CHAPTER 3

TRADE

1. INTRODUCTION: TRADE POLICIES AND THEIR EFFECTS

Trade has always existed. From earliest times, people and villages have traded goods with their neighbours. If these exchanges are fair, trade has the potential to bring about development, prosperity and human well-being. But trade on unequal terms is damaging; it creates and maintains inequities, exploits the weakest and can lead to poverty, violence, conflict and environmental destruction. Unfortunately the institutions, conditions, rules and practices of contemporary international trade are unfair and impoverish people and regions.

The rules governing international trade and trade agreements are made by the rich countries in the West with their own interests in mind, while poor countries in Africa have them imposed upon them. In many African countries the international trade system has taken away the livelihood of the people and communities and is keeping them destitute and dependent on aid. Trade should be a way of sharing the resources of the earth and the fruits of human labour, yet all too often it is a force that causes injustice, poverty, despair, and death, especially in the Global South.

2. THE CONTEXT AND ASPECTS OF TRADE NEGOTIATIONS

2.1 Major Events in Trade and their Impact on Africa

The rules governing international trade are unfair and harm Africa. Two main events are currently shaping trade between the EU and Africa: the Doha Development Agenda (DDA) negotiations at the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) negotiations at bilateral level.

2.1.1 The Doha Development Agenda (DDA)

The DDA Round was launched in 2001 with the objective of obtaining major trade liberalisation. Its initial purpose - fostering the development of poor countries through trade - was soon lost in the negotiating process where the most-developed countries prioritised their own interests. In 2008, talks stalled over major issues such as agriculture, industrial tariffs, services and dispute resolution. The most significant differences are between developed nations led by the EU, the United States and Japan and the major developing countries led and represented mainly by Brazil, China, India, South Korea, and South Africa. The negotiations have remained stalled ever since and are unlikely to start anew anytime soon.

2.1.2 Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs)

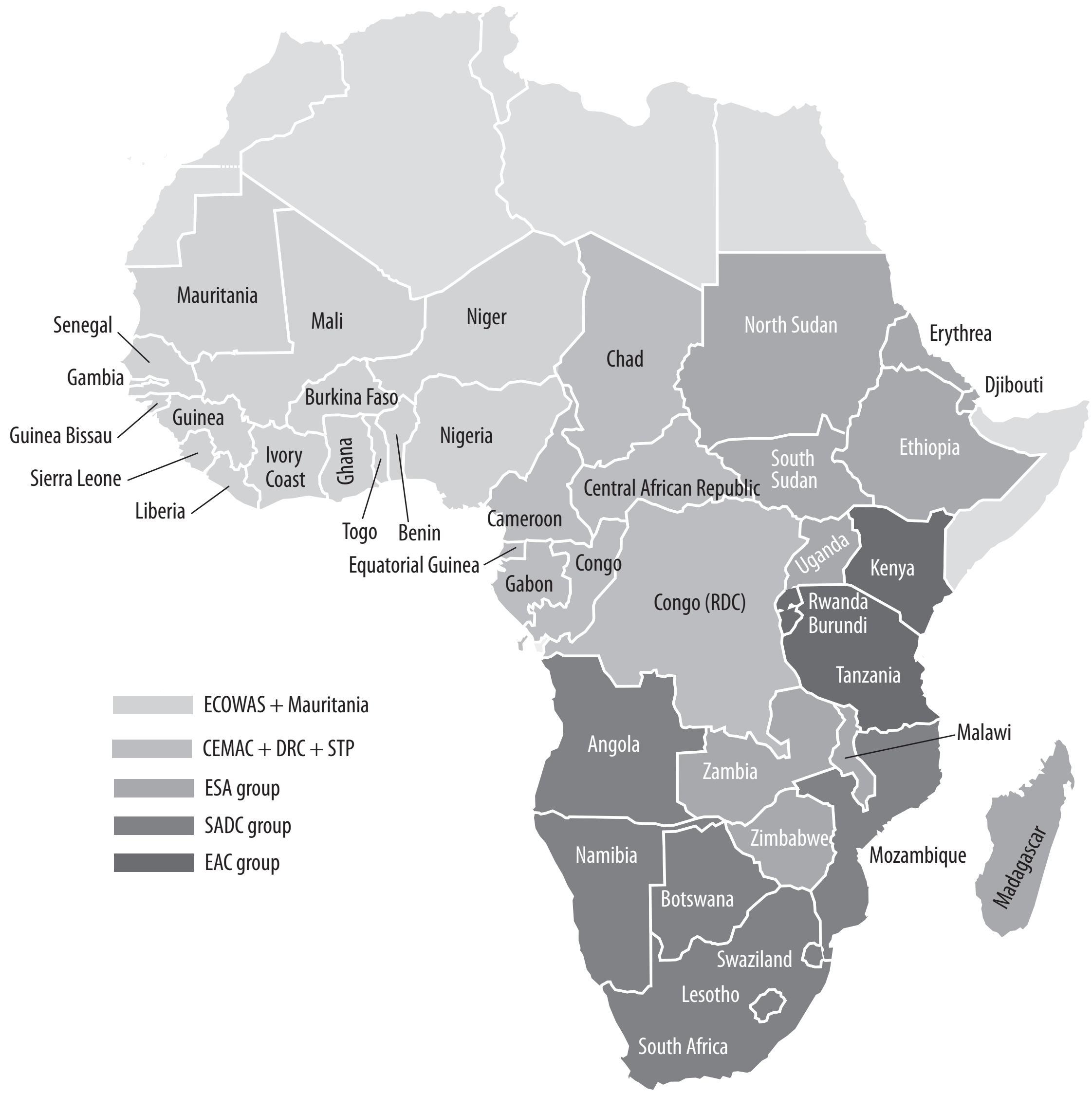
Economic Partnership Agreements between the EU and the African Pacific and Caribbean (ACP) countries are meant to create a trade regime, which is compatible with international trade law set by the WTO. In practice this means that the 77 ACP countries will have to open their borders to goods coming from the EU, and set up a free-trade area with the European Union based on reciprocity.

