



ADDING VALUE

A Policy Tool Box for SADC Member States to Manage
Economic Transformation and Value Chain Development



Industrialization

Pathways to Economic Transformation

Growth in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) has not been accompanied by sufficient structural shifts in production and increases in employment. This is particularly relevant for the low-income countries in the region. SADC Member States have struggled to diversify production and exports into more complex or higher value-added activities, especially in manufacturing. At the same time, growth has not been sufficiently inclusive or supportive of social development. National unemployment and poverty levels remain high.

The need to improve the quality of growth through economic transformation is therefore recognized by more and more actors within the SADC region.

What is Economic Transformation?

Economic transformation involves a continuous process of reallocating labour and other resources from less productive to more productive activities. At the firm level, this may involve increasing the efficiency of existing firms or, alternatively, reallocating resources away from the least productive firms in a sector and towards their more productive counterparts.

This can occur through either of the following two processes:

1. Structural changes whereby resources shift between sectors from lower- to higher-productivity sectors. This occurs, for example, when labour shifts from agriculture to manufacturing.
2. Increased productivity growth within sectors. This occurs, for instance, when subsistence farming shifts to the production of high-value crops.¹

Economic transformation typically involves diversification in both production (for example through the creation of new subsectors) **and export structures** (through changes in the type of products exported and/or the addition of new trading partners). Additionally, upgrading of domestic production capabilities may be necessary, which includes improvements to management systems and product standards.

In the SADC context, considerable gains can be made from shifting production from low- to higher-value goods, raising the level of domestic value addition: Greater diversification through economic transformation will better shield SADC countries from the potentially adverse impacts of price shocks and price cycles. It also provides more scope for traders operating in SADC countries to extend their markets regionally and globally. The growth generated through economic transformation will help to create jobs and facilitate the generation of income in a more equitable manner. Finally, economic transformation facilitates the creation of linkages and synergies both within and between sectors and countries, thereby creating a broader array of opportunities for future economic growth in SADC countries. Through these channels, sustained economic transformation in SADC countries can generate the sort of growth that contributes to poverty reduction in the region.

Different Paths to Industrialization

Industrialization and economic transformation are intricately related: Countries industrialize to generate social and economic change. This process involves a transition from primarily agrarian activities to large-scale manufacturing, thereby establishing an industrial base. Moreover, success in raising productivity within the agricultural sector underpins the process of industrialization. Economic transformation involves further broader reallocations of resources from less to more productive activities, including within and between sectors other than agriculture and manufacturing.

The SADC Industrialization Strategy and Roadmap prioritises industrialization as a core mechanism for generating economic transformation in the region. Industrialization has many benefits – it contributes to wealth creation and income generation, creates jobs, promotes economy-wide resilience and generates tax revenues. Moreover, the positive experiences in countries such as China and Vietnam demonstrate how industrialization can enforce rapid structural change through a shift in resources away from the traditional sector and into modern sectors of the economy.

There are four different potential pathways to industrialization in SADC countries: 1) import substituting industrialization; 2) export-oriented industrialization; 3) resource-based industrialization; and 4) industrialization through innovation).²

¹McMillan, M., Page, J., Booth, D. and te Velde, D.W. (2016) 'Supporting Economic Transformation: An Approach Paper', Overseas Development Institute Supporting Economic Transformation Programme, May 2016.

²Low, P. and Tijaja, J. (2013) 'Global Value Chains and Industrial Policies', Think Piece of the E15 Export Group on Global Value Chains: Development Challenges and Policy Options, December 2013.



Import substituting industrialization (ISI) involves the use of trade policy and other instruments to reduce imports and increase domestic production. This relies on the notion that explicit support to domestic enterprises and industries will enable them to overcome cost disadvantages through learning-by-doing and economies of scale. Such support is typically provided through access to low priced imported inputs and protection from competition from foreign imports of final products. In some cases, this may be directed towards specific products to provide inputs into targeted production activities through import substitution.

While ISI may stimulate domestic production and create jobs in the short-run, it relies heavily on the presence of a sufficiently large domestic market – which does not exist in most SADC economies. More importantly, shielding domestic industries from foreign competition creates dynamic inefficiencies by disincentivising local producers from reducing their costs. They therefore do not raise their productivity levels or improve the quality of their products. This makes it difficult to achieve the productivity growth that drives economic transformation. The resulting inefficiencies also make it difficult for domestic firms to attain the levels of competitiveness necessary to integrate effectively in regional or global value chains. In addition, ISI leads to higher prices for consumers and intermediaries and lower welfare. Ultimately, ISI results in the development of uncompetitive production, as the multiple examples of failed ISI policies implemented in Latin America and Africa attest.



Export-oriented industrialization (EOI) focuses on diversifying the economy through state intervention to promote exports of products in which a country has a comparative advantage. Such intervention may take the form of direct subsidies, policies to attract foreign direct investment (e.g. low taxes), the creation of export processing zones, special economic zones and industrial clusters, or unrestricted access to cheaper and better quality imported inputs (through duty free imports). This support is removed within a specified timeframe, thereby creating incentives for the beneficiaries to become internationally competitive in order to survive. EOI policies can stimulate the productivity improvements that underpin economic transformation by exposing domestic firms to

competition. This includes competition in international export markets and from foreign imports of final products in the domestic market.

EOI proved successful in several East Asian countries (first Japan, but later Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan and South Korea). These countries were able to utilise abundant factors of production efficiently in order to exploit comparative advantages in export industries in different stages (involving progressively more advanced production). Ultimately, they could drive domestic growth through exports to foreign markets. More recently, in Africa, Ethiopia has achieved some success through EOI in promoting cut flowers exports by putting in place the necessary incentives and infrastructure to attract and retain investors.

