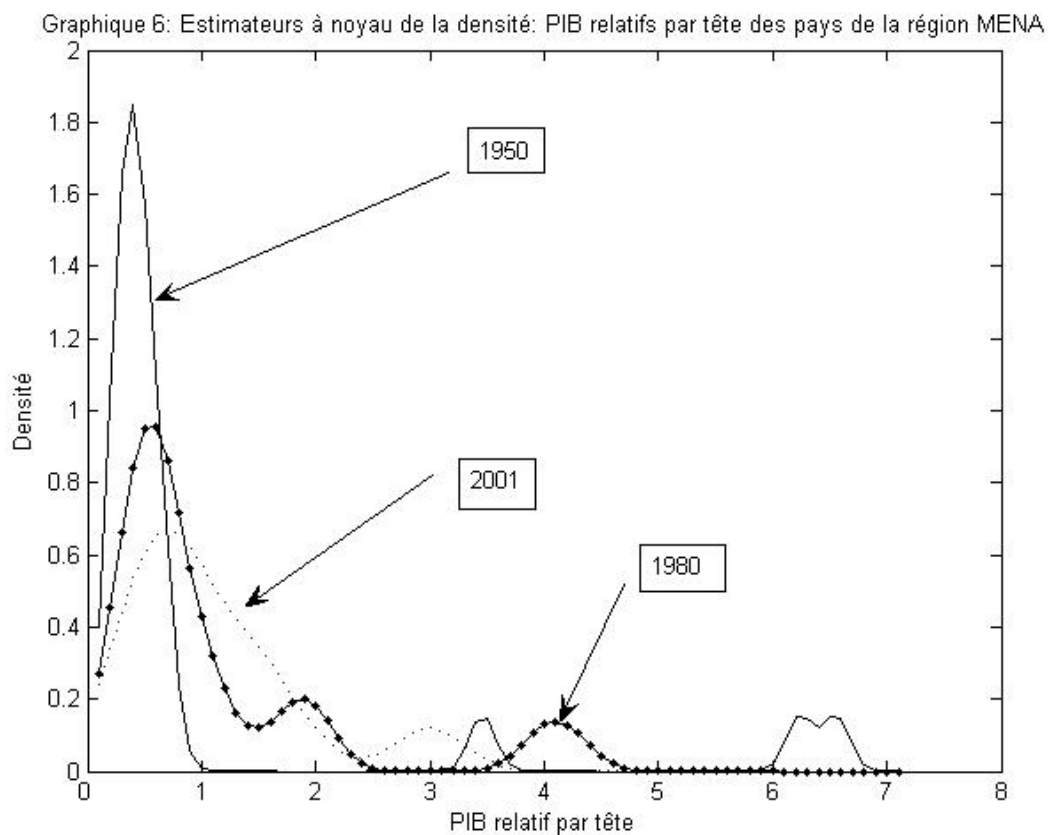
L'examen des PIB par tête des différents pays du MENA révèle des écarts de niveaux importants entre des pays relativement riches et des pays relativement plus pauvres. Aussi, l'utilisation d'une fonction de densité multimodale constitue un instrument précieux pour mettre en évidence d'éventuels phénomènes de concentration. La littérature sur le sujet fait aujourd'hui largement usage des estimateurs du «kernel»/à noyau. Pour un échantillon de  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  observations indépendantes et distribuées identiquement, l'estimateur non paramétrique de la densité  $f(x)$ , en un point  $x$ , est l'estimateur à noyau ;

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{n \cdot \delta} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x - X_i}{\delta}\right)$$

où  $\delta$  est appelé selon les auteurs, la largeur de la fenêtre, le paramètre de lissage ou la largeur de bande. La fonction du «kernel»  $K$ , ou fonction noyau, détermine la forme des bosses (*shape of bumps*, Silverman, 1986), tandis que  $\delta$  détermine leur largeur.  $K(\cdot)$  est une fonction de densité de probabilité. Les fonctions les plus largement utilisées sont la fonction Gaussienne (noyau

gaussien) et la fonction d'Epanechnikov. Dans ce travail nous nous en tiendrons à la fonction Gaussienne. Cette fonction est estimée, non pas pour les PIB en niveaux, mais pour les PIB par tête de chaque pays rapportés au PIB par tête moyen de la région MENA. C'est en cela qu'on parlera de PIB relatifs. Les notions de pays riche ou de pays pauvre devront donc être relativisées par rapport à la moyenne de la zone.

Le graphique 6 présente les estimations des densités pour trois dates, 1950, 1980 et 2001.



En 1950, la fonction de densité révèle la présence de trois groupes de pays. Le premier groupe constitué des pays relativement pauvres est le plus nombreux. Ces pays ont un revenu qui se situe à 0.3 fois le revenu moyen. Les pays intermédiaires ont un revenu égal à 3.4 fois le revenu moyen, tandis que les pays les plus riches se situent à 6.2 fois le revenu moyen.

En 1980, on retrouve toujours trois clubs, mais on peut constater que les écarts de PIB par tête se sont réduits. Les plus pauvres ont un revenu de 0.47 fois le PIB moyen, tandis que les pays intermédiaires sont à 1.78 fois et les plus riches à 4 fois le PIB de la région MENA.

Ce processus se renforce encore sur la fin de période, puisqu'en 2001 il n'y a plus que deux groupes qui se distinguent nettement. Les groupes à faible revenu et à revenu intermédiaire se sont rapprochés pour former un club dont le revenu est de 0.6 fois le revenu moyen. Le second groupe des pays riches se situe à 2.9 fois le PIB de la région.

Ces premières observations suggèrent deux conclusions. En premier lieu, il n'y a pas de processus généralisé de convergence des PIB par tête, mais formation de deux clubs de pays relativement pauvres et de pays relativement riches. En second lieu, l'écart entre les pays les plus pauvres et les pays les plus riches s'est réduit, les pays à hauts revenus étant relativement moins riches. On peut compléter ces conclusions en observant la situation géographique de ces pays. Les cartes 1 donnent une représentation des différents pays selon qu'il appartient aux trois classes suivantes : un revenu inférieur à 0.5 fois le revenu moyen de la région ; un revenu compris entre 0.5 et 1 fois le revenu moyen et enfin un revenu supérieur au revenu moyen. En fin de période les pays les plus riches sont concentrés autour du golfe persique. On pense bien sûr aux principaux producteurs de pétrole mais, comme on l'a montré précédemment ces pays ont vu leur PIB par tête baisser depuis une vingtaine d'années. Ce groupe n'est donc pas exclusif aux exportateurs de pétrole, Oman, le Qatar, l'Arabie Saoudite, le Koweït et les Emirats Arabes Unis, mais doit être complété par Israël, la Turquie et la Syrie. On remarquera enfin que la Libye qui faisait partie du club des pays riches en 1980 se retrouve aujourd'hui avec les pays à revenus relativement faibles.

**Cartes 1 : Répartition des pays de la région MENA-PIB relatif à la moyenne de la région**

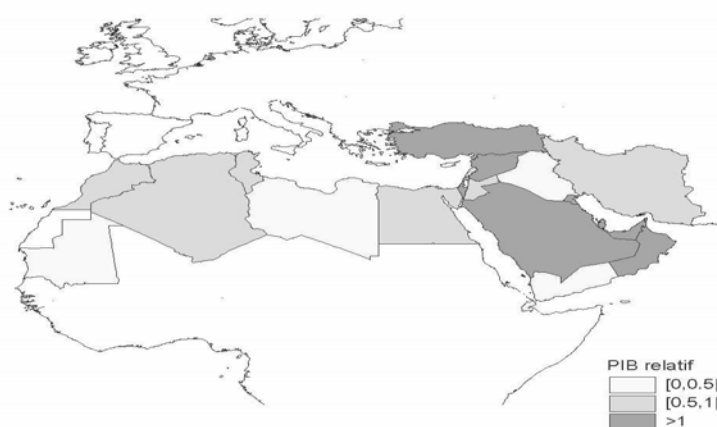
Année 1950



Année 1980



Année 2001



Cette première approche en termes de statique comparative permet de préciser la situation des différents pays de la région MENA à différentes dates. Cependant, cela reste insuffisant pour expliquer l'évolution du processus. Une analyse complète nécessite qu'on étudie la dynamique des distributions.

## 4.2. Dynamique des distributions et clubs de convergence

Dans ce paragraphe, nous analysons l'évolution des distributions des revenus à travers les différents pays du MENA. Tandis que les matrices de Markov à temps discret permettront d'expliquer le passage d'un état de revenu relatif à un nouvel état, supérieur ou inférieur, les « *stochastic kernel* » préciseront ce processus dans le cas continu<sup>20</sup>.

