Textiles and Clothing in the Mediterranean Region: Opportunities and Challenges of Returning Textiles and Clothing to GATT Disciplines

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1- Introduction

Textiles and clothing play an important role in the economies of the Mediterranean region. They significantly contribute to manufacturing production, employment and trade in several of these countries, particularly: Egypt, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey and, to a lesser extent, Jordan and Lebanon.

Although total exports of textiles and clothing of these countries are relatively small compared to other developing countries' exports such as India or Pakistan, yet they represent a higher share of merchandise trade in these countries compared to the share of textiles in world merchandise trade. The shares of these countries in world textile and clothing exports are much higher than their shares in world manufacturing exports indicating that they enjoy a comparative advantage in the textiles and clothing sector. (1)

These sectors have traditionally been persistently protected in developing countries through tariffs and quantitative restrictions. This domestic protection has, until the Uruguay Round (UR), been somewhat justified by the protection to textiles and clothing industries in industrial countries. Through a set of bilaterally negotiated agreements under the Multifiber Arrangement (MFA), industrial countries, principally the European Union (EU) and the United States (USA)⁽²⁾, in violation of the fundamental GATT principle of nondiscrimination, and of the injunction against the use of quantitative restrictions, apply widespread and restrictive quotas against imports from developing countries. Additionally, imports of textiles and clothing have been restricted by high tariffs and tariff escalations. These tariffs are, on average higher (15%), in industrial countries, than tariffs on industrial products (6%). They also tended to increase with the stage of processing. To give an example, the average tariff on fibers in industrial countries is about 1%, while it

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⁽¹⁾ ERF Indicators, 1998, Economic Research Forum for the Arab Countries, Iran and Turkey, p.98.

⁽²⁾ Canada and Norway are also among the main countries imposing MFA restrictions. However, Canada has very few quotas imposed on countries of the region and there are no quotas on mediterranean countries in Norway. Furthermore, Norway has eliminated all the quantitative restrictions except for three quotas on fishing nets from Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand.

often exceeds 20% on clothing⁽¹⁾, thus enhancing the effective protection to higher value- added products in these countries.

Developing countries managed, at the UR of negotiations under GATT, to reach a compromise agreement to integrate and liberalize trade in textiles and clothing over a transition period of ten years, starting the implementation of the UR agreement on January 1st, 1995. The Agreement on Textile and Clothing (ATC) is the transitional agreement that regulates trade in textiles over this ten-year period of phasing out of the MFA. It is to be noted that importing industrial countries as well as a large number of developing exporting countries were in favour of this transition period to prepare their domestic industries to face the expected enhanced competition resulting from freeing trade in textiles.

Now that almost half of the ten-year phase out period has elapsed, it is useful to assess the progress achieved towards elimination of restrictions. Thus the purpose of this study is twofold: assessing trade policy towards textiles in the main exporting Mediterranean countries and in their export major export markets (the EU and the USA) and analysing the likely impact of full implementation of ATC in light of regional developments, especially the EU expansion to integrate Central and East European Countries (CEECs).

The paper is organized as follows: section 2 presents the current trends in the textile and clothing sector in the Mediterranean region and the structure of external trade of this sector. Section 3 describes the restrictions imposed on external trade of the main textile exporters in the region and preferential treatment enjoyed. Section 4 reviews the progress achieved under ATC and the increase in access actually provided to textiles exporters in the region. Section 5 presents an assessment of potential impacts of regional integration in the Mediterranean region and with the enlarged EU on the competitiveness of this industry domestically and in EU markets. A final section sums up the findings and concludes.

2-Current Trends in Textiles and Clothing Sector

This review will be restricted to south Mediterranean countries which export textiles and clothing, namely: Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey.

Turkey, however, is the largest producer (\$\\$\\$\\$\\$\\$\\$\ billion), contributing alone close to 58% of the combined output of textiles and clothing in the region. It is followed by Egypt (____), Syria (_____), Tunisia (_____) and Morocco (_____). Lebanon and Jordan are much smaller producers, contributing respectively \$\\$\\$\\$\\$\ million and \$\\$\\$\\$\ million of output, in 1995. The shares of textiles in total manufacturing have declined in some countries (Egypt and Jordan), implying a tendency towards greater diversification in their economies, while it increased in others (Tunisia and Turkey).

⁽¹⁾ Kirmani, N.et al.: "The Uruguay Round and International Trade in Textiles and Clothing" in The Uruguay Round and the Arab Countries, edited by Said El-Naggar, IMF, 1996, p.134.

This industry is the largest employer in the region. It provided around 30% of jobs in manufacturing in 1995, a slight increase from its 1985 level (27%). However, unlike in other countries of the region, the share of labour employed in textiles has tended to decrease in both Egypt and Syria. This industry is particularly important, in terms of employment generated, in Morocco and Tunisia where its share of employment in manufacturing revolves around 40%. These figures may be underestimated in some Turkey, however, is the largest producer (\$ contributing alone close to 58% of the combined output of textiles and clothing in the region. It is followed by Egypt (). Syria (), Tunisia (). Lebanon and Jordan are much smaller producers, contributing Morocco (million and \$ million of output, in 1995. The shares of textiles respectively \$ in total manufacturing have declined in some countries (Egypt and Jordan), implying a tendency towards greater diversification in their economies, while it increased in others (Tunisia and Turkey).

