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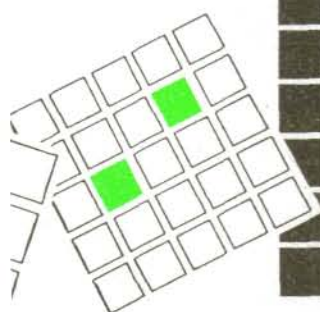
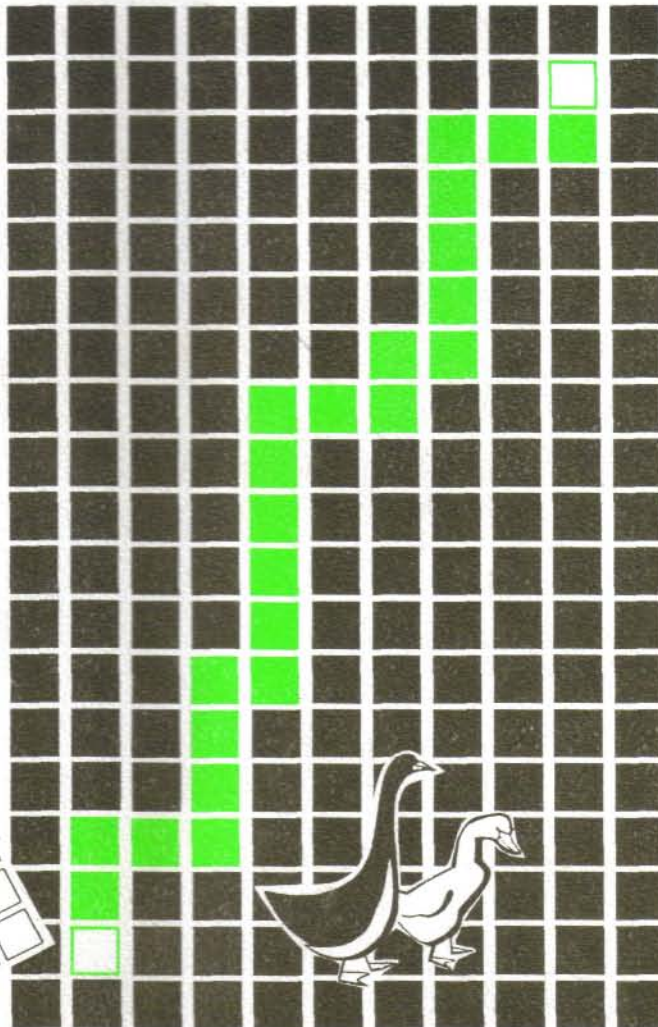
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TRADE LIBERALIZATION OF THE FOOD INDUSTRY IN THE CARIBBEAN: THE FUTURE OF PREFERENTIAL TRADE AGREEMENTS IN THE CARICOM REGION

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INTRODUCTION

Globalization of the food industry has important implications for producers, processors, consumers, and policy makers in developed and developing countries. Highly differentiated products, economies of size in manufacturing, marketing and retailing, and an increasingly competitive environment characterize the global processed food market. The benefits are clearly identifiable for consumers: access to a wider array of products at competitive prices. Also globalization encourages rivalry in the market place, product innovation, and higher production and distribution efficiency. But, opposition in the form of trade protection is common in many countries. However, creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) will contribute to the expansion of commerce by reducing barriers and by providing a binding procedure for resolving trade and investment disputes.

The objectives of this paper are:

- (1) to review recent trends in the globalization of the processed foods market, highlighting implications for developed and developing countries, (2) to describe Trinidad and Tobago's trade policies in rice, pork and soybeans, as a case study of protection and globalization in the Caribbean region, and (3) to discuss the benefits of further trade liberalization and globalization on the food industry in the Caribbean region.

Factors Affecting the Growth in Processed Foods Trade

A number of general economic factors affect the rate of growth in the processed food trade. Per capita income growth is the primary factor affecting trade in processed food commodities. High income countries account for the bulk of the processed food trade. However, the rapid growth in processed food trade can be found in the newly industrialized countries of

southeast Asia which are experiencing rapid income growth.