### 4.2.1. Les matrices de Markov à temps discret

On distinguera les matrices de Markov pour quatre états et pour cinq états de revenus. Le vecteur ergodique, ou l'ergodicité, illustre les propriétés de convergence à long terme des chaînes de Markov. Il fournit les probabilités de transition quand le système est à l'état stationnaire.

#### A- Le cas de 4 états de revenus

Les quatre états sont définis à partir des quartiles<sup>21</sup>, notés  $Qr$ . Le premier quartile représente 25% de l'échantillon, le second 50 % et ainsi de suite... Les colonnes du tableau 6 donnent le pourcentage de pays appartenant à un quartile qui conservent le même revenu moyen ou qui changent de classe une année plus tard. Ainsi, si on considère les pays du second quartile, au bout d'une année 87 % restent dans la même catégorie ; 3% retombent dans le quartile inférieur tandis que 9.7% accèdent au quartile supérieur.

Tableau 6: Matrice de transition – 4états

Dév. en t+1	Déviations du PIB moyen en t			
	$[0-Qr1[$	$[Qr1-Qr2[$	$[Qr2-Qr3[$	$[Qr3-max]$
$[0-Qr1[$	0,9435	0,0324	0	0
$[Qr1-Qr2[$	0,0565	0,8705	0,0575	0
$[Qr2-Qr3[$	0	0,0971	0,9101	0,0141
$[Qr3-max]$	0	0	0,0324	0,9859
Ergodicité	0.0805	0.1402	0.2366	0.5426

<sup>20</sup> Les estimations empiriques ont été réalisées avec le logiciel GAUSS. Les procédures utilisées sont celles développées par GUTIERREZ. Cf. le site <http://www.gutierrezluciano.net/>. Les représentations graphiques sont faites sous MATLAB.

<sup>21</sup> Les valeurs limites obtenues pour chaque classe sont respectivement de 0.31, 0.53, et 1.0

Les tableaux 7 et 8 donnent les transitions pour des délais plus importants de 5 et 10 ans. L'augmentation du délai permet de mieux cerner les phénomènes de transition, et donc de convergence. Ainsi, on peut noter que plus de 20% des pays qui ont les plus faibles revenus et 40% de ceux du deuxième quartile passent à un niveau supérieur. En revanche, sur 10 ans 26% des pays du troisième quartile redescendent au niveau inférieur contre seulement 3% des pays les plus riches.

Tableau 7: Matrice de transition – 4états

Dév. en t+5	Déviations du PIB moyen en t			
	<i>[0-Qr1[</i>	<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	<i>[Qr3-max]</i>
<i>[0-Qr1[</i>	0,7759	0,1132	0	0
<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	0,2069	0,5283	0,1786	0
<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	0,0172	0,3585	0,6964	0,0377
<i>[Qr3-max]</i>	0	0	0,1250	0,9623
Ergodicité	0.0487	0.0963	0.1981	0.6569

Tableau 8: Matrice de transition – 4états

Dév. en t+10	Déviations du PIB moyen en t			
	<i>[0-Qr1[</i>	<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	<i>[Qr3-max]</i>
<i>[0-Qr1[</i>	0.6896	0.0625	0	0
<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	0.2414	0.5000	0.2609	0
<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	0.0690	0.4062	0.5217	0.0385
<i>[Qr3-max]</i>	0	0.0313	0.2174	0.9615
Ergodicité	0.0149	0.0740	0.1280	0.7831

Ces résultats semblent confirmer deux points importants. Il y a bien un processus de convergence dans le sens où une proportion non négligeable de pays à faible revenu tend à rattraper les pays à revenus supérieurs. Mais ce processus de convergence n'est pas global dans la mesure où il se fait par regroupement de pays, synonyme de clubs de convergence. Non seulement le groupe des pays riches subsiste mais il s'étoffe, même si comme on a pu le voir précédemment l'écart entre les PIB par tête a pu se réduire.

La décomposition de l'échantillon en 5 classes doit permettre de préciser ces changements d'état.

## B- Le cas de 5 états de revenus

Les classes sont obtenues maintenant en retenant les valeurs qui délimitent les quintiles<sup>22</sup>, notés  $Q_n$ . Le premier quintile couvre 20% de l'échantillon, le second 40% et ainsi de suite ... On retient ici aussi les transitions sur des délais de un, cinq et dix ans. En réduisant la taille des classes, on obtient aux extrémités de l'échantillon un noyau de pays pauvres et un noyau de pays riches. Plus du tiers des 20% les plus pauvres vont accéder à un état supérieur contre 15% des pays les plus riches qui vont rétrograder dans la hiérarchie à un horizon de 10 ans.

Tableau 9: Matrice de transition – 5 états

Dév. en t+1	Déviations du PIB moyen en t				
	$[0-Qn1[$	$[Qn1-Qn2[$	$[Qn2-Qn3[$	$[Qn3-Qn4[$	$[Qn4-max]$
$[0-Qn1[$	0,9345	0,0441	0,0045	0	0
$[Qn1-Qn2[$	0,0611	0,8590	0,0495	0	0
$[Qn2-Qn3[$	0,0044	0,0969	0,8694	0,0319	0
$[Qn3-Qn4[$	0	0	0,0766	0,9361	0,0178
$[Qn4-max]$	0	0	0	0,0320	0,9822
Ergodicité	0.0496	0.0619	0.1151	0.2765	0.4969

Tableau 10: Matrice de transition – 5 états

Dév. en t+5	Déviations du PIB moyen en t				
	$[0-Qn1[$	$[Qn1-Qn2[$	$[Qn2-Qn3[$	$[Qn3-Qn4[$	$[Qn4-max]$
$[0-Qn1[$	0,7727	0,1020	0,0213	0	0
$[Qn1-Qn2[$	0,2046	0,5510	0,1064	0,0263	0
$[Qn2-Qn3[$	0,0227	0,3266	0,6170	0,0526	0
$[Qn3-Qn4[$	0	0,0204	0,2553	0,7368	0,0952
$[Qn4-max]$	0	0	0	0,1842	0,9048
Ergodicité	0.0301	0.0498	0.0827	0.2805	0.5429

Si on observe les comportements pour les deuxième et troisième quintiles, on peut noter une forte proportion de transitions, puisqu'à un horizon de 10 ans, moins de la moitié des pays reste au même niveau relatif. De plus, si 10% des pays voient leurs revenus relatifs diminuer, un tiers bénéficient d'un accroissement relatif du PIB par tête. Enfin un quart des pays du quatrième

<sup>22</sup> Les valeurs limites sont 0.28, 0.46, 0.65 et 1.30.



quintile vont rejoindre le groupe des pays riches. Ces mouvements de transition qui se font majoritairement vers le haut expliquent la réduction des écarts entre les groupes, révélée par l'estimateur à noyau. La probabilité pour un pays relativement pauvre de se maintenir au même niveau reste certes élevée, mais cela peut s'expliquer par les mauvaises performances de quelques pays parmi lesquels on peut citer le Yémen, la Mauritanie et Djibouti.

Tableau 11: Matrice de transition – 5 états

Dév. en t+10	Déviations du PIB moyen en t				
	$[0-Qn1[$	$[Qn1-Qn2[$	$[Qn2-Qn3[$	$[Qn3-Qn4[$	$[Qn4-max]$
$[0-Qn1[$	0,6364	0.1034	0.0435	0	0
$[Qn1-Qn2[$	0.3182	0.4138	0.0870	0.0625	0
$[Qn2-Qn3[$	0.0454	0.3793	0.4783	0.0625	0
$[Qn3-Qn4[$	0	0.0690	0.3478	0.6250	0.1500
$[Qn4-max]$	0	0.0345	0.0434	0.2500	0.8500
Ergodicité	0.0261	0.0580	0.2996	0.2996	0.5359

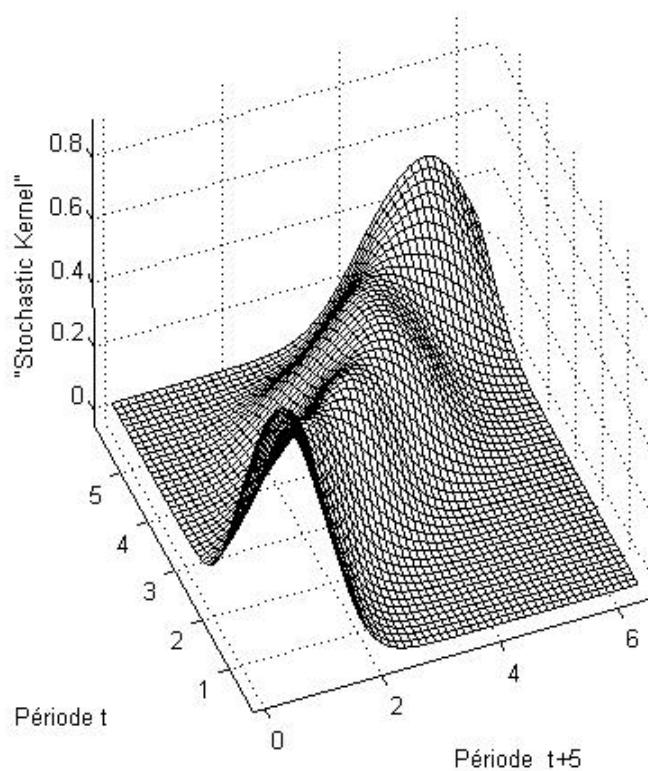
L'examen de l'ergodicité confirme qu'il n'y a pas un processus de convergence identique pour tous les pays puisqu'à long terme, seuls 53 % des pays se retrouvent dans le quintile supérieur. Une analyse de la distribution des PIB par tête en temps continu doit venir préciser et confirmer les observations précédentes.