This industry is the largest employer in the region. It provided around 30% of jobs in manufacturing in 1995, a slight increase from its 1985 level (27%). However, unlike in other countries of the region, the share of labour employed in textiles has tended to decrease in both Egypt and Syria. This industry is particularly important, in terms of employment generated, in Morocco and Tunisia where its share of employment in manufacturing revolves around 40%. These figures may be underestimated in some countries where the informal sector provides important employment opportunities, especially in the manufacturing of clothing. (1)

Table (1)
Relative Importance of Textiles and Clothing in Exporting South Mediterranean Countries

Country	Value of Output 1995 (mn \$)		ufacturing put	Textiles and	ent share of d Clothing in factring (%)	and C	Clothing S	s, Textiles Share in ports (%)
		1980	1995	1985	1995	1980	1990	1995
Egypt		30 .	13	30	29	24	35	30
Jordan		7	6	7	11	.5	.5	4
Lebanon		n.a	12	n.a	21 (*)	8	n.a	n.a
Morocco	, ,	n.a	16	27	38	10	22	25
Syria		n.a	26	35	33	13	25	18
Tunisia		19	24	33	41	18	36	46
Turkey		15	20	24	30	28	39	41

Source: 1998 World Development Indicators, The World Bank and UNCTAD. Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, 1996/1997.

Although the contribution of these countries—with the exception of Turkey—in world trade of textiles and clothing has been modest (see Table (Λ -1)) it grew over the decade 1985-1995 at an average rate of growth of around 15%. Exports of textiles and clothing dominate the structure of exports in most of these countries especially Tunisia and Turkey (with shares of textiles and clothing in merchandise exports of around 40%) followed by Morocco (25%) and Egypt (30%) as of 1995.

⁽¹⁾ ERF Indicators, 1998, op.cit., pp 93-94

These shares have significantly increased in the first three countries over the period 1980-1995, while they have declined, between 1990 and 1995, for Egypt and Syria⁽¹⁾ as shown in Table (1).

Table (2)
Exports of Textiles and Clothing of
Mediterranean Countries to Industrial Countries (1995)

Country	Value o	f Exports (\$ milli	on)	% Share	in total
Country	Textiles	Clothing	Total	Textiles	Clothing
Egypt	500	439	939	53.25	46.75
Egypt Jordan	5	30	35	14.29	85.71
Lebanon	3	23	26	11.54	88.46
Morocco	131	2242	2372	5.52	94.48
Syria	14	100	114	12.28	87.72
Tunisia	132	2399	2531	5.22	94.78
Turkey	1504	5135	6639	22.65	77.35

Source: Comtrade Data Base, see also Table (A-2) in the Statistical Tables.

Exports of clothing to industrial countries dominated the region's exports of textiles and clothing, ranging, in 1995, between 46.8% in Egypt to around 95% in Tunisia, as reflected in Table (2). The largest exporter of clothing is Turkey (\$ 5.1 billion), followed by Tunisia (\$ 2.4 billion) and Morocco (around \$ 1.2 billion). As for textiles, the largest exporter is again Turkey (\$ 1.5 billion), followed by Egypt (\$ 500 million).

3- Restrictions and Preferential Treatment of Exports of Textiles and Clothing

With the exception of Egypt and Turkey, Mediterranean countries have not been subjected to MFA restrictions. However, some of them face restrictions on their exports in industrial countries imposed outside the MFA.

Under the MFA many industrial countries were restricting their textiles and clothing imports from developing countries. The main restricting countries were the USA, the EU, Canada, Austria, Sweden, Finland and Norway. Japan and Switzerland, although important industrial importers, have never imposed quotas on their imports from developing countries. As of 1995 which marked the transition from MFA to the ATC, four parties are still using quotas to restrict their imports of textiles, and are required to phase out these quotas over a period of ten years. They are the USA, the EU, Canada and Norway.

The EU and the USA are the two major markets for textile trade. Out of about \$332 billion of total world trade in textiles and clothing in 1997 the USA imports amounted to \$63 billion and the EU \$65 billion⁽²⁾. While Canada's imports were about \$6 billion and Norway's \$3 billion (see Table (A-3)). The EU and the USA

⁽¹⁾ It is worth noting that these shares overestimate the share of textile and clothing in both Egypt and Syria, as they include fiber exports; Syria and particularly Egypt are significant exporters of cotton lint. (2) These values represent respectively for the U.S. 18.9% and for the EU 19.7% of total world imports of textiles and clothing.

are also the two major users of the quota system and the two most important markets for the Mediterranean region (see Table (A-4)).

The **European Union** is the main export market for Mediterranean countries that are significant producers of textiles and clothing. The EU accounts for over 60% of Turkish exports of textiles and clothing for over half of Egyptian exports and for between 70% to 80% of Tunisian and Moroccan exports of these products. Jordan and Syria sell less than 15% of their textiles and clothing exports to EU markets. The **United States** account for around 10% of Egyptian and Turkish exports of these products and for even less in the cases of Morocco, Tunisia and the other Arab exporters in the region.

Textiles and clothing exports from all countries in the region currently enjoy duty-free access to the EU markets. Furthermore, most of them enjoy unrestricted access to these markets under the free trade agreements signed under the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership Initiative (MEDA). Morocco, Tunisia, Lebanon and Jordan have successively signed such agreements starting in 1995. Turkey has formed in 1996 a customs union with the EU. Egypt and Syria are still negotiating. Egyptian yarns and fabrics exports to the EU, although enjoying duty-free access are still constrained by non-tariff barriers in the form of negotiated quotas under the Cooperation Agreement. They are also subject to anti-dumping measures. Syria has been restrained for yarn exports under a Cooperation Agreement with the EU, while no restrictions have been imposed on Lebanon.

In the United States, Egypt and Turkey face tight restrictions on their textiles and clothing exports. For Egypt, cotton yarns and fabrics have been restrained by quotas. Some made- up textiles and clothing items have also be constrained by binding quotas⁽²⁾. Similarly Turkey faces quota restrictions on its yarns and fabrics exports to the USA, additionally nineteen of its exports categories of clothing have been subjected to quotas⁽³⁾.