Apart from liberalisation of imports from the EU, the EPA process is focussing on negotiations on trade in services, investments, intellectual property rights and liberalisation of public procurement. Although these trade-related areas (services, competition and investment) were rejected by the ACP countries at the WTO, the EU is putting them on the table again in the latest negotiations.[26]

African countries negotiate EPAs in five different regional formations: West Africa (ECOWAS), Central Africa (CEMAC), Eastern and

[26] There are many critical and controversial elements in EPAs and good overviews can be found in ECDPM Discussion Paper 89 *Contentious issues in the interim EPAs* (http://www.ecdpm.org/Web_ECDPM/Web/Content/Download.nsf/0/CA0600DFC1F8D539C125757C00491727/$FILE/09-89-e_content_issues%20EPAs_def.pdf) and in the Critical Issues paper (http://www.aefjn.org/index.php/352/articles/critical-issues-in-epas.html) prepared by several civil society organisations.

Southern Africa (ESA), Eastern Africa (EAC) and Southern Africa (SADC). Please consult Annex I for a detailed overview of the various formations. No African country has yet signed a full EPA including services and other trade related aspects but some have signed interim EPAs just on trade in goods and are negotiating full agreements. Annex I also shows which countries agreed to an interim EPA.



Map of African Regions negotiating EPAs

2.2 Understanding a Trade Agreement and its Impact on Africa

2.2.1 Trade in goods

Under current international trade law, trade agreements have to liberalise trade. For African countries this removal of trade barriers has a severe impact on several fronts.

Firstly, it means that locally produced goods will find themselves competing with imported goods. These imports often originate from developed countries where producers have the capacity to produce large quantities at low cost and so local African producers are pushed out of the market. To take a concrete example, in Cameroon poultry farming is traditionally carried out by middle and small scale farmers or in people's back yards. It was contributing to economic development and, more generally, to the well-being of families. Then along came massive imports of frozen chicken pieces from Europe. As there was no market for them in Europe

these chicken pieces were dumped in Cameroon. Being cheaper than the locally produced chicken meat, these imports forced local producers off the market. Farmers with less capital were hit hardest and disappeared from the market first. Those who had taken out loans went bankrupt. All small and middle scale holders were badly affected. Protests forced the government to sharply raise tariffs on chicken meat imports and this allowed the local chicken market to recover, partially at least, from the negative impacts of free trade.