The success of the EOI approach, however, depends critically on external demand in foreign markets, thereby heightening sensitivities to exogenous shocks. The success of EOI policies is also likely to be limited in economies experiencing declining terms of trade, because export prices will be rising at a slower rate than import prices. **It may also be difficult to retain footloose investors attracted to the country by the initial support provided through EOI policies.** Such policies thus need to be complemented by efforts to stimulate backward and forward linkages with local enterprises, support domestic firms to upgrade along the value chain, and encourage skills and knowledge transfers from foreign to domestic firms.



Resource-based industrialization (RBI) may provide an opportunity for SADC countries with notable endowments of exportable raw materials by concentrating on processing raw materials into manufactures. This may be promoted through policies that discourage exports of unprocessed products, although export restrictions generally only work under very specific circumstances. Governments may impose an export tax on raw material, which lowers the domestic price of raw materials and effectively subsidises domestic downstream manufacturing. This is designed to ensure a steady supply of raw materials to domestic downstream processing industries. In this

way, RBI policies can provide opportunities for local firms to integrate into existing natural resource value chains as suppliers, and help to integrate activities at various stages of the value chain within one country. RBI has the benefit of providing financial inflows that can be used to finance investment in infrastructure and skills development necessary for industrialization. RBI can facilitate economic transformation by supporting the transition from less productive activities involving the extraction of raw materials to more productive processing. This movement may occur within the same sector (e.g. through downstream processing of minerals) or between sectors (e.g. when minerals are used as inputs into the production of manufactures).

The success of RBI relies – besides on general good governance – on the presence of sufficient domestic downstream processing capacity and the availability of the correct incentives and conditions to attract and retain beneficiation and transformative industries, as indicated by the experiences of SADC countries such as Botswana, Mozambique and South Africa. This also includes access to sufficiently well trained staff and support industries. It should also be noted that downstream industries of the extractive sector need a high and stable supply of energy and water. Moreover, they often do not provide a lot of jobs, thereby limiting the potential for social transformation.



Industrialization through innovation (ITI), on the other hand, focuses on stimulating change within domestic firms by upgrading their capacity and capabilities. This involves targeted, sector-specific interventions to strengthen systems of innovation, e.g. through more applied research in both companies and academia, but also through better linking the two sectors. Additionally, technological capabilities need to be improved in order to enable firms to produce higher value-added goods and upgrade within value chains. The upgrading of domestic firm capabilities inherent in ITI can be an important source of productivity growth and, in this way, help to drive economic transformation.

ITI may not yield short-term results and may be most appropriate for countries that already have a good research base.

The country specific context in which industrial policies are implemented is critically important. Historical experience suggests that some of these approaches, particularly ISI, have not been successful, especially when applied in an exclusive manner. Specific country characteristics (including endowments, geography and other factors) have an important bearing on the types of pathways to industrialization best suited to each SADC Member State. Moreover, regardless of the approach to industrialization, maintaining macroeconomic stability remains a prerequisite for sustained success.

The different paths to industrialization are also not mutually exclusive and the most appropriate pathway may differ from one sector to another within the same country. If well-conceived and properly implemented, the different paths to industrialization can work together. For example, RBI may be successful in providing a ready supply of raw materials for further processing in industries that benefit from state support to export under the guise of EOI.

Services in Industrialization

Services play an increasingly important role in supporting industrialization and promoting economic transformation, in part due to rapid advances in information and communications technology. The share of services in employment and output is growing across the world, and empirical evidence shows that services contribute significantly to productivity growth, especially in developing countries. Many services play an important role in enabling growth in other sectors:

- Financial services facilitate capital accumulation and foster innovation.
- Telecommunications services allow for the dissemination and diffusion of knowledge.
- Transport services facilitate access to markets by enabling the movement of goods across borders and along transport corridors.
- Business services enable the transmission of business process innovations across firms and industries.
- Healthcare and education services are vital to creating and sustaining the type of workforce required for economic transformation.

Many services perform an intermediation role as inputs into the production of goods or other services; and services value added is increasingly embedded in goods exports. Moreover, trade in services provides opportunities for countries to exploit their comparative advantage, and some service sectors (such as tourism or business process outsourcing) are important generators of employment and foreign exchange earnings (especially in land-locked countries which usually face high costs to transport goods).

A Role for Value Chains?

International production networks are increasingly fragmented across countries and continents. Lower transportation and communications costs stemming from technological advances have made it possible and often more efficient to locate different stages of production along a value chain in different countries. The increasing standardisation of production processes across the world further supports this.

The offshoring of manufacturing tasks and other business functions and services are thus increasing in popularity. Moreover, today there is a narrower focus on stages of production or activities within a value chain rather than on entire sectors.

As a result, an expanding share of global trade is now comprised of trade in tasks, rather than finished products, within global or regional value chains. The cost, quality and efficiency of services (particularly transport and logistics services) are key determinants of whether or not firms and countries can participate effectively in global and regional value chains.

SADC countries can now specialise in particular stages of production rather than looking to develop entire vertically integrated industries. This offers a pathway – with less onerous entry requirements – for SADC economies to integrate into global and regional value chains by contributing specific skills or products to regional or global production processes. In turn, participation in global and regional value chains can help to improve access to technology and upgrading assistance for domestic firms in SADC countries, enabling them to add value to their products. This relies critically on the presence of effective policies and mechanisms to facilitate the transfer of technology and diffuse information among people, enterprises and institutions.

Quality infrastructure supporting trade and the removal of non-tariff barriers to trade are key to facilitating integration into regional or global value chains. The availability and quality of hard infrastructure (e.g. roads, railways and ports, reliable power and water supply, information and communications technology) and soft trade infrastructure (e.g. logistics services, standards and technical regulations governing trade) are important determinants of trade competitiveness. Improvements in hard and soft infrastructure within and between SADC countries can reduce trade transaction costs, which may increase trade flows in volume and variety. Such improvements also play a crucial role in facilitating trade in goods, both intra-regionally and with the rest of the world, while promoting collaboration in productive activities across borders and within international supply chains.