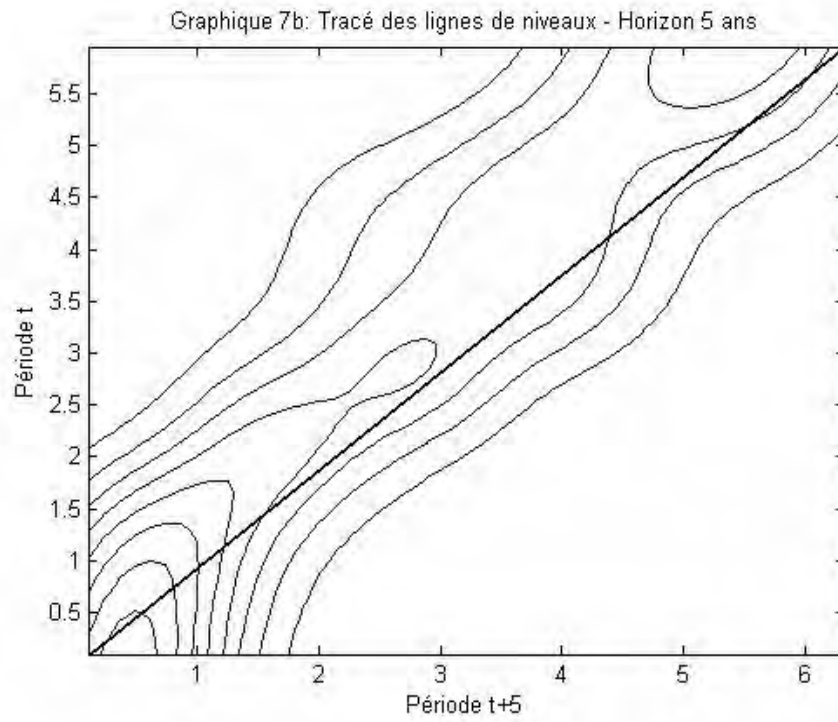
#### 4.2.2 La dynamique des revenus relatifs ou « *stochastic kernel* »

Les représentations graphiques des « *stochastic kernel* » en 3 dimensions et des courbes de niveaux (*contour plots*) sont réalisées pour des horizons de 5 et 10 ans. A un horizon de 5 ans (graphiques 7a et 7b), on voit se dessiner 3 groupes, 3 clubs de convergence. Le groupe des pays les plus pauvres, le groupe des plus riches et un groupe intermédiaire très proche du club à faibles revenus. Lorsqu'on passe à un horizon de 10 ans (graphiques 8a et 8b), on observe un phénomène d'agglomération des deux groupes à plus faibles revenus. Cela confirme la représentation de la densité (estimateur à noyau, graphique 6) qui révélait ce caractère bipolaire. L'examen des tracés des lignes de niveau confirme l'absence de convergence globale. D'une part, les pays à hauts revenus sont maintenant relativement moins riches puisqu'ils passent d'un revenu à 5.5 fois la moyenne de la zone à un revenu de 4.5 fois le revenu moyen 10 ans plus tard. Ceci peut s'observer par un déplacement de la densité en direction de l'axe des  $y$ . D'autre part, on

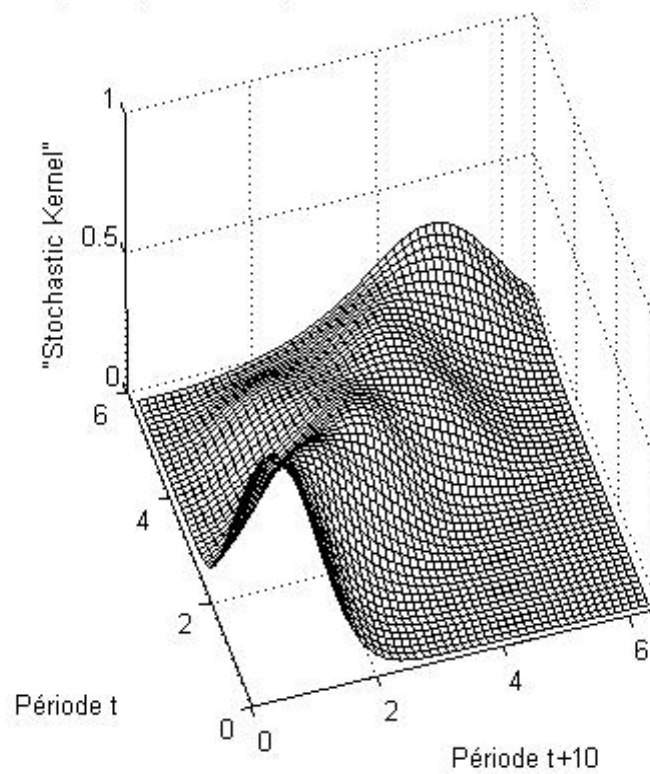
n'observe pas de mouvement clair de la densité en dessous de la diagonale pour les pays les plus pauvres, ce qui serait synonyme d'un processus global de convergence. Si convergence il y a eu c'est plutôt entre les pays les plus pauvres et les pays intermédiaires qu'il faut la chercher. C'est ce que reflète la déformation du tracé des lignes de niveaux qui tend à être parallèle à l'axe des  $y$  pour les pays à revenus inférieurs au revenu moyen de la zone.

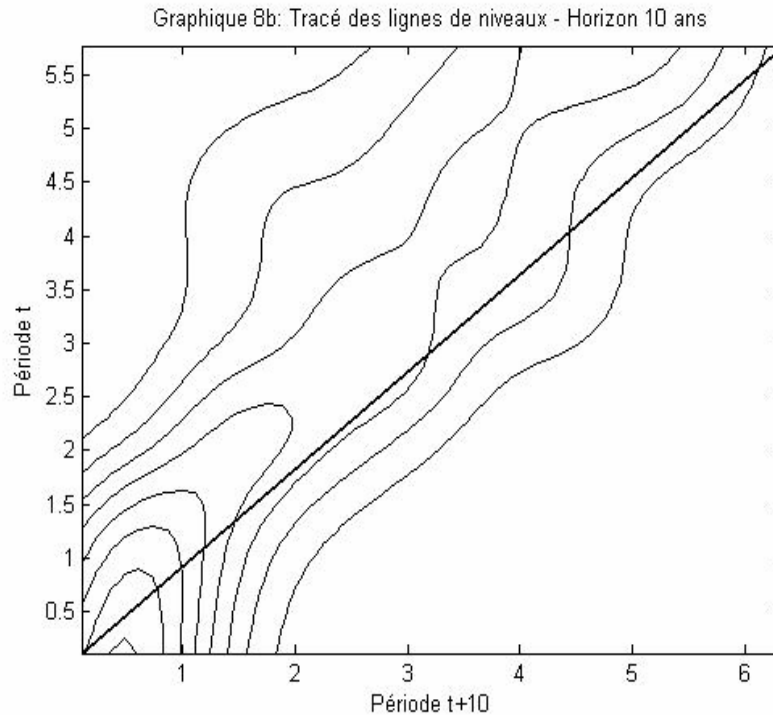
Graphique 7a: Dynamique des PIB par tête relatifs dans la région MENA - Horizon 5 ans





Graphique 8a: Dynamique des PIB par tête relatifs dans la région MENA - Horizon 10 ans





## 5. La convergence des taux d'inflation

Pour les pays de la région MENA, le problème de l'inflation est important à double titre. D'une part, comme on a pu le rappeler précédemment, une forte inflation peut être une entrave à la croissance économique. D'autre part, si les pays de la région MENA ont dans un horizon assez proche la volonté de limiter les fluctuations des taux de change entre leurs monnaies afin de renforcer les relations commerciales, ceci ne pourra se faire que s'il s'est opéré auparavant un processus de convergence des taux d'inflation. Cela nous ramène à la problématique de la zone monétaire optimale.