Another negative effect of trade liberalisation is the loss of tariff revenue as tariffs on imports (customs duties) are removed. However, most developing countries are highly dependent on these trade taxes as they have limited sources of domestic revenue and limited tax bases. According to World Bank estimates, tariff revenues in Sub-Saharan Africa average between 7 and 10 per cent of government revenue. With EU products accounting for 40% of total imports in Sub-Saharan Africa, eliminating tariffs on EU imports would lower tariff revenues considerably. Such a revenue loss leaves a government with few options. One is to cut public spending, which clearly puts health and education at risk.

2.2.2. EU Policy on Trade

The EU insists in its trade negotiations on the removal of export restrictions. These can take many forms, such as export taxes, quotas, subsidies, or mandatory minimum export prices. Export taxes are a common policy instrument in many developing countries and are allowed under international trade rules. They are used to promote value-adding domestic processing, to protect the environment and natural resources and as a source of government revenue. Levying a tax on the export of a certain raw material can provide an incentive for the development of domestic manufacturing or processing industries with higher value-added exports as processing the raw material locally becomes less expensive than exporting it for processing in Europe.

The EU is of the view that export taxes distort trade. For several years, the EU has tried to ban the use of export taxes in the WTO. The proposal was rejected by other WTO members and criticised by developing countries. Namibia, for example, strongly resisted the EU's attempts to ban these taxes.[27]

Developing countries want to continue to be able to use them as a policy instrument in situations where they consider them appropriate. The trade ministers from the world's poorest countries called upon the WTO members to agree "not to impose any discipline on export taxes, as these are legitimate tools for development"[28] Since the EU did not succeed in getting its way on this at the WTO, it shifted its efforts to bilateral trade negotiations, such as the EPA negotiations with the ACP countries. In the original EPA negotiations, export taxes had not been on the agenda, but suddenly, as the deadline was approaching in 2007[29], the EU inserted them in the negotiation text.

The clause on export taxes that the EU managed to insert into the interim EPAs prohibits African countries from introducing any new export taxes and from increasing those currently applied. In exceptional circumstances and only subject to agreement by the European Commission, export duties may be temporarily introduced.

African countries have repeatedly raised the issue of export taxes in the on-going EPA negotiations. The East African Geneva-based ambassadors to the WTO have demanded that the clause on export taxes in the interim EPAs should be deleted. The African Union Commission presented a paper to the European Commission at a joint meeting in June 2010, stating the following:

"The European Commission's proposal to prohibit the use of export taxes and quantitative restrictions under EPA is an unnecessary WTO-plus requirement that would limit the policy space to use these measures for value-addition, diversification, infant industry promotion, food security, revenue and environmental considerations." [32]

2.2.3. The Impact of EU Trade Policies on African Countries

For many developing countries, export taxes are one of the few remaining trade policy tools. When the EU tries to prevent African countries from introducing new ones, it denies them policy space to decide how to promote local value-addition and so pursue industrial development.

For African countries, in order to attain sustainable development, it is critical to break away from their commodity dependence and export tariffs are an incredibly valuable means to convince foreign investors to process raw materials locally, instead of exporting

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[27] WTO, Sixth LDC Trade Ministers Meeting, October 2009, Dar El Salaam Declaration.

[28] EPA negotiations were originally set to end at the end of 2007.

[29] Eulian, M (2010), EPA Update, *Trade Negotiations Insight,* July/August 2010.

them. With the exception of some oil producers, no country relying on primary commodity exports is found among high-income economies. Only those countries that moved into skill-intensive and technology-based industries or incorporated value-adding processes into their primary sectors were able to achieve higher income levels. Promoting manufacturing is critical if African countries are to escape dependence on commodity exports.