Neither Egypt nor Turkey enjoy preferential duty treatment under the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP) as the USA does not include textiles and clothing under this scheme. They both face high most - favoured nation (MFN) tariffs in

⁽¹⁾ It should be mentioned here that Turkey imposed a quota on Egyptian exports of yarns and fabrics starting 1996 as a prerequisite to forming a customs union with the EU. This violates one of the ATC requirements that no new quantitative restrictions will be added. Nevertheless, this quota has never been binding as the rate of its utilization has been 30%, 43% and 24% for yarn in the years 1996 to 1998 successively. As for fabrics, the respective rates of utilization for the same years were 12%, 13% and 17%. (Egyptian Textile Consolidation Fund)

⁽²⁾ For Egypt the restrained items are specifically: yarns (category 300/301), fabrics (categories from 218 to 227 and from 313 to 326), clothing include cotton knit shirts and blouses (categories 338/339), cotton and man-made fibers (m.m.f.) shirts (340/360), wool trousers (category 448) and shop towels (category 369S).

⁽³⁾ The quota restrained Turkish exports of clothing to the USA are: play suits (332), infant sets (239), cotton coats (335), cotton and m.m.f. dress (336/636), cotton and m.m.f. knit shirts (338/639), cotton shirts (340/640, 342/642), cotton trousers (347,348), cotton dressing gowns (350), cotton nightwean (351), wool trousers (448).

the USA. Before the implementation of the ATC in 1995, these tariffs averaged 19%, their rates increased with the stage of processing from 3.5% on fibers, to 9% on yarns, 11.5% on fabrics and 22.5% on clothing⁽¹⁾.

To illustrate the relative importance of constrained to unrestricted export markets for textiles, Table (3) shows the shares of Egyptian exports of yarns and fabrics exported to the EU and the USA under quota restraint.

Table (3)
Relative Importance of Quota Restricted Egyptian Exports of Textiles (1996-1998)
(Percent)

					(1 cicciii)	
Cotogory		Yarn			Fabrics	
Category	1996	1997	1998	1996	1997	1998
D. L. Ounto	62.5	76.7	82.9	71.5	75.1	68.7
Exports under Quota	53.7	66.3	62.2	66.4	64.6	55.1
EU	8.8	10.4	20.7	5.1	10.5	13.0
USA (under ATC)	37.5	23.3	17.1	28.5	24.9	31.3
Unrestricted Exports	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total	100.0			C. Han Tox	tile Consolid	ation Fund

Source: Calculated from information obtained from the Egyptian Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund.

Over the past three years, the share of Egyptian yarns exported under quota restrictions increased from 63% to 83%, while that of fabrics fluctuated between 69% and 75%. The European Union is by far the largest importer of Egyptian textiles, with shares varying between around 54% and 66% for both yarns and fabrics. The share of the USA in yarns exported under quota restraint has almost doubled in 1998. The value of yarn exports to the USA also increased by 56% in spite of the world recession and the significant decline of textiles exports, exceeding in 1998, 21 % for yarn and 50% for fabries. Furthermore, Egyptian exports of yarns to quota restricted market have increased on average at rate of 26.2% annually over the period 1996-1998, while they declined in unrestricted markets by 28.8% annually. Exports of fabrics declined over the same period by a higher average annual rate in unrestricted markets (19.8%) than in restricted markets (18.6) (2). These observations contradict the evidence that MFA quotas restrict exports from developing countries, as a group(3); they imply that quantitative restrictions under ATC have not always been the constraining factor to exports from the Mediterranean region, as will be shown in the next section. Instead, they may be considered as a means to guarantee access to the restricted markets.

Quota Administration

Finally, in the case of Egypt, quotas are allocated among **producers** by the Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund according to their past export performance. New

⁽¹⁾ Kirmani, N., op. Cit., P. 139.

⁽²⁾ These percentages and growth rates have been calculated from Egyptian Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund figures shown in table (A-5).

⁽³⁾ Erzan R., J. Goto and P. Holmes: "Effects of the Multi – Fiber Arrangement on Developing Countries' Trade: An Empirical Investigation". Ch. 4 in C. B. Hamilton (ed.) Textiles Trade and the Developing Countries: Eliminating the Multi – Fiber Arrangement in the 1990s, World Bank (1990).

requests for quota allocations are submitted to the Commercial Committee of the Consolidation Fund for consideration. This committee includes government officials as well as representatives of producers and exporters in the public and private sectors. Resale of quotas is not officially permitted. Unused quotas should be given up and the Consolidation Fund would reallocate them. In practice, exporters who do not have the benefit of a quota share may export indirectly under the name of other producers holding export licences under the quota. The price of this service is not documented as direct transfer of quotas between firms is prohibited. Tight quotas have rarely been observed in Egypt, making such practices unnecessary. Quota transfers are only necessary in cases of binding quotas, when foreign demand (or orders) is in excess of supplies availability.

Although there is no quota transfer in Egypt and generally quotas are not usually filled, there was a situation, in 1998, when exporters were queueing to acquire a share of USA quota on cotton knit shirts and blouses (categories 338/339). Even in this instance there is no indication that quota shares have been transferred. Thus there is no evidence of existence of a transfer price for quotas or of its increase or decrease under the ATC.

Elements of flexibility to exceed the quota limits, applied under MFA and subsequently under ATC, include: transferring 6% of the unfilled quota volume from the previous year to the current year (carry over), prior utilization of 6% of next year's quota (carry forward) or transferring the quota from one product to the other within the limit of 6% of the quota requested to be increased (swing). These flexibility advantages are usually transferred to quota beneficiaries in cases of tight quotas, which again have not been frequently observed.