### 5.1. Analyse descriptive

On ne dispose pas de séries d'indices de prix complètes sur une période suffisamment longue pour analyser le processus de convergence. On a donc limité l'étude à la période 1973-2005, et aux douze pays suivants : l'Algérie, Bahreïn, l'Égypte, Israël, l'Iran, la Jordanie, le Koweït, le Maroc et la Syrie, la Tunisie, la Turquie et l'Arabie Saoudite.

### 5.1.1. Les taux d'inflation de la région MENA

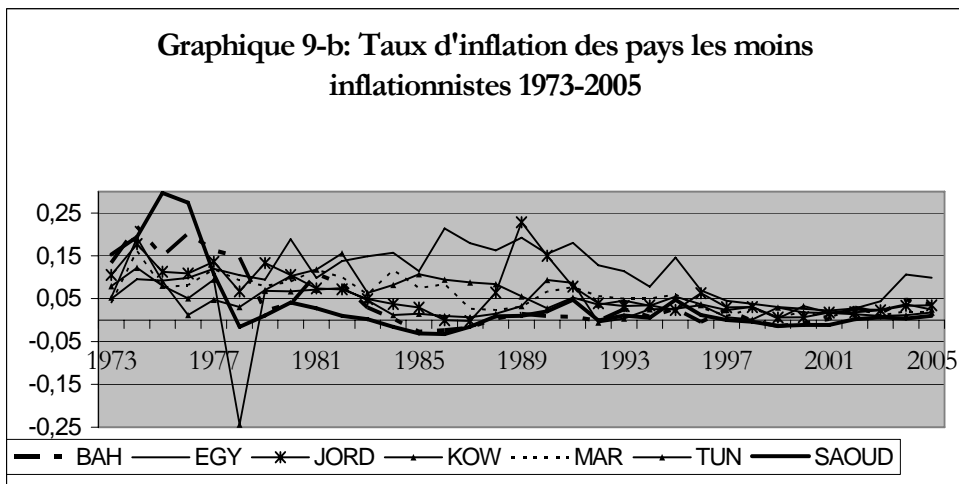
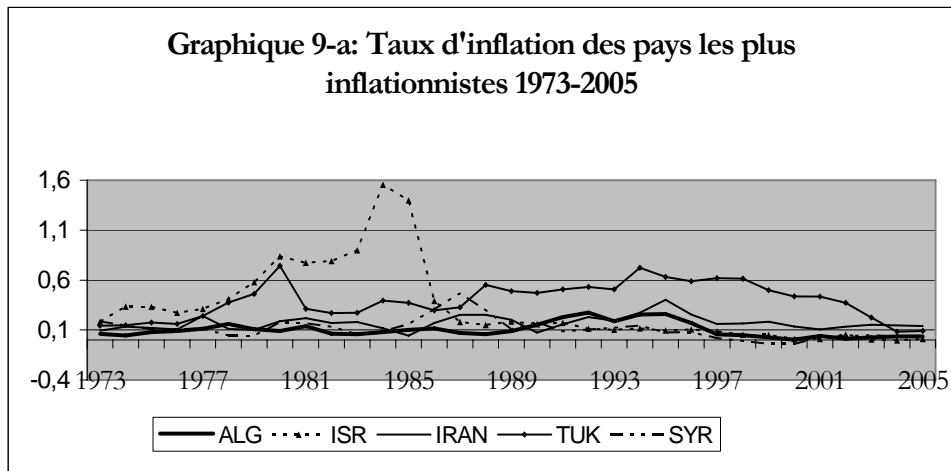
Les taux d'inflation des 12 pays sont calculés à partir des indices de prix à la consommation.<sup>23</sup> Si  $P_t$  représente cet indice de prix à la période  $t$ , et si le taux d'inflation est noté  $\pi_t$ , il vient

$$\pi_t = \log(P_t) - \log(P_{t-1})$$

Les graphiques 9-a et 9-b présentent les taux d'inflation en distinguant deux groupes de pays, les pays qui ont connu de forts taux d'inflation et les pays qui ont eu une inflation plus faible. Une simple observation montre que durant les années 1970 et 1980, la plupart des pays ont connu des taux d'inflation élevés quand on ne frôlait pas l'hyperinflation dans les cas de la Turquie et d'Israël. On peut même suggérer un phénomène de divergence des taux d'inflation, probablement lié aux réponses différentes des économies de la région aux deux chocs pétroliers.

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<sup>23</sup> A l'exception de la Tunisie pour laquelle la série des prix de gros, plus complète que la série des prix à la consommation, a été préférée.



### 5.1.2. $\beta$ -convergence et $\sigma$ -convergence

Par analogie avec l'approche sur la croissance économique, on peut tester la convergence des taux d'inflation en régressant le taux moyen annuel d'inflation de la période considérée sur le taux d'inflation de la période initiale. L'équation (1) adaptée aux taux d'inflation devient :

$$\frac{1}{T} \Delta \pi_{i, to+T} = \alpha - \beta \cdot \pi_{i, to} + \varepsilon_{i, to, to+T}$$

où  $T$  représente la taille de l'échantillon, ici 33 années.  $to$  est l'année initiale 1973 et  $to+T$  l'année 2005. La variation (le différentiel) du taux moyen d'inflation écrit :

$$\frac{1}{T} \Delta \pi_{i, to+T} = \frac{1}{T} (\pi_{i, to+T} - \pi_{i, to})$$

Les graphiques 10-1 à 10-3 montrent la relation entre le différentiel (noté  $Dinfl_{73-05}$ ) moyen d'inflation sur la période 1973-2005 et le taux d'inflation à la période initiale (noté  $infl_{73}$ ). Le coefficient négatif du taux d'inflation initial confirme qu'il s'est opéré un processus de convergence. Les vitesses de convergence et les estimations des demi-vies sont données dans le tableau 12. On remarquera que ces vitesses sont très supérieures à ce que l'on observe pour les revenus par tête, puisqu'on a une valeur de près de 5% par an pour la période 1980-2005. De même les demi-vies sont deux fois plus faibles que pour les revenus puisqu'elles varient entre 20 et 25 années.

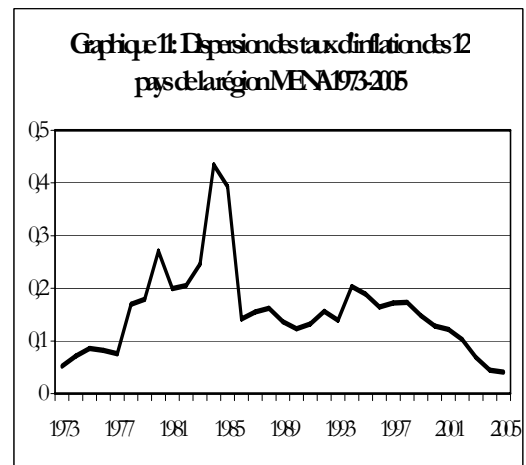
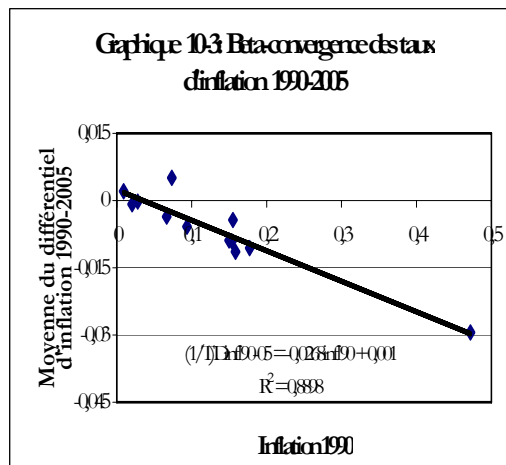
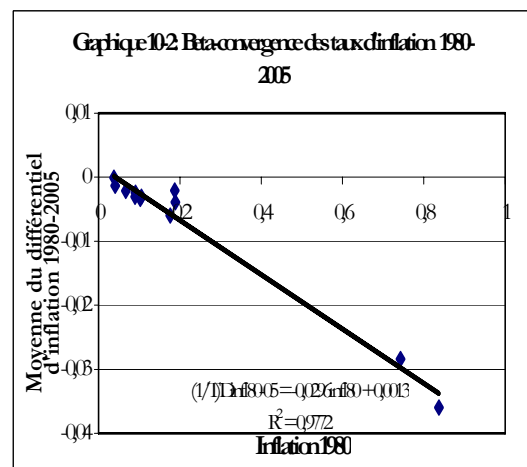
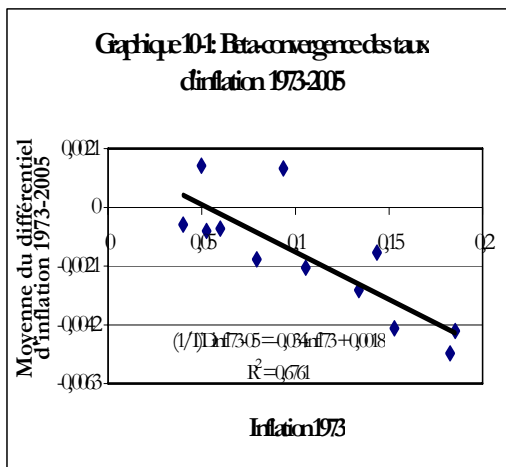