Another factor is the sale of joint products in a global context, where one product is sold in the domestic market while another is sold in the international market. With joint products, differences in consumer tastes and preferences contribute to expanding trade opportunities. U.S. poultry exports are a prime example. U.S. consumers prefer white meat, chicken breasts, in convenient forms for home preparation. Other chicken parts -- legs, thighs, necks, backs, and feet -- are often by-products, which are sold abroad, where consumers utilize these by-products in local foods. Prices for U.S. poultry by-products are closely linked to the edible export markets in China, Russia, and Hong Kong. Poultry by-products also find ready markets in developing countries where they compete with local products.

International trade in processed foods illustrates how producers "slice up the value chain", a distinctively new feature of trade theory identified by Krugman. Krugman notes that trade in the global production of a final good may easily be several times the value added in all stages of that production. The growth in U.S. poultry exports also demonstrates the dynamic nature of markets consistent with Vernon's Product Cycle Theory of international trade. Broiler markets for U.S. exports are developing their own broiler operations, importing feed and baby chicks. Mexican poultry producers imported higher shares of U.S. feed and animal stock after ratification of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). Now, three years after NAFTA, Mexican producers have begun exporting chicken breasts to the United States.

Differential tariffs, sometimes referred to as escalating tariffs, occur when a country's import tariff schedule is structured to favour imports of semi-processed products in order to boost use of domestic food processing capacity (Neff, Harris, Malanoski, and Ruppel 1996, p. 61). The classic example is the tariff structure on oilseeds whereby a zero tariff is imposed on soybeans in a country that does not produce soybeans but raises tariffs on semi-processed products such as crude or refined soybean oil and even higher tariffs on margarine. The objective of a differentiated tariff policy is to encourage the use of domestic processing capacity and its associated inputs such as labour (Neff, Harris, Malanoski, and Ruppel 1996, p. 61).

Among non-tariff import barriers, voluntary export restraints and import licensing requirements are still widely used to restrict competition with local industries. The Uruguay Round agreement eliminated many quantitative restrictions and converted others to tariff-rate quotas. This agreement created a more competitive environment for developing countries like Trinidad and Tobago (TT) where a combination of tariff and non-tariff barriers still limits imports. Trade liberalization, however, appears to be the preference of consumers and the current TT administration.

Preferential Trade Agreements in the Caribbean

Before the 1980s, GATT was the primary source for increased market access and the resolution of trade disputes. In the second half of the 1980s, countries began to move toward preferential trading arrangements (PTAs) as a means of lowering trade

barriers and stimulating market access for food and kindred products. PTAs provide for the elimination of tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade in bilateral or multilateral agreements. Many PTAs include sections on transportation regulations, investments and dispute settlement mechanisms. PTAs are prevalent in the Caribbean region, as countries align themselves with larger trading blocs to gain market access on favourable terms.

The extent of PTAs in world trade is substantial. There are 23 forms of PTAs among 119 countries that account for 82% of world trade value (Fieleke 1992). Bhagwati and Panagariya identified 134 regional trading arrangements certified to the GATT/WTO over the period 1949-1995. Thus, less than 20% of world trade is not covered by some form of preferential trade arrangement. GATT, on the other hand, promotes "nondiscrimination" in the application of tariffs but preferential trading arrangements get around this through Article XXIV, which sets out the conditions under which the formation of free-trade areas or customs unions are permitted. "These conditions are (1) the elimination of trade barriers on substantially all trade among members, (2) remaining trade barriers against nonmembers are not more severe or restrictive than those previously in effect, and (3) interim measures leading to the formation of the agreement are employed for only a reasonable period of time" (Penson, Capps and Rosson 1996, p. 506). PTAs operate by permitting specific imported goods to enter at lower (or zero) rates of duty or under more advantageous non-tariff terms than are available from other nations.

Bhagwati and Panagariya (1996) criticize trade liberalization based

on hegemony-centred preferential trading arrangements such as NAFTA. They demonstrate that the static and dynamic welfare gains from these arrangements are vastly overstated. In the light of new research findings, the case for PTA's is far less persuasive to policymakers and politicians.