Turkey has a strict system of quota management. Quotas are only distributed to exporters who are at the same time producers of textiles and clothing. Only 15% of the total volume of the quota is reserved for established suppliers. The remaining 85% is divided among other suppliers such that every request receives only 3% of the quota. Applications for quota allocation should be endorsed by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry before being submitted to the Ministry of Commerce. A special committee in the Chamber of Commerce is in charge of recommending quota policies. This committee has on its board representatives of the textile industry and government officials.

Quotas allotted to any supplier cannot be transferred or sold. For transparency the Turkish government has put all information about the quota distribution on the internet.

It should be noted that Turkish exports are only restricted in the USA market. Turkey is restrained on 42 categories, valued, in 1997, at around 1 billion U.S. dollars and representing only 10% of Turkey's total exports of textiles and clothing to the whole world.

2- Progress in ATC Implementation

The transition to trade liberalization in trade in textiles and clothing is to be achieved under ATC through:

- The gradual removal of existing quotas described by the agreement as "integration" (1).
- Accelerated growth of remaining non-integrated quotas which is called "liberalization."

Integration is required from two groups of countries: those who have maintained quotas under the MFA, principally the USA, the EU, Canada and Norway, and any other WTO member which chooses to retain the right to use the special safeguards provision of article VI of the ATC. Integration is to be carried out over three stages. For the first stage, which started on January 1st, 1995, WTO members have to integrate 16% of the total volume of their 1990 imports. In the second stage, which started on January 1st, 1998, 17% of the total volume of the 1990 imports have to be integrated and for the third stage, which is to start on January 1st, 2002, 18% have to be integrated. Finally, on January 1st 2005, the rest of the total volume of 1990 imports, totaling 49%, has to be integrated. Extension of ATC is explicitly excluded. Products to be integrated are left to the choice of the importing country, but they have to be spread to cover at least one item from each of four groups of products: yarns and tops, fabrics, made-ups and clothing.

Concurrently with the process of integration, products remaining under restriction should be allowed an additional increase in growth rates above those agreed upon under the MFA. Such products should have their quota increased by an additional 16% in the first stage, 25% in the second stage and 27% in the third. Small suppliers are to be accorded an even higher percentage additional growth rate of 25%, 27% and 27% over the three stages successively. This process of increasing the negotiated growth rates is sometimes called "growth-on- growth" provision ⁽²⁾.

ATC also provides for major reviews before the end of each stage to assess the implementation of the integration and liberalization processes. Review of the first stage showed that developing countries were not satisfied with the progress achieved.

Actual revision of implementation showed that although 33% of trade has been integrated to fulfill the minimum legal requirements of the Agreement, the process has contributed little towards the realization of the main objectives of ATC, namely the **progressive phase out of quotas or liberalization of trade.** The list of items notified by the EU and the USA to the Textiles Monitoring Body (TMB) indicates that until the end of the year 2001, none of the quotas integrated affect the Mediterranean countries. In fact, the integrated products were either of little importance to the major importers or were not originally restrained by quotas. The

⁽¹⁾ Integration is a UR term which refers to applying the GATT principle of prohibiting quantitative restrictions to the textile sector.

⁽²⁾ Abdel-Fattah, M.M.: Challenges and Opportunities of the Uruguay Round Agreement on Textiles and Clothing for ESCWA Countries, a study for ESCWA,1996

same observation applies to the integration program declared by the USA for the third stage. Out of 750 quotas imposed by the USA only 2 have been removed in stages 1 and 2 and 11 have been removed by early elimination with respect to Romania alone. For the EU, which has a total number of quotas of 219, 14 have been eliminated by integration in the stages (1) and (2)⁽¹⁾, no early elimination has been reported. Quota increases, by virtue of the growth-on- growth provision has also been minimal.

Much criticism about the phase out programmes of the USA, the EU, and Canada has been voiced by the whole trading community and specially by the developing countries exporting textiles and clothing. There are reports that the USA did not liberalize more than 1.3% of its quotas during the first and second stages of ATC integration. The corresponding EU and Canada figures are 3.5% and 2.75%. It is estimated that 94% of textile trade will remain under restriction until the end of year 2004⁽²⁾.

In fact none of the exports of Egypt and Turkey to the USA will be liberalized before the end of the ten-year transition period of integration under ATC. There are thus no new opportunities created by the phase out (integration) stages under the ATC.

It is noteworthy that quotas in EU markets and in the USA have not been fully utilized. To take again Egypt as an illustrative case, it appears that most quotas were underutilized during the period, 1990-1998, as shown in Table (4).

In EU markets, the quotas has been underutilized in almost all years during the period 1990-1998 with the exception of 1993-1994 when adverse climatic conditions led to a cotton crop failure in both India and China and resulted in sharp increases in international cotton prices. This induced European manufacturers to shift their demands from cotton lint to cotton yarn and grey fabrics, in the corresponding years.

In the USA, the quotas on yarns and fabrics have persistently been underutilized. However, they have been constraining in some clothing items where Egypt appeared to have a cost and quality advantage. These products are specifically T-shirts, cotton and m.m.f. shirts and ladies woolen trousers. Negotiated increases in allowed quotas generally alleviated these constraints.

Practical experience has shown that **countervailing** and **anti-dumping** measures have increasingly been used to restrict trade and exports to both the EU and the USA. Some believe that **quotas are a better alternative**. Similarly, Turkish experience with textile and clothing exports to the EU – prior to the formation of its customs union with the EU- supports the view that anti-dumping measures were overly applied to constrain Turkish exports to the EU⁽³⁾.

⁽¹⁾ A report by ITCB: "Experience with the Implementation of the ATC: Main Areas of Concern, Article- by - Article", International Textiles and Clothing Bureau, April 1999.