Tableau 12: Estimations des vitesses de convergence et des demi-vies pour les taux d'inflation

Période	Vitesse ( $\beta$ )	Demi-vie ( $h$ )
1973-2005	N.S.	20,04
1980-2005	0,0496	23,07
1990-2005	0,0329	25,51

N.S. La vitesse ne peut être estimée car  $\hat{b} \cdot T > 1$

La  $\sigma$ -convergence mesure la dispersion des taux d'inflation des douze pays de la région. Elle est définie comme :

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\pi_{i,t} - \bar{\pi}_t)^2$$

avec  $N=12$  et  $\bar{\pi}_t$  le taux d'inflation moyen des 12 pays à la période  $t$ . Le graphique 11 donne l'écart type des taux d'inflation à chaque période de 1973 à 2005. Après une très nette hausse de la dispersion de 1973 à 1984, on observe par la suite une forte réduction de cette dispersion suivie d'une remontée en 1994. Depuis cette date, la dispersion se réduit de manière régulière témoignant d'une convergence dans les taux d'inflation.

## 5.2. Distribution des taux d'inflation et convergence

Entre autres raisons, le processus de convergence des taux d'inflation se distingue de celui des PIB par habitant par sa discontinuité. Au lieu d'avoir un mouvement linéaire, on observe nettement deux évolutions distinctes. A une phase de divergence qui va du premier choc pétrolier au milieu des années 1980, va succéder une phase de convergence qui va se renforcer à partir des années 1990. Aussi une étude dynamique de la « *stochastic kernel* » devrait se limiter à ces deux sous périodes pour être pertinente. Compte tenu du faible nombre d'observations qu'il subsisterait, on a préféré s'en tenir à une analyse comparative des estimateurs à noyau à différentes dates. La dynamique sera abordée par le biais des matrices de transition.

### 5.2.1. Les estimateurs à noyau de la densité

On s'intéresse à la distribution des taux d'inflation relatifs de chaque pays. Ces taux relatifs se définissent comme la différence entre le taux d'inflation d'un pays et le taux d'inflation moyen du



groupe des douze. En s'inspirant de Weber et Beck (2003), on exprime le taux d'inflation moyen comme une moyenne pondérée des différents taux, où le poids de chaque pays est donné par sa contribution au PIB de la zone. Ainsi, si on appelle  $\hat{\pi}_t$  ce taux moyen pour la période  $t$ , il vient :

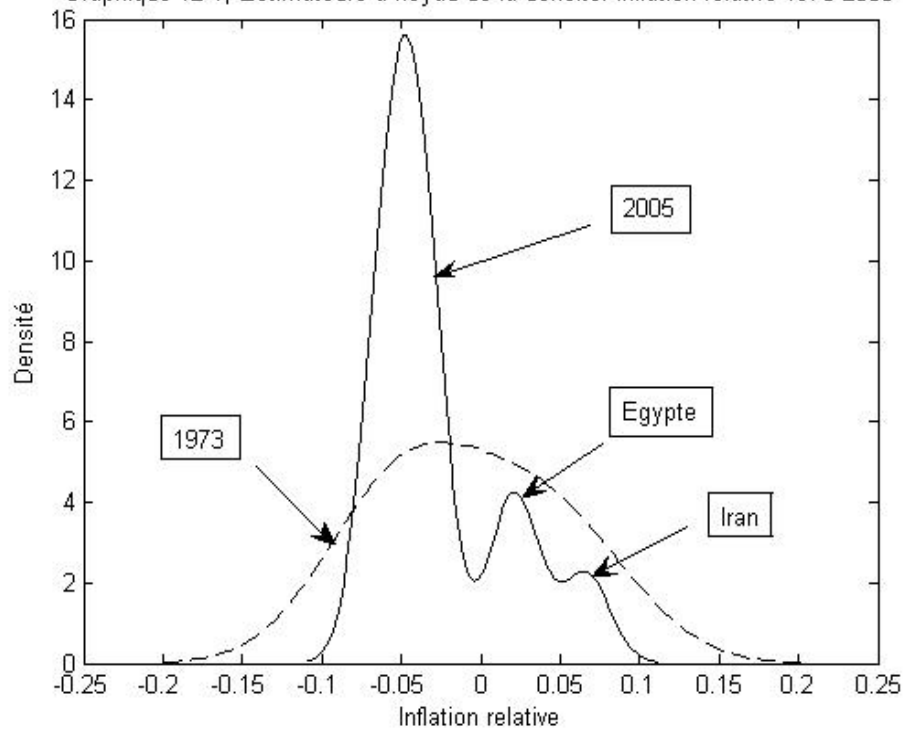
$$\hat{\pi}_t = \sum_{i=1}^{12} v_i \cdot \pi_{i,t}, \quad \text{avec} \quad v_i = \frac{PIB_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{12} PIB_i}$$

On retient les valeurs du PIB en 2001 pour chacun des pays<sup>24</sup>. La mise en évidence d'éventuels phénomènes de concentration reposera, comme pour les PIB par tête, sur l'utilisation d'une fonction de densité multimodale à noyau (cf. section précédente). Ces fonctions sont estimées à quatre dates différentes, 1973, 1980, 1986 et 2005. Les observations renforcent les remarques précédentes. Après les deux chocs pétroliers, deux groupes distincts se font jour, ce qui illustre le processus de divergence. Un à forte inflation, avec en particulier Israël et la Turquie, et un à faible inflation. Dès le milieu des années 1980 (graphique 12-3), le mouvement de convergence se dessine pour être indiscutable en 2005. Dix pays sur douze, à savoir l'Algérie, Bahreïn, Israël, la Jordanie, le Koweït, le Maroc, la Syrie, la Tunisie, la Turquie et l'Arabie Saoudite ont convergé en matière d'inflation. Seuls l'Égypte et l'Iran ont des taux d'inflation supérieurs.