What Role For the Region?

When it comes to industrialization, the value of the region is worth more than the sum of its parts: A regional market is a prerequisite for many viable industrialization paths and regional mechanisms can help facilitate needed policy changes. The adoption of the SADC Industrialization Strategy and Roadmap and the revised Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan reflect the commitment by SADC Member States to pursue a joint industrialization path.

Regional collaboration can help to facilitate intra-regional trade and contribute to economic transformation, e.g. in the management of border posts, harmonisation of customs processes and requirements, and in the development and maintenance of multi-country trade corridors and other forms of cross-border infrastructure, and cross-country transit management systems.

Multilateral mechanisms and bilateral agreements involving SADC countries can help to facilitate the development of regional value chains and enable cross-country collaboration in the development of products; this includes agreements to gradually eliminate restrictive rules of origin for specific products. This can be supported in the long-term by continued efforts to:

- harmonise standards (e.g. quality or sanitary and phytosanitary standards, SPS) and legislation (including legislation on national competition policy) across the region;
- produce agreements between SADC countries that facilitate the movement of skilled professionals and exchange of workers across borders; and
- improve platforms for information sharing in the region.

These regional policies need to be backed by the presence of robust institutions in individual SADC Member States.

Policy Basket to Manage Value Chains and Economic Transformation

The selection of policy tools presented below draws from the SADC Industrialization Strategy and Roadmap and is based on success stories from across the world. It may not be exhaustive and it may not answer all questions. Instead, it aims to provide SADC policy makers with an overview of the most important and successful policy tools available to manage the process of economic transformation, especially through industrialization and value chain development, and to highlight key considerations and possible risks.

The list distinguishes between potential short- and long-term policy interventions available to SADC countries to manage economic transformation and support value chain development. Short-term policy tools, while not necessarily immediately implementable, are regarded as those targeting change within a relatively limited time horizon (say, for example, within the next 5-10 years). In turn, long-term policy tools refer to interventions designed to effect change only in future generations.

Evaluation Key

Cost			
Time to Implement			
Urgency			
Linkages with other tools	 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32		
Sectoral relevance			
 Manufacturing	 Engineering & Construction	 Financial Services	
 Agriculture	 Telecommunications	 Transport Services	
 Crop Agriculture	 Mining	 Pharmaceuticals	

Short-term policy tools



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

1 Export processing zones (EPZs) are industrial areas offering special incentives and favourable conditions to attract domestic and foreign investors into the processing of materials for export-oriented production.

The incentives and conditions offered in these zones can include duty-free imports of raw materials, inputs and capital goods, long-term tax concessions, flexibility in labour laws and advanced infrastructure. These are mostly used to attract investment for export-oriented production in labour-intensive light manufacturing (e.g. leather, wood, footwear, textiles and garments, assembly of light electrical goods and consumer electronics). The creation of EPZs can help develop skills and productive capabilities in light manufacturing as a way to integrate into regional or global manufacturing value chains. This can provide a stepping stone to eventually produce more technologically advanced products. Governments can establish EPZs to overcome infrastructure or business climate deficiencies that discourage investment and to fast-track non-traditional exports. They can also boost foreign exchange earnings, create employment (particularly for relatively unskilled workers and women) and generate income through tax revenues.

Note: Investments from EPZ firms may be short-term as they are able to relocate with relative ease; they typically only generate very limited backward linkages to the host country's economy and job creation may be limited to a specific location. Additionally, governments may want to ensure that companies do not just target windfall gains.

Reference Material:

1. UNCTAD (2015) *Enhancing the Contribution of Export Processing Zones to the Sustainable Development Goals: An Analysis of 100 EPZs and a Framework for Sustainable Economic Zones*. New York and Geneva: United Nations.
2. Stein, H. (2009) *'Africa, Industrial Policy and Export Processing Zones: Lessons from Asia'*, Paper prepared for J. Stiglitz, A. Noman, H. Stein and K. Botchway (eds.) *Good Growth and Governance in Africa: Rethinking Development Strategies*.
3. Engman, M., Onodera, O. and Pinali, E. (2007) *'Export Processing Zones: Past and Future Role in Trade and Development'*, OECD Trade Policy Working Paper No. 53.



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2 Designating disease or pest free zones for exportation of animal products can facilitate market access in foreign markets.

This includes separating disease free zones from potentially disease infected regions through a buffer zone or physical barrier combined with preventative measures, to demonstrate compliance with international standards. It is particularly effective when combined with strong quality and certification infrastructure that enables producers to prove compliance prior to exportation. Recognition of certification documents at foreign entry points further facilitates trade, thus strengthening the export competitiveness of products from the designated zones. For example, compliance with the Global Partnership for Good Agricultural Practice's globally accredited pre-farm gate food safety certification standards and protocols can provide better assurance of disease-free status to trading partners.

Note: Effective monitoring of disease free status zones requires considerable investment in institutions and resources to establish and maintain systems of surveillance. It can be difficult for small-scale producers located within these zones to absorb the associated costs. Moreover, even with disease free zones in place, some importing countries may be reluctant to trade with countries in which diseases are present and assurance should be sought in advance, as possible.

Reference Material:

1. World Organisation for Animal Health (2016) *'Zoning and Compartmentalisation'*, Chapter 4.3 in *Terrestrial Animal Health Code (2016)*, Volume 1. Paris: OIE.
2. World Organisation for Animal Health (2016) *'Application and Compartmentalisation'*, Chapter 4.4 in *Terrestrial Animal Health Code (2016)*, Volume 1. Paris: OIE.



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3 Special economic zones (SEZs) are designated geographic areas that seek to attract investment and skilled labour in priority industries by providing regulatory, financial and other incentives.