 ⁽²⁾ ITCB, ibid.
 (3) Ozdem, C. and O. Demirkol: "The Implications of the WTO Uruguay Round on Turkish Economy",
 Arab Exports Meeting on WTO Impacts Analysis on Arab Economies, League of Arab States, Cairo,
 July 1994.

Table (4)
Degree of Egypt's Utilization of Textiles and Clothing Quotas in EU and USA Markets (1990-1998)

Category	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Percentage of actual Egyptia	n export	s to quo	tas in EU	market	S				
	94	77	80	73	124	75	50	83	5
Cotton Yarn Fabrics	103	94	73	108	129	74	77	76	2
Percentage of actual Egyptia	n expor	ts to quo	tas in US	A marke	ets			7.6	
Cotton Yarns	34	100	70	90	87	92	45	76	9
Fabries	58	79	43	39	49	51	8	17	
Cotton Knit Shirts and	60	91	84	74	69	80	90	118	· ·
Blouses				_	119	100	67	45	4
Cotton and m.m.f.shirts	-	-	-	105	105	112	90	98	C
Wool Trousers Shop Towels	-	102	102	70	72	63	97	96	(

Source: Egyptian Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund.

Additionally, changes in the **USA rules of origin** which substantially altered its rules for determining, the origin of textile and clothing products, starting July 1st, 1996, had adverse effects for exports to intermediary countries and created an incentive to importers to source their materials from countries free of the possibility of being restrained by quotas.⁽¹⁾

5- Potential Impacts of ATC Implementation

Within the context of regional integration efforts in the Mediterranean region with the EU and in light of its likely enlargement to incorporate CEECs what are the expected impacts of such developments on exports and imports of the region?

The implications of the ATC for the countries of the region depend principally on the relative importance of restricted markets for these countries' exports on the significance of the textiles and clothing sectors in their external trade and on future trends in competitiveness. As mentioned earlier, with the exception of Egypt and Turkey, countries of the region were not subjected to MFA, although some of them still face restrictions in industrial countries imposed outside this agreement (Syria in the EU). (2) Egypt's exports are still constrained in the EU, while Egyptian and Turkish exports are constrained under ATC in USA markets. Industrial countries members of the WTO, in addition to their commitment to phase out quantitative restrictions- whether imposed under MFA or otherwise-have to reduce MFN tariffs on textiles and clothing under the WTO.

Countries in the region, in turn, keep tight quantitative restrictions on their imports of textiles and clothing, including bans, in addition to an escalating system of tariffs. These restrictions were not fully effective. To take again the case of Egypt as an example, tariffs were not applied in free zones and continuous smuggling from these zones made these products domestically available. Egypt has already

⁽¹⁾ ITCB report, op.cit.

⁽²⁾ As noted earlier, quantitative restrictions on Tunisia and Morocco have been phased out in the EU starting 1995 as a result of the partnership agreement. Free access for export textiles from Turkey have also been granted under the customs union agreement in 1996.

"removed" the ban on fabrics in January 1998, replacing it with an increased import tariff, but she maintained the right to keep bans on imported clothing until January 1st, 2002. Egypt is further committed to reduce bound tariffs by January 2005, from 45% on yarns, 60% on fabrics, 65% on made-ups, 70% on clothing to 15%, 30%, 35% and 40% respectively. Turkey has made corresponding commitments.

Potential Direct Effects of ATC on Mediterranean Exports

Removal of yarn quotas in the USA under the ATC and the WTO or under the partnership agreements with the EU will expose Mediterranean exports to increased competition from countries with efficient yarn industry and with large export capacities who have fully utilized their quotas. As an example, in the EU, India, and Pakistan may challenge Egyptian, Syrian and Turkish yarn exports. Other potential competitors—such as Brazil and Korea are not likely to present a serious challenge in

the EU, as they were far from filling their quotas as documented for 1994-1996. Keen competition in fabrics is also expected from Thailand and Malaysia, which have exceeded their quotas to the EU. Other competitors from Asia, South America, Russia and Central and Eastern Europe have not filled their respective quotas to the EU, and are not likely to threaten export performance of the region, ceteris paribus⁽²⁾. However, elimination of quotas- which may be considered as a guaranteed access to small and to less efficient producers – will open the market to those efficient, relatively large suppliers who have exceeded their quotas or are close to fulfilling them.

The EU cannot provide any of the Mediterranean countries additional preferential treatment as they currently enjoy duty-free treatment. However, the EU preferential arrangements with the CEECs together with its commitments to reduce tariffs under the WTO, would lead to the **erosion of preferences** enjoyed by Mediterranean countries. This may explain the conclusion ⁽³⁾ that the region will

⁽¹⁾ India has filled 107% of its yarn quota to EU in 1994/96, while Pakistan and Indonesia filled 150% and 130% of their respective quotas during the same period. However, Argentina only covered 33% of its quota in 1994/95, and the percentage quota utilization reached 6% in Brazil, 51% in Peru, 56% in Thailand, 77% in South Korea (see Clement, 1996)

⁽²⁾ The rates of quota utilization for fabrics main exporters to EU for 1994/1996 were as follows: Argentina 34%, Brazil 28%, Bulgaria 94%, Czech Republic 90%, Egypt 74%, Hong Kong 16%, Hungary 37%, India 93%, Indonesia 80%, Malaysia 101%, Pakistan 98%, Peru 24%, Poland 28%, Romania 34%, Thailand 108%, Turkey 71%, Singapore 5%, Slovakia 44%, South Korea 46%, (see Clement (1996)).