Current Status of Preferential Trade Agreements for the Caribbean and Enlargement of NAFTA

The Caribbean Common Market (CARICOM) and TT in particular, are reviewing their connections with a number of PTAs. The primary concern is limited benefits offered by PTAs and parity with NAFTA. Negotiations with the European Union (EU) on post Lome IV are expected to start in 1998. Preferential access to EU markets is expected to be scaled back after the current convention expires in February, 2000. The Caribbean Basin Initiative is a unilateral market access offer from the U.S. to the region with limited product coverage. A similar arrangement with Canada also has limited coverage. Trade disputes between Caribbean countries are creating division rather than promoting integration in the region.

Trinidad and Tobago has a substantial trade surplus with its CARICOM partners. In 1995, exports to the community totaled US\$512.6 million, (20% of total exports) while imports were only US\$57.2 million, or 3.3% of total imports (Central Bank of Trinidad and Tobago, 1996). Actual and perceived barriers to TT products have forced the government to seek extra-regional trading partners. Trade missions have visited Venezuela and other nearby Latin American countries.

Political issues in the U.S. cloud the enlargement of NAFTA to include

the Caribbean Region. The Administration needs a renewal of fast-track authority in order for it to negotiate an expansion of the free trade agreement. Fast-track authority expired in 1995 and Congress has refused to renew it. Congressional approval is caught up in disputes between labour, environmentalists, and business supporters. Labour and environmental lobbies refuse to renew the authority unless it includes provisions for trading partners to upgrade their worker and environmental laws to match U.S. laws. Business interests refuse to accept this approach, resulting in a stalemate. Nevertheless, business interests are cognizant of the impact of trade diversion on the U.S. economy.

Other issues also cloud the inclusion of CARICOM countries in an expanded NAFTA, including the U.S.'s WTO petition on the EU banana regime and Washington's inaction on expanded trade during the past election year. The U.S. and four Latin American banana exporters (Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Mexico) petitioned the WTO for a dispute settlement panel. The panel was established to review the U.S. backed complaint that the "...EU regime favours ACP producers and therefore contravenes WTO open trade laws" (Central Bank of Trinidad and Tobago, June 1996, p. 16). If the U.S. petition is accepted by WTO, then preferential treatment for Caribbean bananas could be lost, and small country producers, such as Dominica and St. Lucia, would face competition from Latin American producers in the EU market. The political implications could also hurt other trade negotiations among the U.S., Caribbean and Latin American countries.

Agricultural and Food Imports and Market Shares in the Caribbean

Several factors drive the Caribbean's dependence on food imports: scarce resources, agricultural production concentrated in export crops, growing populations, increasing per capita income, and growing tourism. The quality of the agricultural land base varies widely, from the highly eroded hillsides of Haiti, to the relatively productive sugar and banana plantations located throughout the islands. These limited resource farms cannot supply the food needs of a growing population in either competitive or complementary products. Thus, imports provide an increasing share of the food needs of the Caribbean Basin.

There is strong competition for the Caribbean markets. The U.S. market share for food products in the Caribbean depends upon the region and trade relationships. In the Central Caribbean Market consisting of the Caymans, Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Jamaica, the U.S. has a 55% market share (Collie 1996). In the Eastern Caribbean market, the European Union has the largest market share, 65%, followed by the U.S. with 20%. In the major food product categories, the U.S. has about 55% of the bulk commodity market share, 60% of the intermediate product market, but only 25% of the ready-to-eat food market. Growth in the U.S. exports of consumer ready, intermediate and bulk commodities has been steady over the last five years (Collie 1996). Overall, the EU dominates the market with a 45% market share, followed by the U.S. with 33%, Canada, Mexico and New Zealand have 5%, 3% and 2% market shares,

respectively (Collie 1996). Among CARICOM countries, the U.S. dominates the market in both imports and exports (Table 1).

The U.S. promotes both high-value and intermediate products for the Caribbean market. U.S. agricultural, fish and forestry exports to the Caribbean markets were valued at \$1.655 billion in 1996 (Table 2).