Incentives can include strategically reformed business and trade laws that facilitate the establishment and operation of certain businesses, supportive regulation, tax and tariff incentives, streamlined customs procedures and guaranteed access to essential infrastructure. Establishing SEZs can help to attract foreign direct investment (FDI) and create employment opportunities. They can also catalyse wider economic, regulatory and legislative reforms by providing a testing ground for reforms seen as too difficult to implement across the whole country, as has been done successfully in China. Establishing SEZs can also help diversify an economy from agriculture to higher value manufacturing activities (as done successfully in the Dominican Republic).

Note: SEZ must be positioned to leverage a country's comparative advantage. For example, Bangladesh established SEZs for labour-intensive sectors such as garments to exploit comparative advantage in low-wage labour. Guaranteed reliability of essential infrastructure services – such as reliable power supply and transport infrastructure to connect zones to global markets – is also a critical ingredient in successful SEZs. Support for SEZ programmes should be provided consistently for an extended period of time as successful SEZs may take several years to build momentum and attract sustainable levels of investment. To aid structural transformation, domestic participation, forward and backward links with the domestic economy, and technology transfer from SEZ investors to local firms should be encouraged. Implementing governments should also be aware that the fiscal and non-fiscal incentives provided in SEZs may result in the loss of government revenue and their presence may generate distortions within the domestic economy (such as disparities in regional economic development or windfall gains).

Reference Material:

1. Zeng, D.Z. (2015) '*Global Experiences with Special Economic Zones – With a Focus on China and Africa*', World Bank, Trade and Competitiveness Global Practice, February 2015.
2. Farole, T. (2011) '*Special Economic Zones in Africa: Comparing Performance and Learning from Global Experiences*'. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
3. Farole, T. (2011) '*Special Economic Zones: What Have We Learned?*', World Bank Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network, Number 64, September 2011.
4. FIAS (2008) '*Special Economic Zones: Performance, Lessons Learned, and Implications for Zone Development*'. Washington, DC: The World Bank.



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

4 Industrial parks are complexes which provide firms with access to affordable industrial land, modern services, physical infrastructure and business support services.

They are typically used to achieve economies of scale in one sector. Their establishment can attract investment, improve industrial competitiveness and stimulate the relocation of industries to semi-urban or rural areas. Businesses located in industrial parks benefit from reduced start-up costs and risks (especially for small and medium enterprises), close proximity to other buyers, producers and suppliers, and thus reduced transaction costs and economies of scale.

Note: The establishment and running of industrial parks may require sizeable investments from government. These parks need to be located in areas zoned for industrial use and with sufficient labour, reliable power and ICT supply and competitive factor costs. The use of industrial parks has helped to develop industries in China, where the parks have mostly focused on manufacturing textiles, furniture or electronics.

Reference Material:

1. Dinh, H.T., Rawski, T.G., Zafar, A., Wang, L. and Mavroeidi, E. (2013) '*Tales from the Development Frontier: How China and Other Countries Harness Light Manufacturing to Create Jobs and Prosperity*'. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
2. Monga, C. (2011) '*Cluster-Based Industrial Parks: A Practical Framework for Action*', World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 5900.



All Sectors



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5 Industrial clusters are groups of interlinked companies and institutions that gather together in close geographic proximity to form either an entire value chain from suppliers to end producers (vertical clusters) or to specialise in similar/related products (horizontal clusters).

Across the world, successful industrial clusters have emerged for a wide-range of different sectors from biomedical products and pharmaceuticals to information technology (IT), electronics and automotives. In these clusters, firms, suppliers, distributors, support service providers and associated institutions (e.g. researchers, academic institutions) are drawn together to reduce transaction costs along a value chain. Clustering may occur as firms look to take advantage of knowledge spillovers, as was the case in the IT clusters in Silicon Valley in the United States and Bangalore in India. It can also be driven by geography, with firms looking to locate close to local or international markets or major transport infrastructure connecting to markets. This has occurred, for example, in Tunisia's manufacturing industries, where factories have historically located in clusters along the coast and in proximity to port infrastructure. Clustering can produce positive productivity improvements for firms by fostering competition and encouraging innovation through collaboration with research institutions and technology labs. It also provides firms with ready access to input suppliers and a common pool of skilled workers, technical experts and information.

Note: Even successful industrial clusters can eventually decline if they do not innovate or re-invent in the face of changes in the global economy. In the long-run, industrial clustering may lead to lock-in wherein overspecialisation hampers the ability of regions to develop new technologies.

Reference Material:

1. Newman, C. (2015) '*Industrial clusters: Who benefits?*', Learning to Compete Working Paper No. 5.
2. UNIDO (2013) *The UNIDO Approach to Cluster Development: Key Principles and Project Experiences for Inclusive Growth*. Geneva: UNIDO.
3. World Bank (2011) *Industrial Clusters and Micro and Small Enterprises in Africa: From Survival to Growth*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
4. World Bank (2009) *Clusters for Competitiveness: A Practical Guide & Policy Implications for Developing Cluster Initiatives*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
5. GTZ (2007) *Cluster Management - A Practical Guide*. *Part A Overview* and *Part B Tools*.



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6 Sector-specific facilitated access to land through land tenure policies and legislation is necessary to facilitate investment in productive activities in national and regional priority sectors.

It is especially important for the development of the agriculture sector and, more generally, for rural development interventions, which can help to ensure food security, provide employment opportunities in rural areas and stimulate economic growth. Targeted interventions to make land available for productive use may also be necessary in sectors such as manufacturing, where land is required to build factories and other production facilities. This is often necessary when establishing SEZs or industrial parks and clusters. Policies to facilitate sector specific access to land need to be backed by appropriate legal and institutional frameworks that ensure effective land administration and security of national property rights. Individual titling, land redistribution (with adequate compensation) through state-led or market-assisted approaches, enhanced access to common property resources, and multiple-user arrangements can also be used to promote access to land.