⁽³⁾ Yeats, A.: Export Prospects of Middle Eastern Countries: A Post- Uruguay Round Analysis, the World Bank (1994). See also Hertel, T., W. Martin, K. Yanagishima and B.Dimaranan: "Liberalizing Manufactures Trade in a Changing World Economy", in W.Martin and L.Winters (eds.) The Uruguay Round and the Developing Economies, World Bank(1995) and Yang, Y., W. Martin and K. Yanagishima: "Evaluating the Benefits of Abolishing the MFAin the Uruguay Round Package", Chapter 10 in T.Hertel (ed.) Global Trade Analysis: Modeling and Applications, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1997.

suffer a net loss from its textiles and clothing liberalization under the WTO. Expected shift away from these countries towards other suppliers would be larger than any potential export increase most countries of the region (with the probable exception of Turkey) could achieve in the EU market, unless their textile industries achieve greater efficiency in production, by reducing costs and improving the quality of their products to benefit from possible enhancement of export opportunities.

An important opportunity for exports available to countries in the region which have already reached a partnership agreement with the EU, is the potential increase in **outward processing activities**. Clothing in these countries produced with EU fabrics will enjoy free access to the EU according to the rules of origin. European investors may increasingly engage in sub-contracting activities in the regional partner economies by creating new productive units and supplying the existing ones with fabrics, accessories, designs and know-how to produce high value added products to be exported to european markets.

Comparison with other countries reveals that after the conclusion of partnership agreements with the CEECs, total outward processing activities significantly increased to account for about 18% of their total exports to the EU in 1993, up from 10% in 1989. For garments alone, such activities account for around 74.5% of CEECs⁽¹⁾ exports to the EU, compared to 12.2% in Morocco and 16.5% in Tunisia in the same year.⁽²⁾ Although these activities may improve the efficiency of domestic textile industries and promote exports, they are subject to various criticisms. The Moroccan experience suggests they may result in a dualism of the economy as they install production units alien to the rest of the economy and their externalities benefit the world rather than the domestic economy.

Countries in the region which are important exporters of textiles (Egypt and Syria) and which are still negotiating partnership agreements with the EU may find new export opportunities emerging for their textile exports when the agreement is implemented. They may direct their exports to other countries in the region which have already concluded free trade agreements with the EU that allow for cumulation of the rules of origin⁽³⁾.

It should be noted, however, that the asymmetric treatment Mediterranean countries which have concluded free trade agreements or customs union with the EU receive compared to the countries which have not signed such partnership has negatively impacted exports of the latter group. To give a specific example, Egyptian exports of yarns and fabrics to the EU have drastically fallen in 1998 (as it may be observed from Table (4)) and continue to fall in 1999. One reason for

⁽¹⁾ It should be noted that the main exports of CEECs are wool and m.m.f. products, while the majority of exports from most Mediterranean countries is cotton manufactures.

World Bank: "ARE: Egypt into the Next Century", Report No. 14048 EGT, Washington, D.C., May 1995.

⁽³⁾ Kheir -El-Din, H. and H. El-Sayed: "Potential Impact of a Free Trade Agreement with the EU on Egypt's Textile Industry" in **Regional Partners in Global Markets: Limits and Possibilities of the Euro- Med Agreement,** A. Galal and B. Hoekman (eds.), CEPR and ECES, 1997, pp. 220-221.

such a decline is the sharp decrease in Turkish cotton yarn export price to the EU without fear of any dumping accusations. This deliberate price decrease is intended to divert cotton yarn exports to the EU to compensate the decline in Turkish exports to Russia and other CIS countries due to the deep recession these economies are facing.⁽¹⁾

The reduction in MFN tariffs on textiles and clothing under the WTO will benefit Mediterranean countries in markets where they did not enjoy preferential treatment and where they were restrained by quotas. Egypt and Turkey are likely to gain in the U.S.A. market, where their textiles and clothing exports are subject to high MFN tariffs (tariff peaks). Export opportunities will also expand upon complete elimination of quantitative restrictions under ATC or more generally under WTO. The beneficial impact may be important for knit clothing items that face binding quotas in the U.S.A. (2) This impact is likely to be minimal for exporters such as Syria, Tunisia and Morocco that were not subjected to MFA and were not facing binding quotas in their export markets (3).

The extent to which regional exporters of textiles and clothing can effectively benefit from opportunities created by the complete implementation of the ATC will depend on their ability to improve their relative competitiveness over the transition period. Factors such as labor costs, transport cost, the cost of capital, transaction costs, real exchange rate will be significant determinants in this respect.

Finally, although the MFA did not directly restrict trade in fibers, its phasing out may be expected to have a favourable impact on fiber production though increasing the long-term demand for, and hence the price of textile fibers. The MFA phase-out is likely to have two distinct effects: an output effect arising from increases in the volume of textile and clothing output and hence fiber input, and a substitution effect resulting from elimination of the distortions between fibers created by the MFA. For cotton producers, the substitution effect may be relatively large, since it has been reported that the MFA has imposed on implicit tax of around 20% on cotton producers relative to man-made fiber products⁽⁴⁾. These effects may be of particular importance for the major cotton producers of the region: Egypt and Syria.

Potential Impact on Imports

Removal of quantitative restrictions and bans on imports of textile and clothing products will result in a surge of competing imports. If liberalization is only achieved according to WTO rules, no preferential treatment will be given to EU products. However, immediate removal of quantitative restrictions under the partnership agreements signed between the EU and several countries of the region

(2) Kirmani, N.: op. cit..

(3) Remember that clothing and made-up textiles are not subject to any restriction in the EU.

⁽¹⁾ Egyptian Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund.