The Caribbean market is very competitive. First, protection of local producers is strong. Governments impose licensing requirements on imports and utilize tariffs and taxes as revenue sources, raising the cost of imported products. Second, the Caribbean region has strong trading relationships with Europe. Third, several islands have joined together in a customs union, the CARICOM, which gives preferences and lower tariffs to imports from member countries. While it is not a problem with bulk or intermediate commodities, the Union's policies do pose a barrier to trade in consumer ready products. Finally, the small islands represent low sales volumes for specific commodities.

If the growth in value of U.S. agricultural and consumer food exports to the Caribbean region is representative of global trade with the region, then this region represents one of the fastest growing food import markets. The value of U.S. bulk agricultural exports grew at a 10% average annual rate between 1992 and 1996. Exports of intermediate and consumer ready food items increased 6% and 8% respectively. The U.S. has targeted a group of products, mainly consumer ready foods, for export promotion and expansion. These include dairy products, poultry meat, diversified grocery products, beef, fruits, and beverages (Table 3). These products compete directly with local

products along with products from other exporters, mainly the EU and Canada.

Trade Policies in Trinidad and Tobago

Trade barriers become very important when focusing on a specific market such as Trinidad and Tobago. The TT market reflects problems found throughout the Caribbean region. TT is a small island country of nearly 1.3 million people. Agriculture accounts for less than 10% of both GDP and exports, and provides employment for 11% of the workforce. Rice, meat and vegetables are produced for domestic consumption, but Trinidad is dependent on imports for feeds, wheat, and other food grains. Food and beverage imports account for one-fifth of total imports. The U.S. is the primary trading partner followed by the United Kingdom, Canada, CARICOM members and EU (Table 4).

Trinidad and Tobago implemented CARICOM's Common External Tariff (CET) in 1991. CARICOM countries have uniform tariffs on all imports from non-member countries and duty-free access amongst themselves (Table 5). For example, imports from non-member countries are charged *ad valorem* tariffs of 45% for wheat flour and 30% for rice (Brown p. 76). Wheat, corn, and soybeans, which are listed as basic necessities not produced by other CARICOM countries, were allotted duty-free status.

Until recently, imports were also regulated by import licenses or complete bans. Import licensing requirements for 64 items were eliminated in 1992; these items are now subject only to tariffs. Items then requiring licenses included paddy rice, wheat and wheat flour, sweetened milk, evaporated milk, corn, coconuts and products, soybeans and

import barriers have been reduced in the mid 1990s. As a result, domestic production has fallen and imports increased substantially. The details of these changes are described in the following section.

Rice

Paddy (rice) production in Trinidad and Tobago was stimulated by trade protection after 1985. The industry is controlled by the National Flour Mills (NFM), which operates the sole rice mill on the island of Trinidad, where all the rice is produced. NFM, a state owned company, was given the license to be the sole importer of (processed or milled) rice and used the profits from this importation and distribution to offer a support price to local rice farmers.

As seen in Table 6, paddy production increased rapidly from 1981 to 1992. After 1992, production fell rapidly, so by 1995, production was less than half of the total of 1992. Trade liberalization has taken the form of a relaxation of licensing requirements and also a reduction of price supports by placing limits on the total value of support payments provided to rice farmers. There has also been the introduction of a rigid grading system for paddy. The effect of this grading system has been to offer to farmers the original support price for one of the highest grades of paddy and to introduce lower prices for lower grades of paddy which correspond to the bulk of the farmers' production.

The effects of liberalization of the rice industry have been that rice imports after falling to 11,623 tons in 1992, have risen to 36,890 tons by 1995 (Table 8). The level of imports in 1995 was still below the levels of over 50,000 tons imported in 1983 and 1989, and as

noted above domestic paddy production has also fallen since 1992.

Pork

Production of pork has shown a steady decline in Trinidad and Tobago since the period 1983/84 (Table 7). This has happened despite the efforts of the state to support the industry by trade restrictions. These trade restrictions have included an import licensing regime, a support price for farmers, as well as the provision of input subsidies, especially on feed.