Note: Sustainable land management (e.g. increasing land productivity, better agronomic practices) is required to ensure that efforts to facilitate access to land do not result in the overuse and degradation of land resources. Alterations to land tenure policies risk generating conflict between traditional norms and national laws over land rights, especially in rural areas. Broad stakeholder participation in land allocation decisions and adequate conflict resolution processes can help to mitigate this risk.

Reference Material:

1. International Fund for Agricultural Development (2008) *Improving access to land and tenure security*. Rome: IFAD.



All Pathways All Sectors



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7 Bilateral and multilateral agreements for the exchange of skilled professionals can be used to facilitate access to specialised skills, address skills shortages and increase skills development.

This may involve, for example, agreements to harmonise or relax work and study permit requirements. Skills exchange agreements help match the supply and demand for skills in a region, addressing skills shortages by facilitating the temporary movement of skilled professionals from skill-surplus to skill-deficit countries. They can raise the stock of human capital in areas necessary to develop capacity for industrialization and economic transformation. They also encourage the circulation of innovative ideas and knowledge flows within a region. Skills exchanges are typically focused around specific professions and sectors such as health (e.g. doctors or other healthcare personnel) or education (e.g. teacher exchanges).

Note: Skills exchange agreements should target priority skills linked to national priority sectors for development. The development of a regional skills matrix that maps available and needed skills and processes facilitating agreements among sector relevant professional associations can facilitate the negotiation of such agreements at regional level.

Reference Material:

1. Sumption, M., Papademetriou, D.G. and Flamm, S. (2013) '*Skilled Immigrants in the Global Economy: Prospects for International Cooperation on Recognition of Foreign Qualifications*', Migration Policy Institute International Program, December 2013.



All Pathways All Sectors



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8 Centres of excellence for research and training concentrate expertise and knowledge resources to promote technological innovation and support the development of advanced capacity in specific industries.

They can be particularly effective in supporting high potential or high growth industries in science, engineering, manufacturing and agriculture. Centres of excellence provide leadership and advice on best practices, conduct skills-based or vocational training, or undertake research and development (R&D) activities to boost innovation in a particular discipline or focus area. They can also focus on specific regions or geographic contexts, undertaking research or developing innovations that support businesses to thrive in local or regional conditions. This can help to develop local or regional competitive advantages in targeted sectors. For example, centres of excellence can help to develop innovations to adapt farming practices to local climatic or disease conditions, boost crop quality or enhance agricultural productivity.

Note: The activities of centres of excellence rely critically on funding support and the availability of highly qualified human resources. Government support should be targeted towards centres whose activities are most closely linked to industry needs and national priority sectors. The positive effects of centres of excellence are magnified if they are linked to industrial parks to promote shared learning and ensure that firms and industries benefit directly from their support. Selection of services and their pricing may be a sensitive issue, but necessary not to distort services markets.

Reference Material:

1. Hellstrom, T (undated). '*Centres of Excellence as a Tool for Capacity Building*', OECD Programme on Innovation, Higher Education and Research for Development.
2. Guimón, J. (2013) '*Building Research Centres of Excellence through Competitive Public Funding*', The Innovation Policy Platform Policy Brief.



All Sectors



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9 Business incubation or support centres are virtual or physical centres that help to create and grow start-ups, early stage companies and small businesses. They usually provide access to facilities and commercial space, business services, as well as coaching and networking support for a confined period of time. These centres encourage entrepreneurship and the creation of new businesses, which helps to create jobs and sustain economic growth. Business incubation and support centres come in many guises and may serve businesses from a variety of different sectors (mix-use incubators) or exclusively support businesses in specific sectors such as technology or manufacturing.

Note: Businesses housed permanently in incubators may become complacent and lack incentives to boost profitability, making sunset clauses an essential element of contracts with tenants. To be particularly successful, incubation centres may be linked to centres of excellence, clusters and industrial parks, ensuring that the centres benefit from sufficiently experienced management and coaching staff and exposure to existing industry.

Reference Material:

1. Davies, M. (2009) *Mixed-use Incubator Handbook: A Start-up Guide for Incubator Developers*. Information for Development Programme and World Bank.
2. OECD (2010) 'Technology Incubators', OECD Innovation Policy Platform.
3. Information for Development Programme (2010) *Global Good Practice in Incubation Policy Development and Implementation*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.



All Pathways

All Sectors



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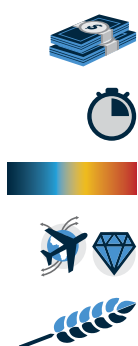
10 One stop shops for businesses provide multiple services – including business registration and the issuing of permits and licenses – in a single location.

This reduces the administrative burden and costs faced by businesses and frees up resources for more productive uses. This can be especially beneficial for small and medium enterprises which tend to have fewer resources and are thus disproportionately affected by the burden of compliance. The presence of one stop shops makes locations more attractive to domestic and foreign investors and may encourage the creation of new businesses, which generates new jobs. They can also help to formalise the business sector by eliminating many of the frustrations that drive enterprises to operate in the informal sector.

Note: In most countries, one-stop shops are only available in a limited number of cities in central locations, meaning that businesses in more isolated rural areas may struggle to access their services. This can reinforce or create regional disparities.

Reference Material:

1. USAID (2011) 'One Stop Shop Best Practices: A Methodology to Implement One Stop Shop in the Public Sector'.
2. World Bank (2009) *How Many Stops in a One-Stop Shop? A Review of Recent Developments in Business Registration*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.



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11 Warehouse receipt systems (WRS) enable farmers or traders to deposit their produce in exchange for a receipt which may be used as a collateral to access loans or to reduce post-harvest loss by selling produce at a later stage.