⁽⁴⁾ Martin, W.: "The Abolition of the Multi-Fiber Arrangement and its Implications for Fiber Market", paper prepared for the conference on **The WTO and the Uruguay Round Agreement: Implications for South Asian Agriculture**, Kathmandu, April 1996.

and eventual complete elimination of tariffs after the negotiated transitional period elapses will give textile products from the EU additional preferential access in the region compared to countries subject to MFN tariffs, as these tariffs, within the WTO framework, are to be reduced rather than completely eliminated.

As a result, yarn imports from the EU will not significantly increase, the main current suppliers to the region being India and Pakistan which export their yarn at a significantly lower price than the EU. Intermediate imports of fabrics may be diverted towards the EU as a result of the rules of origin (bilateral cumulation). Imports of fabrics for final consumption and of ready-made garments from the EU may also increase, depending on the elasticity of these imports with respect to tariff reductions and on the pattern of tariff reduction (front-loaded, uniform or backloaded) as a result of the FTA signed with some countries of the region. The pattern and level of MFN tariff reductions within the WTO framework will also affect the extent of trade diversion. This increase in competing imports is likely to harm domestic producers which have been enjoying significant protection.

Imports of machinery and other intermediate inputs for the textile industry are not subject to quotas and usually face lower tariffs than textiles. They are essentially imported to the region from Western Europe, Japan and the USA. Trade diversion will occur in countries which have signed FTAs with the EU, to the extent trade liberalization with other countries is delayed and depending on the initial height of the MFN tariffs. Overall, this effect will be beneficial as it is likely to contribute to cost reduction in the textile industry. (1)

6- Summary and Conclusions

The study has focussed mainly on two major elements in international trade of textiles and clothing in the Mediterranean countries namely: the Agreement on Textiles and Clothing (ATC) under the WTO and the preferential arrangements between the EU and the Mediterranean countries.

The countries involved are Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey. The textile sector is of paramount importance to the economies of these countries, although their share in world trade is relatively small compared with other countries in Asia like Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan or even India and Pakistan. With the exception of Turkey which currently occupies the 10th place on the list of large exporters of textiles and clothing with exports exceeding lately US\$ 10 billion, countries of the region are small exporters: Tunisia and Morocco export around US\$ 2.5 billion each, Egypt exports are less than US\$ one billion, Jordan, Lebanon and Syria exports are negligible.

The main markets for textile trade of the Mediterranean countries are the EU and the USA. In 1997 total U.S. imports reached 67.8 and EU imports were 65.3 billion U.S. dollars. Almost three quarters of these imports are clothing. Japan and Canada

⁽¹⁾ Kheir-El-Din H. and H. El-Sayed: op.cit.

are also significant markets. Their imports reached billion \$ 20.3 and 6.9 in 1997. However, they represent a small share of Mediterranean exports

The impact of restrictions imposed under the MFA and hence by the ATC on the exports of these countries is small. Jordan, Lebanon, Tunisia, Morocco exports are not subject to any quota limitations in the main restraining markets i.e. the EU and the USA, while Syria is restrained in one item (yarn) in the EU. Only Turkey and Egypt are subject to quotas in the U.S. market, while Turkey enjoys quota-free access as a result of its customs union with the EU, Egypt is restrained on two categories (yarn and fabrics). The proposed FTA between Egypt and the EU will result in abolition of these quotas. Thus the impact of the present quota system on the Mediterranean countries should not be exaggerated.

The ATC is a ten-year transitional arrangement to phase out the MFA quotas. However the implementation commitments by the main users of the MFA to integrate gradually trade in textiles and clothing into GATT/WTO discipline has proven that the majority of quotas will be maintained until the end of the ten- year transition period.

Views differ on whether the quota system is beneficial or harmful to the prospects of future exports of countries like the seven Mediterranean countries under study. The quota system may be considered as a guaranteed access to the main export markets to the extent that other suppliers are restrained. This situation will certainly change when quotas are eliminated and competition becomes the norm. Other views tend to believe that quotas are limitations on the possibility for growth. There were cases when this was true. Turkey and Egypt faced some difficulties on a number of occasions when quotas were fully utilized and requests for increase were denied and when quotas were imposed on items which were previously unrestrained.

The ATC on the other hand, has imposed on developing countries to open up their long time protected markets (Article VII of the ATC). This would mean facing competition not only in the export markets but within their own markets, and not only competition from developed countries but from other more efficient suppliers in developing countries. However countries of the region are unlikely to be significantly affect by ATC.

The impact of the preferential arrangements between the EU and the Mediterranean countries is likely to be more significant than the ATC. Traditionally and since 1977 the EU has provided the Mediterranean countries duty-free access for their industrial exports. Textiles and clothing benefitted from this preferential treatment although some of these products were subjected to quota restrictions. Recently preferential treatment changed from being one-sided from the EU to the Mediterranean countries to a two-way reciprocal treatment. These countries have to open up their markets to competition from the EU industry although that would take a maximum number of twelve years; but eventually EU exports of textiles and clothing will enter the Mediterranean markets free from tariff and from quantative restrictions.

Duty-free treatment already enjoyed by the Mediterranean countries in the EU will be eroded on two accounts: first as a result of commitments to reduce tariffs as part of the Uruguay Round agreements, the EU would have to reduce it tariffs to 6% on yarn, 7-8% on fabrics and 10% on clothing; and second, as a result of all the association agreements concluded with different countries especially the CEECs, the erosion of preferences cannot be avoided although the Mediterranean countries will continue to enjoy a margin of preference against other countries especially from Asia and Latin America.

Competition in the EU markets from the CEECs—will be encountered in wool and m.m.f. products, but cotton products will not be highly affected.

Mediterranean countries will face competition, particularly for finished fabrics and clothing from the EU within their own markets.

The impact of the ATC and FTAs concluded with the EU will create new opportunities for the Mediterranean countries exports, but it will definitely impose new challenges for these countries. They will face competition not only in their export markets but also in their own home market. Although there is still a limited number of years left for them to adapt, yet efforts to face the new situation should start now. The danger is imminent.