We postulate that structural changes in the demand for the product have been associated with the growth of non-pork eating groups and a rising preference for chicken meat. Thus, as seen in Table 8, the total amount of chicken meat available (and presumably consumed) in Trinidad and Tobago has shown remarkable stability, even given changing economic conditions with a coefficient of variation (CV) of 0.099. This value compares with a CV of 0.230 for the total amount of pork available in the country (Table 7).

With respect to trade liberalization, the support price system administered by the then statutory authority, the Central Marketing Agency (CMA), was the first measure to be abandoned by 1984 and this led to a large number of farmers leaving the industry, especially in Tobago and especially among the smaller producers. Subsidies on animal feeds in Trinidad and Tobago were also removed by 1985 and this led to substantial increases in the prices of this major input, which led to further abandonment of production, especially by smaller farmers.

Import licenses reduced imports to their lowest level in 1988 for the period 1980 to 1995 (Table 7).

However, the relaxation of these measures has meant that since 1993, imports have been increasing. Meanwhile, since 1992, the level of local production has shown a marked decline, reaching the lowest levels for the period in 1994 and 1995.

Soybeans

Soybeans are utilized in Trinidad and Tobago largely as a protein source for livestock feed. All of the soybeans used in Trinidad and Tobago are imported, since soybeans are not grown commercially on the islands or indeed in member states of CARICOM. Prior to 1987, soybeans were imported as soybean meal (cake) (Table 9) and soybean oil (Table 10). However, from 1987, soybean seed has been imported into the country (Table 11) and has been processed into soybean meal and soybean oil at the Edible Oil Complex of the National Flour Mills (NFM).

The soybean processing industry has been protected by restrictions on imports of soybean and its derivatives through import licences, and also restrictions on the importation of edible oils under the CARICOM Oils and Fats Agreement. This Agreement requires that CARICOM (and in the case of Trinidad and Tobago, national) licences be obtained to import edible oils from non-CARICOM sources.

As seen in Table 9, once soybean seed imports started in 1987, importation of soybean meal declined and virtually ceased from 1988 to 1993. Meanwhile, the importation of soybean seed quickly increased from under 50,000 metric tons in 1987/88 to over 75,000 tons from 1991 to 1995. Also seen in Table 9, soybean seed imports and processing has even allowed the development of an export industry in

soybean meal in Trinidad and Tobago. Soybean oil now also dominates the local edible oil market, where it has largely replaced coconut oil. Meanwhile, the importation of soybean oil declined from over 8500 metric tons in 1984 to close to zero from 1990-1992.

The growth of soybean processing in Trinidad and Tobago also appears to have affected the coconut industry in the nation and in CARICOM in general. As seen in Table 12, production of coconut cake has remained below 2000 metric tons over the period 1980 to 1996, except for 1992, and imports fell to zero in 1989 and 1992, although Trinidad and Tobago has been considered as a major market for CARICOM coconut products. The soybean industry may in fact exemplify the case of the introduction of trade protection in one industry, affecting the performance of another industry itself the subject of trade protective measures.

Evidence of trade liberalization of this industry since 1992, include the resumption of the imports of soybean meal from 1994 (Table 9), the importation of over 3000 tons of soybean oil in 1994 (Table 10), and the resumption of imports of coconut cake in 1993 and 1994 (Table 12).

The impact of liberalization on rice, pork and soybeans is reflected in declining domestic production and rising imports. When price supports are reduced, less efficient producers generally exit the industry. Domestic production falls, *ceteris paribus*. When production subsidies are removed, costs of production rise, resulting in a further exit by high cost firms from the industry. This was clearly the case when animal feed subsidies were removed for pork producers. Consumers, however, generally benefit from trade liberalization

since they have access to lower cost food imports. Since the number of consumers exceeds producers, the net gain to society is generally positive in the long-run.

Sachs and Warner (1995) demonstrate that open economies outperform closed economies in the key dimensions of economic performance: economic growth, avoidance of extreme macroeconomic crises, and structural change. Open economies have a greater dynamism in converting export structure away from primary commodities to manufacturing, flexibility in adjustment that will also facilitate increased emphasis in value-added food industries.