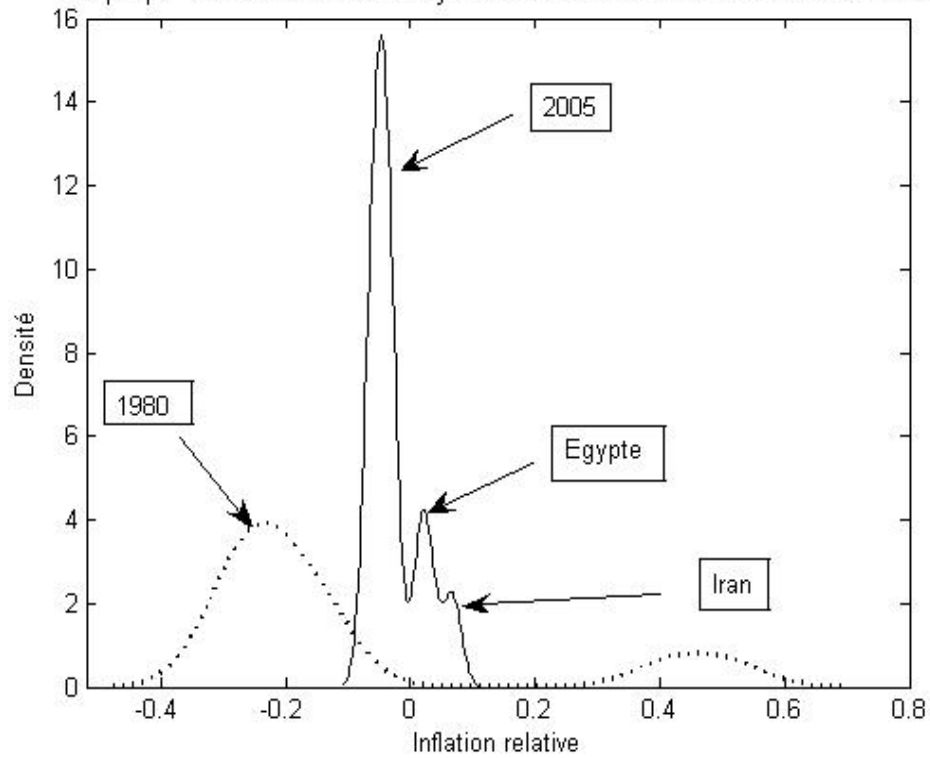
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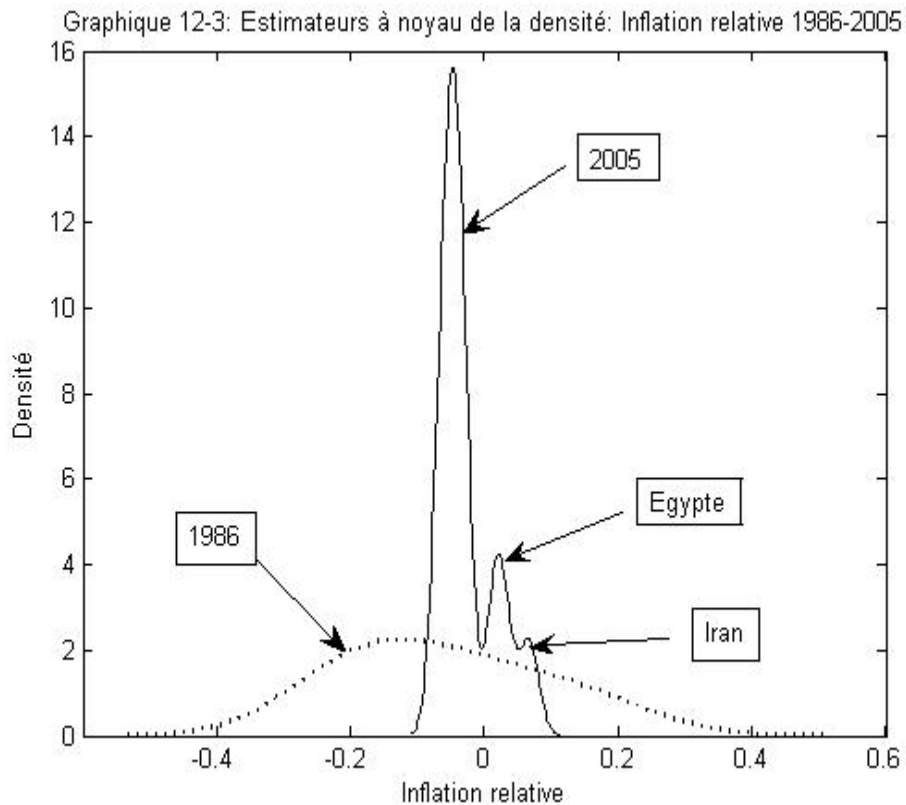
<sup>24</sup> Ces PIB sont exprimés en dollars internationaux Geary-Khamis de 1990 (MADDISSON, 2003). On obtient les pondérations suivantes : 5.5% pour l'Algérie, 0.2% pour le Bahreïn, 13.3% pour l'Égypte, 5.8% pour Israël, 20.4% pour l'Iran, 1.3% pour la Jordanie, 1.3% pour le Koweït, 5.3% pour le Maroc, 7.8% pour la Syrie, 2.8% pour la Tunisie, 24.9% pour la Turquie et 11.3% pour l'Arabie Saoudite.

Graphique 12-1; Estimateurs à noyau de la densité: Inflation relative 1973-2005



Graphique 12-2: Estimateurs à noyau de la densité: Inflation relative 1980-2005





L'analyse des matrices de transition doit permettre de compléter l'étude de la dynamique des taux d'inflation

## 5.2.2. Les matrices de transition

### A- Le cas de 4 états de revenus

Comme précédemment, les quatre états sont définis à partir des quartiles<sup>25</sup>, notés  $Q_r$ . Rappelons que les colonnes du tableau 13 donnent le pourcentage de pays appartenant à un quartile qui conservent la même inflation relative (à la moyenne des 12) ou qui changent de classe une année plus tard. Ainsi, on observe d'importants changements des situations inflationnistes puisqu'à un horizon de un an, un quart des pays appartenant aux extrêmes (premier et quatrième quartiles) ont changé d'état, et que près de la moitié des pays des deux quartiles intermédiaires ont aussi transité.

<sup>25</sup> Les valeurs limites obtenues pour chaque classe sont respectivement de -0.17, -0.10 et -0.03.

Tableau 13: Matrice de transition – 4états

Dév. en t+1	Déviations de l'inflation moyenne en t			
	<i>[min-Qr1[</i>	<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	<i>[Qr3-max]</i>
<i>[min-Qr1[</i>	0,7368	0,1776	0,0595	0,0102
<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	0,2105	0,5795	0,2381	0,0510
<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	0,0316	0,2149	0,5476	0,1633
<i>[Qr3-max]</i>	0,0211	0,0280	0,1548	0,7755
Ergodicité	0,2559	0,2878	0,2346	0,2217

Lorsqu'on passe à un horizon de cinq années (tableau 14), les changements d'état sont encore plus marqués et révèlent une tendance générale à la convergence vers les états intermédiaires.

Tableau 14 : Matrice de transition – 4états

Dév. en t+5	Déviations de l'inflation moyenne en t			
	<i>[min-Qr1[</i>	<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	<i>[Qr3-max]</i>
<i>[min-Qr1[</i>	0,5000	0,3000	0,1538	0,0476
<i>[Qr1-Qr2[</i>	0,1667	0,4000	0,2308	0,2857
<i>[Qr2-Qr3[</i>	0,2778	0,2500	0,3846	0,1429
<i>[Qr3-max]</i>	0,0555	0,0500	0,2308	0,5238
Ergodicité	0,2645	0,2701	0,2736	0,1918

L'ergodicité reflète le comportement atypique de l'Iran et de l'Égypte mais aussi les changements de régime survenus dans les années 1970 et 1980 (impact des chocs pétroliers) qui ont contrarié un mouvement régulier de convergence. La décomposition de l'échantillon en 5 classes doit permettre de préciser ces changements d'état.

## B- Le cas de 5 états de revenus

Les classes sont obtenues maintenant en retenant les valeurs qui délimitent les quintiles<sup>26</sup>, notés  $Q_n$ . On retient ici aussi les transitions sur des délais de un et cinq ans. En réduisant la taille des classes, on obtient aux extrémités de l'échantillon un noyau de pays à faible inflation et un noyau à forte inflation. A un horizon de une année (tableau 15), 30% des pays les moins

<sup>26</sup> Les valeurs limites sont -0.18, -0.13, -0.07 et -0.003.

inflationnistes vont rejoindre le quintile supérieur et 25% des plus inflationnistes vont accéder à un état inférieur. Ces mouvements sont encore plus nets si on se place à un horizon de cinq années (tableau 16). En particulier, on peut remarquer que 7% des pays à forte inflation rejoignent la catégorie des moins inflationnistes. Les mouvements de transition sont importants et on voit se dessiner un processus de convergence vers un état qui correspond approximativement aux deuxième et troisième quintiles.

Tableau 15: Matrice de transition – 5 états

Dév. en t+1	Déviations de l'inflation moyenne en t				
	$[min-Qn1[$	$[Qn1-Qn2[$	$[Qn2-Qn3[$	$[Qn3-Qn4[$	$[Qn4-max]$
$[min-Qn1[$	0,7108	0,2394	0,0760	0,0132	0
$[Qn1-Qn2[$	0,1928	0,4366	0,2152	0,0921	0
$[Qn2-Qn3[$	0,0843	0,2535	0,4430	0,1974	0,0400
$[Qn3-Qn4[$	0	0,0564	0,2405	0,5263	0,2133
$[Qn4-max]$	0,0121	0,0141	0,0253	0,1710	0,7467
Ergodicité	0,2181	0,1869	0,2049	0,2082	0,1818

Tableau 16: Matrice de transition – 5 états

Dév. en t+5	Déviations de l'inflation moyenne en t				
	$[min-Qn1[$	$[Qn1-Qn2[$	$[Qn2-Qn3[$	$[Qn3-Qn4[$	$[Qn4-max]$
$[min-Qn1[$	0,5000	0,2941	0,1000	0,0667	0,0714
$[Qn1-Qn2[$	0,1875	0,2353	0,6000	0,2667	0
$[Qn2-Qn3[$	0,1875	0,3530	0,3000	0,1333	0,2143
$[Qn3-Qn4[$	0,1250	0,0588	0	0,4000	0,1428
$[Qn4-max]$	0	0,0588	0	0,1333	0,5714
Ergodicité	0,2564	0,3053	0,2643	0,1008	0,0732

On peut penser que ces mouvements seraient encore plus marqués si on allongeait l'horizon, même si on a fait le choix ici de s'en tenir à cinq années, compte tenu du nombre limité d'observations. Ce mouvement qui reflète en particulier la forte désinflation qu'ont connu depuis le milieu des années 1980 des pays comme Israël, la Turquie et à un degré moindre, la Syrie, l'Algérie ou Oman confirme les observations précédentes, à la fois sur la  $\beta$ -convergence et sur les estimateurs à noyau. L'estimation de « *stochastic kernel* » serait utile pour affiner ces conclusions, en précisant la forme du processus de convergence.