The Kenyan government for example raised the export tax payable on exports of raw hides and skins to 20% in 2006 and the following June doubled it to 40%, with the aim of encouraging the leather processing industry in the country. Research shows that these taxes have brought a number of major benefits to the local leather industry. They have drastically reduced the exports of raw hides and skins and boosted leather processing. According to the government, nearly 98% of skins produced in the country are now semi-processed or finished leather compared to 56% in 2004. In 2007, Kenya produced 20,000 metric tonnes of leather compared to around 5,000 in 2003. Total earnings from the leather industry, according to government figures, rose by 21% between 2005 and 2008. It is estimated that around 1,000 direct jobs and 6,000 indirect jobs have been created since the introduction of the export duty.

If EPAs are implemented and export restrictions removed this would also pose the threat of unrestricted logging in Africa's forests. This would particularly threaten the tropical forest in the Congo basin and the Guinean Forest in West Africa. These ecosystems are not only vital for the local population, but are relevant globally as they act as some of the world's "lungs" and are important for climate regulation.

The advantages of trade agreements for African countries, such as duty free access to Western markets, risk being only theoretical. There are obstacles which often make it impossible for African producers to export their products. The main ones are a lack of an effective distribution chain (no-middle man to bring the goods from the African producer to the Western consumer) and the lack of infrastructure (roads, rails, ports, airports, etc.) for transporting the goods in a reasonable amount of time. This is particularly relevant for perishable goods, such as agricultural products, which constitute a large part of the goods produced in Africa. Furthermore, the EU imposes a series of sanitary and phytosanitary standards (SPS) on imports which are difficult for African producers to meet.

2.2.4 Trade in Services

Services include a wide array of activities ranging from the provision of clean water, energy supply, education, health care and telecommunications to business services such as banking, law and accountancy. Opening up the service sector means that a country can no longer limit the investments of foreign companies, nor the kind of services. It will not be possible to limit the number of providers or services provided, the value of the imported services, the legal form of the service providers and the participation of foreign capital. It also means that if a country liberalizes trade in services, it has to allow foreign companies in the country and treat them in the same way as local companies. This limits the latitude of developing countries to develop their own policies.

It has to be noted here that the inclusion of services and other trade related matters, such as intellectual property rights, is not necessary to make trade agreements compatible with the international trade rules of the WTO. An agreement in goods only is entirely sufficient to be WTO compatible. However, once the two parties agree to include trade in services in the agreement, this has to be done in a WTO compatible manner, meaning that most service sectors need to be liberalised.

[30] Julian, M (2010), EPA Update, Trade Negotiations Insight, July/August 2010.

According to the wishes of the European Commission, full and final EPAs should include an agreement on trade in services. In August 2010 the World Bank released a study on the inclusion of services in EPAs[31]. The study concludes that the type of reforms necessary in the African service sector to turn it into a driver of development of the continent cannot be achieved effectively through a trade agreement like EPAs, because it is in the nature of trade agreements to be the result of give-and-take bargaining, where both sides try to maximise their advantages and minimise their losses. What is needed instead is a constructive collaboration between the EU and the African countries to achieve the necessary reforms in the service sector in Africa on a country and sector specific basis.

A liberalisation of the health sector for example would make it impossible for the governments to control the sector any longer. It would mean that the public sector has to compete with the private sector. As the private sector can pay higher wages it will drain the most qualified medical personnel from the already weak public sector, thus weakening the national health system further.

There are clear commercial interests behind the EU's wish to see the health sector in Africa liberalised. Health is one of the faster growing sectors in the world economy. In developing countries, it is also increasingly becoming an attractive investment opportunity for private actors as the growing middle class is able to pay for health services. The consultancy office McKinsey projected the market for private health care in Africa at USD 21 billion a year by 2016. The BusinessEurope[32] proposal for trade policy strategy 2014/2020 states that the EU needs to address barriers to participation in international public procurement markets in key sectors such as healthcare and water treatment. In other words, BusinessEurope is asking the EU to help them to obtain free access to the health and water market of developing countries.