Conclusions

The globalization of the food industry is accelerating. One catalyst in this process is market integration through preferential trade agreements. Another is the improved market access resulting from the implementation of the Final Act of the Uruguay Round of Multilateral Trade Negotiations. The establishment of the World Trade Organization will provide the necessary institutional structure to supervise the implementation of further liberalization of world trade. However, further liberalization of the heavily protected agricultural and processed food trade in the Caribbean will involve relatively high political and economic transitional costs.

The Caribbean economies have traditionally been integrated into the global economy, especially in the food and agricultural sectors. However, past trade policies have distorted productive structures and in some cases, retarded exports. Preferential trade agreements have sustained these trading arrangements. Globalization of the

agricultural and food trade implies liberalization of trading regimes in the broad context. Reduction of tariff and non-tariff barriers will not be enough. Investments in productive resources will be required to remain competitive in a global trading environment.

In a more liberal world environment, protectionism will decline. The Caribbean countries will experience significant opportunities but also some shocks as tariff and non-tariff barriers fall. Trinidad and Tobago already has taken steps to liberalize its import regime. Consumers will benefit from lower cost food imports. On the other hand, farmers, parastatal organizations, and domestic food processors will have to become more efficient in order to survive. If the Caribbean region joins the Free Trade of the Americas, an expanded preferential trading agreement, producers may face increased competition from Mexico and other suppliers of similar products. Thus, delays in implementing economic reforms will make the adjustment costs higher and more severe once the protective barriers fall.

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Table 1: Value of CARICOM's Imports and Exports by Principal Sources of Origin, 1990

Principal Sources Of Origin	Imports		Exports	
	1990 Import Value	Share of Total	1990 Export Value	Share of Total
	--\$1,000--	-percent-	--\$1,000--	-percent-
Canada	261,240	5.0	164,501	4.0
USA	2,023,807	42.0	1,581,439	43.0
European Union	732,131	15.0	719,518	20.0
United Kingdom	401,858	--	441,869	--
Rest of EEC	330,274	--	277,649	--
Latin America	543,443	11.0	77,045	2.0
Japan	220,833	5.0	22,989	1.0
Intra-Regional	441,021	9.0	456,778	12.0
Rest of the World	<u>622,229</u>	<u>13.0</u>	<u>659,179</u>	<u>18.0</u>
Total	4,844,704	100.0	3,681,449	100.0

Source: UNECLAC.

Table 2: U.S. Exports of Agricultural, Fish and Forestry Products to Caribbean Islands, Trinidad and Tobago

Product	Caribbean Islands	Trinidad & Tobago
----- 1,000 Dollars -----		
Bulk Agricultural Total	538,200	90,114
* Wheat	123,793	26,926
* Coarse Grains	168,291	16,589
* Rice	120,127	11,066
* Soybeans	37,238	33,253
Cotton	272	0
* Tobacco	70,645	336
Pulses	10,540	445
Peanuts	2,619	1,232
* Other Bulk Commodities	4,655	268
 Intermediate Agricultural Total	 346,618	 18,161
* Wheat Flour	46,247	38
* Soybean Meal	87,696	1,422
* Soybean Oil	18,344	641
Vegetable Oil (excl. Soybean oil)	26,517	2,504
Feeds and Fodders (excl. Pet foods)	25,114	5,587
Live Animals	4,974	179
Hides and Skins	2,353	0
Animal Fats	36,471	2,146
Planting Seeds	3,073	273
Sugars, Sweeteners, Beverage Base	54,383	1,328
Other Intermediate Products	41,445	4,041
 Consumer-Oriented Agricultural Total	 522,797	 20,506
* Snack Foods (excl. Nuts)	40,419	1,625
* Breakfast Cereals & Pancake Mix	18,372	1,315
Red Meats, Fresh/Chilled/Frozen	32,196	1,063
Red Meats, Prepared/Preserved	10,774	779
* Poultry Meat	87,343	659
Dairy Products	30,703	3,872
Eggs & Products	12,237	2,331
Fresh Fruit	11,336	1,097

Table 2: U.S. Exports of Agricultural, Fish and Forestry Products to Caribbean Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, 1996 (continued)