The receipts state the quality and quantity of produce deposited, and the issuing warehouse operator thereby guarantees delivery of the specified quality and quantity against the receipt. Warehouse receipts can increase access to finance for both farmers and traders as they can be used as collateral to access loans from a bank or other financial institutions. By providing storage facilities, WRS also allow producers to reduce post-harvest losses and engage in time arbitrage by selling crops later in the season rather than immediately after harvest. WRS are used exclusively in the agriculture sector, and particularly for non-perishable produce that can be stored for a significant period of time (e.g. grain warehouses in Kenya). WRS may be run by the government or the private sector, or through public-private partnerships in which state-owned warehouses are leased to licensed private operators.

Note: In order to function properly, WRS require good information on prices and crop forecasting, a legal environment that recognises warehouse receipts as equivalent to stored commodities, a viable storage industry and sufficient hard warehousing infrastructure, and adequate grades and quality standards to assess the quality of commodities.

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12 Tax incentives can be used as tools to attract local and foreign investment into productive industrial activities by providing investors with a higher net rate of return.

Incentives can include tax deductions, exemptions, credits and tax breaks or holidays. These incentives can be used, for example, to channel investment into priority industries or sectors, as instruments to encourage R&D activities that help to develop competitive industries, or to incentivise companies to source from local businesses. Tax incentives can be offered to businesses operating in a variety of different sectors, but are generally most effective when they target specific sectors regarded as important for national economic development objectives (as Singapore has done with considerable success).

Note: The use of tax incentives results in the loss of current and future government tax revenues and requires large administrative resources. Tax incentives may also distort the allocation of investment between activities by creating differences in effective tax rates. The availability of tax incentives may encourage rent-seeking and corruption and create new loopholes for tax evasion. These incentives may also attract footloose firms rather than long-term investment. Tax incentives may not be sufficient on their own to attract investment in settings where the investment climate is otherwise poor.

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13 Investor performance requirements in investment laws or contracts are designed to incentivise local participation and development of domestic industries.

These can include requirements to establish a joint venture with a domestic company, to employ or train local workers, or to transfer technology or proprietary knowledge. Investor performance requirements can be used to strengthen a country's industrial base and promote domestic value addition, develop local expertise in a specific sector or aid the creation of upstream and downstream linkages. They can also be used as tools to enhance the developmental benefits of inward FDI by, for example, facilitating technology transfer. Investor performance requirements tend to be targeted towards specific sectors. For example, technology transfer requirements are often used in the manufacturing and oil and gas sectors (e.g. in Nigeria) and China successfully used joint venture requirements to foster the development of competitive national champions in manufacturing and heavy industries.

Note: Even though investor performance requirements are used widely by governments, some are explicitly prohibited or discouraged under international trade and investment law, including bilateral and regional investment agreements. In negotiating such agreements, countries wishing to rely on such requirements, should thus insist on specific pre-establishment exceptions for investors and investments. Furthermore, it is important to design performance requirements in a manner that is not excessive and does not deter investors, and that encourages cooperation that can result in competitive core business practices.

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14 Export restrictions for raw materials are designed to increase domestic processing, thereby creating local value addition.

Such restrictions include bans, quotas, high duties and other quantitative restrictions. They can be used to protect domestic consumers from increases in world prices and reduce the price of production inputs, thereby implicitly subsidising domestic industries involved in downstream production.

Note: Export restrictions can only be effective in building domestic value addition when domestic processing capabilities exist and when there is scope to further strengthen and expand these in a competitive manner. Hence, export restrictions should be combined with concerted government efforts to provide the necessary infrastructure and business environment to support the domestic processing of raw materials.

Also note that many free trade agreements (FTAs) prohibit certain forms of quantitative export restrictions, as does the SADC Trade Protocol. This is due to their trade-distorting effects; but export restrictions also often incentivise uncompetitive industries, thereby increasing the overall cost to the economy. Export restrictions are mostly used by large developing and emerging economies (e.g. China uses export quotas) and generally target exports from the agriculture and mineral sectors.

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15 Local content requirements (LCRs), which are designed to increase demand for domestically produced products, require that a specified percentage of intermediate inputs (goods and services) used in the production of final goods are sourced from domestic producers.

LCRs are often imposed as a condition for government procurement and may be mandatory for publically funded projects. LCRs are seen as a short-term policy tool to support the development of infant industries, create jobs domestically, channel business to local firms rather than foreign competitors and, ultimately, stimulate local industrial development.

Note: For LCRs to be effective, the stipulated percentage of local content should not be too restrictive. They should also be linked to learning benefits and target specific infant industries and those with high potential for learning-by-doing. Functional enforcement and monitoring mechanisms are also required to ensure that LCRs are applied correctly. At a broader scale, note that LCRs impose economic costs and create market distortions in the domestic economy. These effects are greater when higher rates of local content are required. They result in the inefficient allocation of resources, higher prices and inflated manufacturing costs which undermine competitiveness. They can also act as a constraint to local production of processed goods when a country does not produce sufficient quantities or the appropriate quality of the targeted input. Moreover, although LCRs are widely used, many are actually prohibited under World Trade Organisation (WTO) rules and regional FTAs, including the SADC Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA).

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16 **Compulsory licensing** granted by governments allows third parties to produce a patented product or utilise a patented process without the consent of the patent holder.

These licenses are granted on the condition that the patent holder retains the rights over the patent, including the right to be paid royalties. WTO Member States have the right to grant compulsory licenses under international law and are free to determine the grounds for their use. The latter may include public interests (especially public health), anti-competitive conduct or for non-commercial government use. Compulsory licenses are employed primarily to facilitate production for use in the domestic market. They can help to offset production shortages, ensure affordable access to essential or lifesaving medicines, and enable countries to build their own industries, thereby also generating employment. Compulsory licensing can be complemented by company initiatives for additional licenses, such as the global patent pool. This is a pooled resource from which manufacturers and innovators can access rights provided voluntarily by patent owners to develop new products for sale in developing countries.