The privatisation of the health sector is dangerous as private provision increases inequity of access because it naturally favours those who can afford treatment. Data from 44 middle- and low-income countries suggest that higher levels of private-sector participation in primary health care are associated with higher overall levels of exclusion of poor people from treatment and care. With respect to foreign service providers, they are likely to target only the profitable sectors or the higher income earners.

2.2.5 Investments in Trade Agreements

Developing countries have long resisted an agreement on investments at WTO level and they finally managed to remove them from the Doha agenda in 2004. If the EU has its way, a chapter on investments will be included in the final EPAs. The EPA with Caribbean countries, which is the only final EPA signed so far, contains a chapter on investments. An investment agreement with liberalisation commitments in the EPAs could severely restrict African governments' ability to regulate foreign investment in a way that benefits the local economy and stimulates development.

The chapter on investment that the EU wants includes 'National treatment' and 'Investor protection'. National treatment means that foreign investors have to be accorded the same rights as domestic investors. This in turn curbs developing countries' ability to give preferential treatment to domestic investors, such as small or new enterprises, to ban foreign investment in certain sectors or to favour regional investors to help foster regional integration. Moreover, giving 'equal treatment' to foreign investors often in practice means giving them more influence and rights than domestic investors, given their greater size and power. Investor protection, which establishes minimum standards of treatment of investors, and the free flow of capital between countries, which secures the right of investors to repatriate profits, restrict the ability of developing countries to control movement of capital.

Liberalisation of investment in natural resources sectors would hand over more rights to foreign companies to exploit forests, minerals, oil and gas. This would tie African governments' hands and limit their ability to require foreign investors, for example, to re-invest part of the profit or to employ local staff. Other regulations that would be threatened by an investment agreement include requirements that foreign investors enter into joint ventures with residents and/or the government, restrictions on land ownership and restrictions on non-residents establishing subsidiaries or branches in the country.

Many African countries have certain restrictions on foreign investment in natural resources sectors in place, even if in many cases, in the hope of attracting more investment, they have been forced to introduce fairly liberal investment regimes. These regulations are often restrictions on foreign ownership, local participation or joint venture requirements, restrictions on land ownership or reserving small-scale mining for local citizens and citizen-owned companies. African countries' abilities to use such regulations in the interest of development will be under threat if the EU succeeds in pushing through an investment agreement in the EPAs. As

[31] Brenton P., Dihel N., Hinkle L., Strychacz N., 2010, Africa's Trade in Services and the Opportunities and Risks of Economic Partnership Agreements, Africa Trade Policy Notes N. 6.

[32] BusinessEurope is a lobby organisation of European industries and employers and a great supporter of neoliberal economic policies.

the former World Bank Chief Economist and Nobel Laureate Joseph Stiglitz said *'If you're from a developing country, try to make sure that your government doesn't sign a bilateral investment treaty.'*

2.2.6 Intellectual Property Rights in Trade Agreements

In developing countries, where health insurance is scant, prices of medicines are a critical factor in determining the level of health care - the poor cannot afford them and governments' ability to expand provision is limited. The current patent system (and other forms of intellectual property protection) delays competition from low-cost competitors, resulting in higher prices. Generic competition reduces prices of medicines by an average of 40-80%. So the protection of intellectual property rights (IPR) is already a barrier to access to medicines and any further strengthening of this protection will exacerbate the situation and impede developing countries from establishing their own pharmaceutical industry.

In recent years, the EU has been promoting very tough provisions regarding the protection of IPRs. A common feature of the trade agreements the EU is concluding with third countries is that they include so-called TRIPS-plus standards. This means that they require IPR protection that goes beyond what was internationally agreed in the TRIPS Agreement. Studies indicate that TRIPS-plus standards increase medicine prices as they delay or restrict the introduction of generic competition. The trade agreements benefit the pharmaceutical monopolies and impede access to medicines in the countries that sign the agreements.
The UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Health, Mr Anand Grover highlighted the need to revisit trade related agreements in the light of their impact on the right to health and in particular on access to medicines. He concluded that "developing countries and LDCs should not introduce TRIPS-plus standards in their national laws. Developed countries should not encourage developing countries and LDCs to enter into TRIPS-plus free trade agreements and should be mindful of actions which may infringe upon the right to health."