Product	Caribbean Islands	Trinidad & Tobago
	----- 1,000 Dollars -----	
Fresh Vegetables	18,855	765
Processed Fruit and Vegetables	42,444	965
* Fruit and Vegetable Juices	25,609	671
Tree Nuts	3,624	1,271
Wine & Beer	20,703	198
Nursery Products & Cut Flowers	3,299	9
* Pet Foods (dog & cat foods)	11,061	779
* Other Consumer-Oriented Products	153,821	3,105
Forest Products (excl. Pulp and Paper)	226,185	15,154
Logs	2,569	0
Lumber	105,470	7,665
* Panel Products (excl. Plywood)	48,784	6,210
* Other Wood Products	69,363	1,279
*Fish & Seafood Products, Edible	21,882	609
Salmon, Whole or Eviscerated	374	0
Salmon, canned	258	54
Crab and Crabmeat	593	0
Surini (fish paste)	0	
Roe & Urchin (Fish eggs)	106	
* Other Edible Fish & Seafood	<u>20,056</u>	<u>554</u>
*Agricultural Product Total	1,407,614	128,782
*Agricultural Fish & Forestry Total	1,655,187	144,545

*Denotes highest export levels since calendar year 1970.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census Trade Data reported by Trade and Marketing Analysis Board, U.S. Department of Agriculture.

Table 3: Products Targeted for Near-Term Market Promotion by the U.S. Caribbean Basin Agricultural Trade Office

Commodity Category	\$ Value of Imports	U.S. Market Share
Dairy Products	\$320 Million	7%
Fresh/Processed Vegetables	\$150 Million	25%
Poultry Meat	\$150 Million	40%
Diversified Grocery Products	\$150 Million	35%
Beef	\$100 Million	10%
Fresh/Processed Fruits	\$80 Million	35%
Wine	\$75 Million	10%
Beer	\$60 Million	15%

Source: Willis Collie, Caribbean Basin Agricultural Trade Office, Miami, Florida.

Table 4: Trinidad and Tobago's Export and Import Shares by Trading Partner, 1994

Destinations	Share %	Destinations	Share %
Exports		Imports	
U.S.	44%	U.S.	43%
CARICOM	15%	Venezuela	10%
Latin America	9%	UK	8%
EU	5%	Other EU	8%
Other	27%	Other	31%
<hr/>		<hr/>	
Total	100 %	Total	100%
Export Value US\$ 1.9 billion		Import Value \$996 million	
Export commodities		Import commodities	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Petroleum 2. Chemicals/Fert. 3. Steel products 4. Agricultural sugar, cocoa 5. Tourism 6. Beverages 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Industrial machinery, including vehicles Metal ores Electrical parts and equipment Paper products Manufactured metal products Cereals and products 	

Source: Central Statistical Office, Trinidad and Tobago.

Table 5: CARICOM - Common External Tariff Rates

Categories	1-1-97 to 31-12-97	1-1-1998
	----- percent -----	
Agricultural Inputs	0	0
Non-competing Primary Inputs	5 (LDCs 0-5)	5 (LDCs 0-5)
Non-competing Intermediate Inputs	5 (LDCs 0-5)	5 (LDCs 0-5)
Non-competing Capital Inputs	5 (LDCs 0-5)	5 (LDCs 0-5)
Competing Primary Inputs	10	10
Competing Capital Goods	10	10
Selected Imports	10	10
Competing Intermediate Inputs	15	15
Non-competing Final Goods	20-25	20
Agro-industry	20-25	20
Garments	20-25	20
General Manufactures	20-25	20
Agriculture	40	40
Range of CET (Agriculture)	0-40	0-40
Range of CET (Non-agriculture)	5-25	5-20

Source: CARICOM, October 1992, as reported in UNECLAC/CDCC, December 1995, p. 16.

Table 6: Paddy Rice Production and Milled Rice Imports in Trinidad and Tobago, 1980-1996

Year	Production	Imports
	----- (MT) -----	
1980	9541	32346
1981	2993	37452
1982	3392	39262
1983	3307	52780
1984	3946	44423
1985	3960	34748
1986	4421	30682*
1987	6609	39227*
1988	8963*	33468
1989	13903*	52141
1990	15774*	32197
1991	19950	11623
1992	22022	24543
1993	16204	28674
1994	17514	25985
1995	10193	36890
Mean	10210.07	34939.667
Std dev	6538.30	10187.043
Coef. of Var	0.6404	0.2916

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

*Central Statistical Office Trinidad and Tobago.