## 6. Les implications économiques de la convergence des taux d'inflation

Une réduction de la dispersion des taux d'inflation des pays de la zone est un facteur déterminant de l'évolution de la compétitivité prix des différents pays. C'est aussi un élément à prendre en compte dans toute stratégie de fixation des taux de change. Pour illustrer ces points, on peut se référer au taux de change réel effectif d'un pays  $i$  vis-à-vis d'un ensemble de  $j$  pays. Au temps  $t$ , on peut écrire ce taux comme :

$$ER_t^{eff,i} = \prod_{j=1}^{N-1} [ER_t^{j/i}]^{\theta_{j,i}} \quad 27$$

où  $ER^{j/i}$  représente le taux de change réel bilatéral entre les monnaies  $i$  et  $j$ , défini comme

$ER^{j/i} = \frac{E^{j/i} \cdot P^i}{P^j}$  <sup>28</sup>. Soit  $E^{j/i}$  le nombre d'unités de monnaie  $j$  pour une unité de monnaie  $i$ ; et

$P$  le niveau des prix dans chacun des pays. Aussi, une augmentation (baisse) du taux de change réel de la monnaie  $i$  sera synonyme d'une appréciation (dépréciation) réelle, ou d'une perte de compétitivité prix. Si on décompose les niveaux généraux de prix comme une moyenne des prix des biens échangés (prix du secteur concurrencé au niveau international, notés  $P_e$ ) et des prix des biens non échangés (prix du secteur abrité de la concurrence internationale, notés  $P_{ne}$ ), avec  $\alpha_e$  et  $\beta_e$  les parts des biens échangés dans les pays  $i$  et  $j$ , il vient :

$$P^i = (P_e^i)^{\alpha_e} \cdot (P_{ne}^i)^{(1-\alpha_e)}$$

$$P^j = (P_e^j)^{\beta_e} \cdot (P_{ne}^j)^{(1-\beta_e)}$$

Le taux de change réel effectif devient<sup>29</sup> :

$$ER_t^{eff,i} = ER_{be,t}^{eff,i} \frac{(PR_t^i)^{(1-\alpha_e)}}{(PR_t^{eff,i})^{(1-\beta_e)}}$$

<sup>27</sup> Dans la pratique, on calcule les taux de change effectifs sous forme d'indices, c'est-à-dire par rapport à une période de base. Pour simplifier la présentation, nous présentons ici les taux effectifs pour des variables en niveaux. Ceci n'altère en rien les conclusions que nous obtenons dans la mesure où nous nous intéressons aux variations relatives de ces taux.

<sup>28</sup>  $\theta_{j,i}$  représente le poids de chaque monnaie dans l'indice. Ce poids est souvent défini comme la part du commerce de chacun des pays  $j$  dans l'ensemble du commerce de  $i$  avec la zone.

<sup>29</sup> On supposera, pour simplifier la présentation, que chaque pays  $j$  a le même poids  $\beta_e$ .

-  $ER_{be,t}^{eff,i}$  représente le taux de change réel effectif défini sur la base des prix des seuls biens

échangés, soit  $ER_{be,t}^{eff,i} = \prod_{j=1}^{N-1} [ER_{be,t}^{j/i}]^{\theta_{j,i}}$ , avec  $ER_{be,t}^{j/i} = \frac{E_t^{j/i} P_{e,t}^i}{P_{e,t}^j}$ <sup>30</sup>.

-  $PR_t^i$  est le prix relatif (indices des prix) du pays  $i$ , soit  $PR_t^i = \frac{P_{ne,t}^i}{P_{e,t}^i}$ .

-  $PR_t^{eff,i}$ , le prix relatif effectif de l'ensemble des pays  $j$ , soit  $PR_t^{eff,i} = \prod_{j=1}^{N-1} \left[ \frac{P_{ne,t}^j}{P_{e,t}^j} \right]^{\theta_{j,i}}$ .

Si on admet que le taux de change réel des prix des biens échangés doit converger en longue période vers sa valeur stationnaire (loi du prix unique sur les biens échangés), cette relation peut se réécrire en variations relatives comme:

$$\dot{ER}_t^{eff,i} = (1 - \alpha_e) \cdot \dot{PR}_t^i - (1 - \beta_e) \cdot \dot{PR}_t^{eff,i}$$

$$\text{où } \dot{x}_t = d \log(x) / dt.$$

avec

$$\dot{ER}_t^{eff,i} = \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot \dot{E}_t^{j/i} + \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot (\dot{P}_t^i - \dot{P}_t^j)$$

La partie droite de l'équation précédente s'écrit quant à elle comme :

$$(1 - \alpha_e) \cdot (\dot{P}_{ne,t}^i - \dot{P}_{e,t}^i) - (1 - \beta_e) \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot (\dot{P}_{ne,t}^j - \dot{P}_{e,t}^j)$$

On obtient alors :

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot \dot{E}_t^{j/i} + \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot (\dot{P}_t^i - \dot{P}_t^j) = (1 - \alpha_e) \cdot (\dot{P}_{ne,t}^i - \dot{P}_{e,t}^i) - (1 - \beta_e) \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \theta_{j,i} \cdot (\dot{P}_{ne,t}^j - \dot{P}_{e,t}^j)$$

Si les taux d'inflation ont tendance à converger, c'est-à-dire si  $\dot{P}_t^i - \dot{P}_t^j \approx 0$ , les variations du taux de change nominal devront refléter les différences dans les variations des prix relatifs des biens

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<sup>30</sup> Dans ce cas, le taux de change réel bilatéral s'écrit,  $ER^{j/i} = \frac{E^{j/i} P_e^i}{P_e^j} \cdot \frac{(P_{ne}^i / P_e^i)^{(1-\alpha_e)}}{(P_{ne}^j / P_e^j)^{(1-\beta_e)}}$

échangés et non échangés. Cela signifie que la convergence des taux d'inflation n'est compatible avec la fixation des taux de change nominaux entre les pays de la zone que si les prix relatifs évoluent de la même manière dans tous les pays, ou en d'autres termes que s'il n'y a pas d'effet Balassa-Samuelson. Or, la première partie de notre travail a permis de mettre en évidence l'absence de convergence globale des PIB par tête. Parmi les pays dont les taux d'inflation ont convergé, certains appartiennent au club des pays les plus riches, d'autres au club des pays à plus faible revenu. De plus, ces divergences de PIB par tête se traduiront par des divergences des productivités des différents secteurs (biais de productivité) et donc de prix relatifs<sup>31</sup>. Dans ces conditions, une fixité des taux de change nominaux n'est envisageable qu'entre pays de même niveau de revenus. A contrario, si on imposait des taux de change fixes entre tous les pays de la zone, cela se traduirait inmanquablement par des divergences dans les taux d'inflation.

En particulier si on tente de rapprocher les résultats en matière de convergence réelle et nominale pour les douze pays pour lesquels la comparaison peut être utile, on note que sur les dix pays qui convergent en matière d'inflation, cinq font partie des pays à fort PIB par tête ; l'Arabie Saoudite, Israël, le Koweït, la Syrie et la Turquie, les autres ayant des revenus plus bas<sup>32</sup>. Aussi, fixer les taux de change entre ces pays, sous prétexte que les taux d'inflation ont convergé, serait une stratégie intenable.

## 7. Conclusion

On cherche à vérifier dans ce travail s'il s'est opéré un processus de convergence économique entre les pays Méditerranéens. On retient un échantillon constitué de la région MENA (*Middle East and North Africa*) élargie, soient 22 pays : l'Algérie, Bahreïn, Djibouti, l'Égypte, l'Irak, la Jordanie, le Koweït, le Liban, la Libye, la Mauritanie, le Maroc, Oman, la Palestine, le Qatar, l'Arabie Saoudite, la Syrie, la Tunisie, les Emirats Arabes Unis, le Yémen, Israël, l'Iran et la Turquie. On essaie d'évaluer comment ces pays se sont comportés vis-à-vis de l'ensemble de la région MENA. Pour cela, on va analyser successivement les processus de convergences des PIB par tête (convergence réelle) et de convergence des taux d'inflation (convergence nominale).