Major exporters of textiles and clothing in the region may be affected positively by the liberalization in industrial countries' markets but negatively by the erosion in their preferential margins with the EU and by increased competition from third parties. The net impact will depend primarily on their ability to compete and to adapt to the new, more efficient global environment resulting from effective - although doubtful - implementation of ATC.

In the textiles and clothing sectors, steps are specifically required to increase productivity and competitiveness through upgrading of labour skills, investment in new technology, restructuring and modernization of the spinning and weaving processes. Market-based policies are further required to facilitate a shift into the more efficient product lines within the textile and clothing sectors. This may warrant increased investment and deregulation. An efficient legal and institutional framework must also be secured to facilitate the operation of markets and reduce transactions costs.

Although there may be potentially adverse effects on some countries of the region in some areas of production, the transitional costs will be spread over a long implementation period - at least ten years under ATC - half of which has already elapsed. Countries in the region should urgently utilize the remaining time to promote industry-specific adjustments and more general reforms to meet the challenge of the new world market structure arising from the implementation of the ATC/WTO and more specifically from liberalization vis-a`-vis the EU and eventually among themselves.

Statistical Tables

Table (A - 1)

Share of Mediterranean Countries in World Exports of Selected

Table (A - 1)

1.42	1.42 0.26 4.50	1.42 0.26	1.42						2.14 0.36	2.14		Undergarments knitted	846
	0.76 2.66 0.32 3.73	0.76 2.66 0.32	0.76 2.66	0.76		5.37						Outenwear knit nonelastic	844 74
1.17	110000	2.84								0.19	2.05	Women's outerwear not knit	
Today	0.08 5.13 1.02	0.08 6.13 1.02	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08		3				Men's Not Knit outerwear	842
10.28))		0.68	2.26	Textile Articles nes	658
							<u></u>				3.33	Cotton fabrics	652
2./0							-				10.26	Yarn	651
Exports	Exports Exports	Exports Exports	-	orts Exports Exports Exports	orts Exports Exports	orts Exports Exports	orts Exports	orts	Exp	Exports	Exports		
vvoria	vvoria	vvoria		ntry World Country World Country	ntry World Country World	ntry World Country	ntry World	ntry	Cou	World	Country		
% Of % Of % Of % Of	% Of % Of % Of % Of	% of % of % of	% 01 % 01	% of % of % of % of	% of % of % of	% of % of	% of		% of	% of	% of	Product	No.
2/ 2 2/ 2 2/ 2 2/ 25 2/ 25	2/ 2 2/ 2 2/ 2 2/ 25 2/ 25							1,	Ī	LA KAL			0
Lebanon Morocco Syria Tunisia Turkey	Morocco Syria 1	Morocco Syria 1	Morocco	Morocco			ebanon	_		Tavnt			OFFIC
xtile and Clothing Products (1994/1995)	Textile and Clothing Products (1994/1995)	xtile and Clothing Products (1994/1995)	xtile and Clothing Products (1994/1995)	xtile and Clothing Products (199	xtile and Clothing Produc	xtile and Clothing	xtile and Clo	Xtile	Te				

Source: UNCTAD, Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, 1996/1997.

Table (A-4)
Structure of Mediterranean Exports by Destination

	ygy	& Can	YSO				$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{\Omega}$			
9661	S661	0661	0861	0761	9661	S661	0661	0861	0761	
13.1	4.21	8.8	0.8	6.0	9.24	8.24	6.85	48.2	0.21	Egypt
_	2.1	9.0	-	-	-	€.3	3.5	7.1	-	Jordan
-	-	-	7.8	4.2	-	-	-	0.8	6.01	Lebanon
4.2	0.4	2.3	8.1	6.1	5.19	1.28	6.29	1.43	9.4T	Morocco
-	9.I	6.0	£.4	4.0	-	0.72	7.14	1.48	3.25	Syria
p. I	E.1	6.0	5.1	0.1	1.08	0.97	1.87	£.27	4.69	sisinn T
L	12.7	0.8	9.4	8.0	8.64	£.12	4.22	E.74	52.5	Turkey

Source: UNCTAD: Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics 1996/1997.

Table (A-5) Value of Quota Restricted and Unrestricted Exports of Textiles from Egypt to Various Geographic Areas (1996-1998)

(million L.E.)

	1998 Sayptian Cotton Tex		
	A0000-0010-000	6.877	1.971
Total	L661	2.166	7.428
1040.T	9661	8.927	0.718
	8661	2.71	0.7
enorgan jaino	L661	4.91	0.6
snoigsM rothO	9661	22.6	1.2
	8661	-	-
VCO	L661	-	-
VSO	9661	-	=
	8661	L.44	5.5
	L661	7.46	T.2
sisA	9661	€.99	1.2
	8661	8.8	6.12
	L661	8.52	3.98
Arab Countries	9661	8.52	8.98
	8661	4.28	6.0
	1661	L.92	8.0
CEECs	9661	7.08	9.1
	8661	8.92	1.22
	4661	L'99	4.68
Western Europe	9661	1.96	L. T.
	8661	6.281	7.88
	4661	0.152	4.88
Unrestricted Exports	9661	2.272	€.06
	8661	£.131	24.0
	L661	£.£01	1.78
VSH	9661	7.49	1.91
	8661	L.484	6.96
	L661	2.720	7.622
EN	9661	2.06£	9.012
	8661	0.949	120.9
	4661	2.097	5.992
Under Quota	9661	t.424.4	7.922
Region	Деяг.	Tarn	Fabrics

Source: Egyptian Cotton Textile Consolidation Fund.