Another risk of the inclusion of IPRs in trade agreement is that they hinder Africans' access to technology which they could then develop and adapt to their own needs. An increase in IP norms risks strangulating creativity and innovation which are at the foundation of the development of poorer countries. As Joseph Stiglitz has already warned, what developing countries need to evolve economically are less stringent IPRs, not even tougher ones.

3. ACTION ON TRADE

3.1 Opportunities for Action on Trade

Trade negotiations are conducted by the national government so when planning action bear in mind that action and requests have to be addressed to the national government or possibly to the foreign government the agreement is being negotiated with. As trade agreements tend to be complex it is worth working with an NGO with expertise in the trade field and other experts.

Action on trade can be very successful. As mentioned before, EPA negotiations were originally meant to end in 2007. Campaigns from civil society organisations in both Africa and Europe succeeded in convincing several African governments to reconsider their position. Many of them decided not to sign an EPA as they came to realise it was not in their country's best interest; others are still holding out at the moment of writing, demanding concessions from the EU before signing.

Trade agreements are generally negotiated in several negotiation rounds, which stretch over a long period of time. The lead-up to such negotiation rounds is an excellent moment for action as decision makers at various levels and also the media will be more alert to the issues you express.

3.2 AEFJN and Trade

Current trade policies contribute to greater poverty and inequality in Africa. The international agreements and the way they are understood are marginalising the whole continent. The neo-liberal system makes human beings into commodities and chooses to ignore any damage to nature. This goes against God's will. Unjust and unfair trade kills, while just and fair trade enhances life.

AEFJN is concerned with the poor of Africa, the victims of the neo-liberal system. The action of AEFJN is oriented to a more just people-oriented trade system which recognises the dignity of every human being. It promotes the reduction of poverty and a just distribution of wealth. AEFJN is deeply concerned that EPAs will exacerbate the agricultural crisis that African farmers already face,

increase poverty and violate human rights. AEFJN believes that the proposed EPAs do not ensure the protection of the rights of citizens or the sovereignty of states.

This is why AEFJN is working at a better deal for Africa in the current EPAs negotiations, so that the emphasis shifts from free trade to a fair deal for all. AEFJN calls for an EU-ACP partnership that will protect African producers in domestic and regional markets, reverse the pressure for trade and investment liberalisation, allow for the necessary policy space and support ACP countries as they pursue their own development strategies. This partnership needs to be based on the principle of non-reciprocity, as instituted in the Generalized System of Preferences.

AEFJN lobbies the different bodies of the European Union on trade. It is in regular contact with officials of the European Commission and often participates in events and public consultations organised by the Commission. AEFJN is regularly in touch on trade matters with members of the European Parliament and with diplomats from the member states representing their government at the Council. AEFJN also lobbies the EU Member States through its national Antennae.

4. TOOLS FOR ACTION ON TRADE

A general introduction on carrying out action following the steps of the Pastoral Circle can be found in the first part of this manual. In this section you will find ideas and tools for an action specifically on trade.

4.1 Knowing the Situation

4.1.1. Introductory Questions to Familiarise yourself with the Issue

It might be good to start with a series of introductory questions to familiarise local communities with the trade issue:

- Where do the goods you buy come from?
- Could they also be produced locally?
- Why do you prefer imported goods?
- What does this mean for the local economy, for the local producers?
- What are the locally produced goods?
- When did trade in the region originate?
- When did international trade in the region originate?
- What was the difference in the impact it had?

4.1.2 Information to Look for

Before launching a campaign on trade it is important to have a clear picture of what is going on. These are just some of the questions you might ask.

- Who is our country negotiating with?
- What is the scope of the trade agreement (only goods or also services, investment, IPR, etc.)?
- What market opening is foreseen (how many goods will be liberalised)?
- Will we have to open our market completely to foreign imports?