Note: The use of compulsory licenses may discourage investment in research and innovation and disincentivise the invention of new products. Compulsory licensing needs to be complemented by the establishment of centres of excellence to support research and innovation and quality infrastructure institutions to ensure learning-by-doing and develop skills and productive capabilities in domestic industries. This is evident in the experience of Bangladesh, which has successfully developed a competitive, fast-growing local pharmaceutical manufacturing sector that meets almost all domestic demand while also exporting pharmaceuticals (including high tech, specialised products).

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17 **Reform of rules of origin (RoO)** can strengthen the competitiveness of local producers by enabling them to utilise cheaper imported inputs and materials used in the production of final goods for exportation.

This is particularly beneficial for smaller and least developed countries, where possibilities for local sourcing of inputs are limited. In the SADC region, the SADC RoO and the SADC EPA RoO are particularly relevant. Given that SADC RoO are product-based, SADC Member States could relax RoO on specific products, targeting those that are essential to develop regional value chains and to promote industrialization. Agreements on relaxing RoO could be made bilaterally or between groups of SADC countries. These could then be taken to the regional level for eventual implementation across all SADC Member States. In this way, a stepwise, product-based approach to relaxing SADC RoO could form the basis for a wider phasing out of RoO on intra-regional trade. Greater convergence in preferential RoO with other regional economic communities can also help to boost inter-regional trade.

Note: Efforts to relax RoO should not discount the positive role that RoO criteria play in determining national origin. RoO enable the correct implementation of trade policy instruments such as import duties or quotas and to determine whether exported products qualify for preferential treatment. They can also be helpful in implementing measures designed to correct unfair trade (e.g. anti-dumping and safeguard measures). Transparent and clear RoO administered in a non-burdensome manner are critical.

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18 Spatial development initiatives (SDIs), including corridors, channel large external investments in a concerted effort to best connect regions to each other and to trade-related infrastructure including ports.

They can combine many elements, including clusters, industrial parks and SEZs, but also economic and transport corridors. SDIs help to raise productivity within and between sectors by reducing input and transport costs and supporting regional trade. They also play an important role in linking industries with farms and local businesses, thereby boosting rural development. The development of SDIs should be driven by national and regional strategic interests and development objectives. This requires coordinated planning among multiple stakeholders, including government ministries, public sector agencies, investors, donors and the private sector. Cross-country coordination, including through bilateral or multilateral agreements, is necessary to develop multi-country or regional SDIs. Investments to improve hard transport infrastructure and the reliability of power supply, as well as soft infrastructure (e.g. border and port management, transport services, warehousing, distribution and reliable ICT), should be key elements of corridor-related SDIs. The Central Corridor in the East African Community is a good example of corridor management.

Note: The development of SDIs and economic corridors may draw resources away from other areas, thereby creating or exacerbating regional disparities. It is important to ensure that small-scale operators and more remote locations also benefit from corridor initiatives by providing appropriate linkages.

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19 Coordinated border management (CBM) involves direct cooperation between adjacent border control agencies to ease the flow of people and goods across borders, thereby reducing trade transaction costs.

This can involve direct interventions to improve the operational efficiency of border posts through, for example, the construction of one-stop border posts (OSBPs). Immigration and customs procedures at OSBPs are carried out just once in each direction, with entry and exit formalities performed sequentially in one facility. This cuts processing times at the border, reduces transit times, and boosts the reliability and competitiveness of supply chains. Border crossings along corridors and those receiving high volumes of traffic should be prioritised for conversion to OSBPs. Alternatively, national or regional single windows can be used to integrate customs declaration and other processes. These enable parties engaged in trade or transport activities to lodge all standardised information and documentation relevant to import, export and transit-related requirements with a single entry point.

Note: The tendency to construct concessioned infrastructure at border posts in the SADC region means that significant investment may be required to modify physical infrastructure to convert border posts to OSBPs. Similarly, significant monetary investment is required to set up national or regional single windows, particularly in relation to costs involved in initial set up, maintenance and staff training. Compatibility between ICT systems and regional interconnectivity is necessary for regional single windows to function effectively. It is also important to ensure that the introduction of OSBPs and other CBM initiatives does not produce specific negative impacts on informal workers and small traders whose economic activities rely on inefficiencies at border crossings.

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20 Regional transit management systems are instruments for harmonising and standardising procedures for the transit of goods within a region in order to ensure that procedures are not duplicated.

This includes, in particular, the use of customs seals, track and trace measures, or regional customs bonds. The latter enable transporters crossing multiple countries to take out a single bond for their entire journey rather than being required to acquire a national customs bond for each country that they transit through.

Note: The effective functioning of regional customs bonds requires cooperation from multiple stakeholders including insurance firms, bankers, transporters and freight forwarders. More generally, training of stakeholders in the implementation of regional transit management systems is required to ensure that they are effective.

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21 Hard warehousing infrastructure supports trade and the functioning of supply chains by providing storage facilities and handling points where raw materials, intermediate and processed goods are collected, sorted, stored and distributed to the point of consumption or sale.

For many products, including mining and agricultural products, the availability of sufficient warehousing infrastructure is necessary to sustain supply chains and support trade. Warehouses can be used by producers and traders to store items that may only be produced at specific times of the year or where demand is seasonal. They also allow producers to store raw materials to avoid shortages or to guard against price increases. Warehouses also play a critical role in the coordination of logistics, minimising transport and distribution costs. Different types of warehouses offering different facilities may be used for industrial goods, perishables, grains and industrial raw materials.

Note: To be most effective, the development of hard warehousing infrastructure should be done in a coordinated manner in alignment with corridors and other SDIs and in response to trade flows/peaks.

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22 Power pools can boost trade in electricity between countries and address a region's energy deficit.

In the SADC region, the Southern African Power Pool (SAPP) provides a platform for regional cooperation in energy that also promotes cross-border energy trade by integrating national utilities.