Table 8: Poultry Production and Trade in Trinidad and Tobago, 1980-1995

Year	Production	Imports	Total Avail.	Prod./Total	Exports
	----- (MT) -----			%	(MT)
1980	18800	4243	23043	81.59	40
1981	20500	2660	23160	88.51	26
1982	30000	887	30887	97.13	22
1983	27400	2681	30081	91.09	25
1984	27100	1140	28240	95.96	14
1985	26700	1323	28023	95.28	12
1986	23700	1200	24900	95.18	43
1987	23600	1197	24797	95.17	35
1988	21100	1177	22277	94.72	19
1989	22800	2260	25060	90.98	110
1990	24400	1585	25985	93.90	314
1991	25700	1127	26827	95.80	19
1992	24602	1067	25669	95.84	46
1993	29872	934	30806	96.97	40
1994	26463	764	27227	97.19	25
1995	24583	1331	25914	94.86	37
Mean	25234.667	1422.20	26656.867	94.57	52.47
Std dev	3131.136	921.38	2661.96	4.048	73.57
Coef. of Var	0.124	0.648	0.099	0.043	1.402

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

Table 9: Soybean Cake Production and Trade in Trinidad and Tobago, 1980-1995

Year	Production	Imports	Total Avail.	Prod./Total	Exports
	----- (MT) -----			%	(MT)
1980	1	29851	29852	0.00	
1981	7	33417	33424	0.02	
1982	0	42058	42058	0.00	
1983	1	30402	30403	0.00	
1984	2	33901	33903	0.01	
1985	0	26923	26923	0.00	
1986	1	32906	32907	0.00	
1987	19398	11271	30669	63.25	16615
1988	34831	0	34831	100.00	21520
1989	50389	0	50389	100.00	39331
1990	51425	0	51425	100.00	44104
1991	65031	3	65034	100.00	45000
1992	55812	0	55812	100.00	39348
1993	58997	0	58997	100.00	42520
1994	51814	3154	54968	94.26	49065
1995	62788	5766	68554	91.59	37351
Mean	30033.067	14653.40	44686.467	56.61	22323.60
Std dev	27737.485	16192	13914.412	49.13	10933.709
Coef. of Var	0.92	1.11	0.311	0.87	0.49

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

Table 11: Soybean Imports, Trinidad and Tobago, 1980-1995

Year	Imports	Total Avail.
	----- (MT) -----	
1980	2	2
1981	10	10
1982		0
1983	1	1
1984	3	3
1985		0
1986	1	1
1987	48694	48694
1988	30774	30774
1989	91821	91821
1990	56964	56964
1991	94797	94797
1992	81358	81358
1993	86001	86001
1994	75531	75531
1995	91527	91527
Mean	50575.538	43832.133
Std dev	40383.274	40873.956
Coef. of Var	0.7984744	0.93

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

Table 12: Coconut Cake Production and Trade in Trinidad and Tobago, 1980-1995

Year	Production	Imports	Total Avail.	Prod./Total
	----- (MT) -----			%
1980	969	145	1114	86.98
1981	1497	33	1530	97.84
1982	1916	89	2005	95.56
1983	1967	143	2110	93.22
1984	1792	121	1913	93.67
1985	1088	106	1194	91.12
1986	1376	66	1442	95.42
1987	1376	115	1491	92.29
1988	1184	264	1448	81.77
1989	1024	0	1024	100.00
1990	1376	70	1446	95.16
1991	1504	64	1568	95.92
1992	2080	0	2080	100.00
1993	1952	209	2161	90.33
1994	1472	286	1758	83.73
1995	864	0	864	100.00
Mean	1497.8667	104.4	1602.2667	93.735976
Std dev	385.30269	87.613141	403.60897	5.5040656
Coef. of Var	0.2572343	0.8392063	0.2518987	0.0587188

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.