- What sensitive goods are being excluded from the market opening (if any)?
- Who in our country will benefit from the agreement, and who will lose out?
- Which sectors are strategic to our economy? On which ones can we build our economic development?
- What do we get from the other side?
- Is this really useful to us?
- Will we be able to reach their market anyway?
- Which special interest groups are pushing for a trade agreement and why?
- What is our government's general position on free trade, liberalisation and privatisation? (The more in favour it is the more likely it is to be a keen supporter of free trade agreements).
- When is the next trade negotiation round taking place?

4.1.3 Demands to Address to the Negotiators

Examples of possible demands are listed below. Clearly they depend on the specific trade agreement under discussion.

- Exclusion of services, investments, IPR in the trade agreement.
- A realistic time frame for the opening of the local market to imports.
- Exclusion of sensitive goods from market opening (and make sure that all sensitive goods are covered; the exact list of sensitive goods depends on the structure of your economy).
- Serious evaluation of the impact of the trade agreement on the local producers and on the local population more generally.
- Rejection of clauses that impede the use of export restrictions in the trade agreement.

4.2 A Christian Reflection on Trade

The Social Teaching of the Catholic Church calls for a trade regime which is fair, has the human being and not profit at its centre and gives each participant equal chances to develop. In his post-synodal apostolic exhortation Africae Munus, Pope Benedict XVI writes that "it is incumbent upon the Church to strive that 'every people may be the principal agent of its own economic and social progress … and may help to bring about the universal common good as an active and responsible member of the human family'" (§79). Later we read that "The Church is eager to see the globalization of solidarity progress to the point where it inscribes in commercial relationships the principle of gratuitousness and the logic of gift as an expression of fraternity" (§86).

The participants of the 2nd African Synod in 2009 went even further stating in Proposition 17 that "the Synod Fathers have pleaded for an economy in service to the poor and strongly denounced an unjust economic order which has led to the perpetuation of poverty."

ANNEXE 1

OVERVIEW OF THE TRADE REGIME BETWEEN AFRICAN COUNTRIES AND THE EU

Country	LDC[33]	Trading Regime	EPA initialled	EPA signed
ESA Formation				
Comoros	Y [34]	IEPA [35]	2007	Refused to sign in 2009
Djibouti	Y	EBA [36]		
Eritrea	Y	EBA		
Ethiopia	Y	EBA		
Madagascar	Y	IEPA	2007	29/08/2009
Malawi	Y	EBA		Refused EPAs
Mauritius	N [37]	IEPA	2007	29/08/2009
Seychelles	N	IEPA	2007	29/08/2009
Sudan	Y	EBA		
Zambia	Y	IEPA	2007	Wanted more time in 2009 before signing
Zimbabwe	N	IEPA	2007	29/08/2009
EAC Formation				
Burundi	Y	IEPA	2007	
Kenya	N	IEPA	2007	
Rwanda	Y	IEPA	2007	
Tanzania	Y	IEPA	2007	
Uganda	Y	IEPA	2007	
SADC Formation				
Angola	Y	EBA		
Botswana	N	IEPA	2007	04/06/2009
Lesotho	Y	IEPA	2007	04/06/2009
Mozambique	Y	IEPA	2007	15/06/2009
Country	LDC	Trading Regime	EPA initialled	EPA signed
South Africa	N	TDCA [38]		
Swaziland	Y	IEPA	2007	04/06/2009

32 LDC: Least Developed Country.
33 Y: Yes.
34 IEPA: Interim EPA.
35 EBA: Everything but Arms.
36 N: No.
37 TDCA: Trade Development and Cooperation Agreement, a bilateral trade agreement between the EU and South Africa signed in 1999.