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<sup>31</sup> Dans la littérature cet effet est mesuré en prenant comme indicateurs de productivité, soit les PIB par tête, soit les PIB par travailleur, soit enfin une mesure de la productivité du travail du secteur manufacturier. Pour un exposé récent sur ce sujet, on pourra se reporter à MACDONALD et RICCI (2001).

<sup>32</sup> Les divergences dans les processus de convergence des PIB par tête et des taux d'inflation, sont confirmées par les différences observées dans les vecteurs ergodiques.



La convergence des PIB par tête est estimée pour l'ensemble des 22 pays, sur la période 1950-2001. L'analyse est menée en deux étapes. Dans un premier temps, on revient sur une approche standard en termes de  $\beta$ -convergence et  $\sigma$ -convergence. Si depuis les années 1950, il semblait se dessiner un processus de convergence des PIB par tête, ce résultat est remis en cause depuis la fin des années 1980. L'absence d'un mouvement global de convergence nous a conduit à une approche en termes de clubs de convergence. Pour cela on s'est appuyé sur des fonctions de densité multimodales (estimateurs à noyau). On réalise une étude en statique comparative puis une analyse dynamique qui repose à la fois sur des matrices de transition (processus de Markov à temps discret) et des « *stochastic kernel* » à temps continu. Ceci nous permet de mettre en évidence des clubs de convergences. Au milieu des années 1950, trois groupes de pays se distinguaient : le groupe des pays relativement pauvres (par rapport à la moyenne de la région), le groupe des pays relativement riches et un groupe intermédiaire. En fin de période, seuls deux groupes subsistent, le groupe intermédiaire ayant convergé « vers le bas ». On remarque enfin que sur l'ensemble de la période, l'écart de revenus entre les pays à revenu élevé et les pays à revenus plus faibles s'est régulièrement réduit.

La convergence nominale est étudiée à partir des taux d'inflation. Compte tenu de la disponibilité des données, on est amené à réduire l'échantillon à 12 pays : l'Algérie, Bahreïn, l'Égypte, Israël, l'Iran, la Jordanie, le Koweït, le Maroc et la Syrie, la Tunisie, la Turquie et l'Arabie Saoudite. La période étudiée va de 1973 à 2005. L'étude de la  $\beta$ -convergence et de la  $\sigma$ -convergence révèle des divergences de comportement sur l'ensemble de la période. Si pour une majorité de pays (mais pas tous, cf. section 4) les évolutions des PIB par tête suivent une tendance linéaire, les évolutions des taux d'inflation marquent de plus fortes discontinuités. De 1973 à 1985, on a un net mouvement de divergence, qui est en grande partie le résultat des deux chocs pétroliers. À l'inverse, à partir de 1986, il s'opère un processus de convergence qui va se poursuivre jusqu'à nos jours. Les estimateurs à noyau et l'étude des matrices de transition permettent de préciser ce processus. Au début des années 2000, 10 pays sur 12 (à l'exception de l'Égypte et de l'Iran) ont clairement convergé en matière d'inflation. Au final, on peut noter que la convergence des taux d'inflation se fait à un rythme deux fois plus rapide que la convergence des PIB par tête.

On termine ce travail en montrant que s'il y a d'un côté divergence des PIB par tête et de l'autre convergence des taux d'inflation, l'effet Balassa-Samuelson rend inopérante toute politique de fixation des taux de change nominaux entre les pays de la zone. En l'état, toute stratégie de ce

type, en s'inspirant par exemple du modèle européen, conduirait immanquablement à une dispersion des taux d'inflation.

Dans une perspective élargie, cette étude pourrait être utilement complétée par une plus grande attention portée au concept de convergence conditionnelle. Ceci devrait permettre d'expliquer les processus observés. En matière de convergence réelle, les effets de l'appartenance à des accords commerciaux, de l'intensité des relations commerciales, des infrastructures, du capital humain, ou encore de l'évolution des populations (facteur démographique) mériteraient une analyse approfondie. Pour cela, la construction de « *stochastic kernel* » conditionnées constituerait un outil précieux. En matière de taux d'inflation, un retour sur les politiques monétaires et financières, sur les politiques budgétaires, ainsi qu'une étude plus fine des régimes de change permettrait de mieux comprendre le fort mouvement de convergence observé depuis le milieu des années 1980. Si comme on l'a évoqué plus haut, les « *stochastic kernel* » sont moins pertinentes ici, on pourrait cependant procéder à une estimation de la  $\beta$ -convergence conditionnelle.

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### **Annexe 1 : Liste des abréviations**

OPAEP; Organisation des Pays Arabes Exportateurs de Pétrole

UMA ; Union du Maghreb Arabe

CCG, Conseil de Coopération du Golfe

### **Annexe 2 : Bases de données.**

1- Les données sur les PIB par tête sont tirées du rapport de Maddisson (2003). Ce sont les PIB exprimés en dollars internationaux Geary-Khamis de 1990, divisés par la population de chacun des pays.

2- Les séries d'indices de prix sont extraites du CD-Rom du Fonds Monétaire International.

## Annexe 3: Les performances économiques des pays de la région MENA

Tableau A3.1 : Les principaux indicateurs économiques et sociaux des pays du MENA - Année 1999-

	<i>Solde budgétaire (% de PIB)</i>	<i>Comptes Courants (millions US\$)</i>	<i>Population (millions)</i>	<i>HDI(a) Rang</i>	<i>Espérance de Vie à la naissance (années)</i>
Algérie	-0.52	20	30	100	69.3
A. Saoudite	-6.97	-1701	20.2	68	71.3
Bahreïn	-2.09	-421	0.6	40	73.1
Djibouti	-1.25	-17	0.6	137	51.5
Emirats A. U.	-13.42	6335	2.8	45	74.8
Egypte	-4.19	-1482	62.7	105	66.9
Gaza Pal.	6.20	2864	2.8	n.d.	71
Israël	-2.2	-1881	6.1	22	78.6
Iran	-5.7	-1897	63	90	68.5
Irak	n.d.	n.d.	22.8	n.d.	59
Jordanie	-4.22	405	4.7	88	70.1
Koweït	-13.76	5059	1.9	43	76
Liban	-14.43	-3462	4.3	65	72.9
Libye	0.0	800	5.4	59	70.3
Maroc	-2.49	-269	28.2	112	67.2
Mauritanie	2.45	10.4	2.6	139	51.1
Oman	-7.75	-182	2.3	71	70.8
Qatar	-1.11	2171	0.8	48	69.3
Syrie	-4.18	201	15.7	97	70.9
Tunisie	-1.88	-436	9.5	89	69.9
Turquie	-8.4	-1364	64.4	82	69.5
Yémen	-0.05	104	17	133	60.1

Notes: n.d. pour non disponible (a) HDI pour Human Development Index/Index de Développement Humain.

Sources: Economic research forum (2002).



**Tableau A3.2 : Contributions des principaux secteurs au PIB des pays du MENA (%) - Année 1999-**

	<i>Agriculture et Pêche</i>	<i>Industries Extractives</i>	<i>Industries Manufacturières</i>	<i>Services Publics</i>
Groupe I : Pays exportateurs de pétrole				
Algérie	10.5	28.2	9.0	12.6
A. Saoudite	6.6	31.3	9.6	23.2
Bahreïn	0.9	18.1	12.0	34.8
Emirats A. U.	3.4	25.8	12.5	22.6
Irak	32.7	4.7	7.7	19.8
Iran	16.8	17.5	15.8	48.0
Koweït	0.4	37.1	12.2	25.2
Libye	10.8	24.3	6.6	25.2
Oman	2.6	38.9	4.3	26.9
Qatar	0.6	45.0	7.3	18.0
Groupe II : Economies diversifiées				
Gaza Pal.	6.9	0.0	16.8	58.1
Israël	3.9	0.0	36.6	59.5
Egypte	16.3	4.2	18.3	17.0
Jordanie	2.1	3.4	11.8	21.2
Liban	7.8	0.0	9.1	34.9
Maroc	11.5	2.0	17.7	29.9
Syrie	24.0	14.6	11.4	10.2
Tunisie	12.9	3.4	18.2	19.5
Turquie	16.0	0.0	24.0	60.0
Groupe III : Pays exportateurs de biens primaires				
Djibouti	0.8	0.2	2.5	25.5
Mauritanie	22.4	12.0	8.8	10.4
Yémen	16.1	31.4	10.4	15.9

*Sources* : Economic research forum (2002)