CEMAC Group				
Cameroon	N	IEPA	2007	15/01/2009
Chad	Y	EBA		
Cent. Afr. Rep	Y	EBA		
Congo-Brazzaville	N	GSP[39]		
DRC-Congo	Y	EBA		
Equatorial Guinea	Y	EBA		Recently declared it will consider signing EPAs only in 2020
Gabon	N	GSP		
S. Tomé/Principe	Y	EBA		
ECOWAS Group				
Benin	Y	EBA		
Burkina Faso	Y	EBA		
Cap Verde	N	GSP+		
Cote d'Ivoire	N	IEPA	2007	26/11/2008
Gambia	Y	EBA		
Ghana	N	IEPA	2007	
Guinea Bissau	Y	EBA		
Liberia	Y	EBA		
Mali	Y			
Mauritania	Y	EBA		
Niger	Y	EBA		
Nigerian	N	GSP		
Senegal	Y	EBA		
Sierra Leone	Y	EBA		
Togo	Y	EBA		

[38] LTDCA: Trade Development and Cooperation Agreement, a bilateral trade agreement between the EU and South Africa signed in 1999.

[39] GSP: Generalised System of Preferences.

ANNEXE 2 - AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS WORKING ON TRADE

CAMEROON
ACDIC - Association Citoyenne de Défense des Intérêts Collectifs. http://www.acdic.net

GHANA
TWN-Af - Third World Network-Africa. http://twnafrica.org

KENYA
COFTA - Cooperation for Fair Trade in Africa. http://www.cofta.org

Jesuit Hakimani Centre. www.jesuithakimani.net

MALAWI
Malawi Economic Justice Network. http://www.mejn.mw

SENEGAL
Enda Tiers Monde. http://www.enda.sn

SOUTH AFRICA
Economic Justice Network. Webpage: http://www.ejn.org.za

UGANDA
SEATINI - Southern and Eastern African Trade Information & Negotiations Institute. http://www.seatini.org

ZAMBIA
CSTNZ - Civil Society Trade Network of Zambia. http://cstnz.co.zm

JCTR - Jesuit Centre for Theological Reflection. http://www.jctr.org.zm

ZIMBABWE
SEATINI Zimbabwe. http://www.seatini.org

ANNEXE 3 - INFORMATION ON TRADE AND ON-GOING TRADE NEGOTIATIONS

Official Webpage of the WTO. http://www.wto.org

Official Webpage of the European Commission's Trade Section. http://ec.europa.eu/trade

Official ECOWAS website. http://www.ecowas.int

Official CEMAC website. http://www.cemac.int

Official EAC website. http://www.eac.int

Official SADC website. http://www.sadc.int

Official COMESA website. http://www.comesa.int

Regular Updates on Trade
http://ictsd.org/news/tni
http://www.bilaterals.org
http://www.tralac.org

Contentious issues in EPAs

http://www.aefjn.org/index.php/352/articles/critical-issues-in-epas.html
http://www.ecdpm.org/Web_ECDPM/Web/Content/Download.nsf/0/CA0600DFC1F8D539C125757C00491727/$FILE/09-89-e_content_issues%20EPAs_def.pdf

NGO perspective on trade and EPAs

http://epawatch.eu
http://www.ourworldisnotforsale.org
http://www.s2bnetwork.org

AEFJN Studies on EPAs

The Impact of Economic Partnership (EPAs) Agreements in Zambia.
http://www.aefjn.org/index.php/other-publications/articles/the-impact-of-economic-partnership-40epas41-agreements-in-zambia.html

L'impact de la libéralisation sur les agriculteurs de l'Afrique Occidentale (CEDEAO) et les Accords de Partenariat Economique (APE) (in French).
http://www.aefjn.org/index.php/other-publications/articles/limpact-de-la-liberalisation-sur-les-agriculteurs-de-lafrique-occidentale-40cedeao41-et-les-accords-de-partnerariat-economique-4.html

AEFJN Questionnaire on Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs).
http://www.aefjn.org/index.php/other-publications/articles/aefjn-questionnaire-on-economic-partnership-agreements-40epas41.html

Study on EPAs and Raw materials

Africa Groups of Sweden, 2010, The raw materials race. How the EU uses trade agreements to grab resources in Africa. https://www.forumsyd.org/upload/regional_webpages/africa/documents/Raw%20Materials%20Race%20cover.pdf