Note: There is significant scope to boost the regional energy supply by tapping into the region's considerable hydropower potential. Further investment is required to address transmission congestion within transit countries and at the interconnection level between countries, which currently hampers regional power trade. The contribution of the SAPP to the creation of a competitive regional power market can also be strengthened by interconnecting the remaining SADC Member States (at present only nine SADC countries are interconnected through the SAPP). The generation capacity of the power pool can also be enhanced by extending the SAPP beyond the national power utilities in SADC countries to include independent power producers (IPPs) and transmission companies.

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23 Power Purchasing Agreements (PPAs) with IPPs can facilitate private investment in the power generation sector.

This eases the burden on national governments to invest in energy generation infrastructure and addresses the energy deficit in the region. A PPA is a long-term contractual arrangement through which a purchaser (often a state-owned energy utility) buys the electricity generated by a power plant. These agreements can stimulate competitive market reform in the energy sector (beyond the current domination of national utilities), and expand energy provision.

Note: It is important to consider how the financial risks associated with PPAs are allocated between the parties to the agreement. These may include construction period risks such as increases in financing costs or delays in completing the power plant or associated facilities. Once operational, there is the risk that the IPP will not be able to produce the contracted power volumes. PPAs should clearly stipulate which parties bear the financial risk of losses that arise as a result. Currency fluctuations or inflexible consumer pricing can put pressure on the financial viability of projects if the IPP's operating costs increase and the tariffs in the PPA are set in advance. Finally, there may be limited scope for renewable energy development in PPAs if the long term price for electricity set in the PPA is insufficient to encourage renewable energy generation.

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24 Mutual recognition of product licenses, registrations and certificates allows national product authorisation for certain types of products (such as pharmaceuticals or medicines) to be extended to other markets without the need to harmonise all national technical rules.

Mutual recognition agreements (MRAs) are typically concluded bilaterally. They allow pharmaceutical products registered in one country to be sold in another, and ensure licenses to manufacture, import or distribute medicines are valid across countries. For exporters, MRAs mean a product that can legally be produced or sold in one SADC country would not need to meet additional requirements in the export destination. This reduces the costs associated with exporting products to different markets and facilitates intra-regional trade in these products. It also reduces the cost of accessing inputs, especially in the agricultural sector. For example, the harmonisation of registration increases the tradability of products such as fertilizers or veterinary medicines.

Note: The implementation of MRAs can be costly for both administrators and regulators. MRAs also rely on the presence of high quality regulatory systems, structures and procedures for accreditation in the countries that are party to the agreement.

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25 Harmonisation of standards and technical regulations affecting intra-regional trade is intended to reduce compliance costs faced by exporters serving multiple export markets.

This may involve, for example, the harmonisation of sanitary and phytosanitary standards (SPS), labelling requirements for food products or registrations for seeds and veterinary medicines. Such harmonisation can play an important role in enhancing trade competitiveness, promoting market access, and reducing unnecessary product adaptation costs for would-be exporters. SADC Member States should identify areas for harmonisation within specifically defined value chains, focusing, for example, on harmonising SPS or standardising technical regulations for products involved in these value chains. Countries may also distinguish between the level of standards and regulations applied in regional versus international export markets, allowing for variation in standards in accordance with the intended target market.

Note: It is important to avoid a lowest common denominator approach to the harmonisation of standards or technical regulations, which may result in lower quality levels or standards of protection.

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26 Strengthening access to quality assurance infrastructure provides greater assurance to trading partners that the goods and services they trade are safe and of sufficiently high quality.

Effective quality assurance infrastructure is necessary to ensure access to markets for regional products while also protecting consumers in the region from unsafe products. Existing quality assurance mechanisms can be strengthened by pooling shared quality assurance resources, infrastructure and information. It can also be achieved by developing conformity assessment standards and procedures and upgrading conformity assessment infrastructure. Conformity assessment bodies in the region should be technically competent and internationally accredited. This infrastructure can be complemented by privately managed, regional reference laboratories for testing for residues and toxins in animal or plant products.

Note: Not every country may need its own institutions nor may it be able to finance them by itself; therefore pooling such institutions in the region is a necessity. For privately managed regional reference laboratories to be viable, businesses must be encouraged to make use of their services in order to ensure a critical mass of users.

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Long-term policy tools



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27 Targeted skills policy to develop human capital in key areas such as science, technology, engineering and maths is important to generate the sustained productivity growth necessary for economic transformation.

Accelerated investment in education (including technical and vocational education and training) and skills development can help to facilitate entry into global value chains. This should be complemented by efforts to integrate knowledge and understanding of standards into education curricula. At the firm level, targeted skills development extends to softer skills such as entrepreneurship, management skills and practices. These skills can be important drivers of productivity differences among firms.

Note: Policy efforts to develop skills should be complemented by the introduction of incentives to retain skilled personnel. These may include bonuses for workers in scarce skill categories or non-financial incentives such as housing allowances, access to further training opportunities and improved working conditions.

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28 Harmonisation of regional qualifications frameworks and basic education standards can facilitate the circulation of skilled personnel within the region.

Harmonisation and assurance of standards and qualifications across educational and training institutions and countries is necessary to achieve mutual recognition of the compatibility and competencies of skilled professionals and those with technical and vocational qualifications from different countries. By enabling the movement of skills from skill-surplus to skill-deficit areas, such harmonisation can help to address shortages in human capital that hinder economic transformation and value chain development in SADC countries.

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29 Liberalisation of domestic regulatory frameworks for telecommunications, transport and financial services promotes competition and improves efficiency.

This requires pro-competitive legislation that ends monopolies and eliminates exclusive rights to allow the entry of new players into these sectors. This can help to ensure that exports of these services from SADC Member States are competitive in international markets. Domestically, more competitive local telecommunications, transport and financial services can also help to attract FDI. Greater efficiency in these sectors also enhances the competitiveness of other sectors. For example, the efficiency of transport and logistics services plays a key role in determining the competitiveness of exports of manufactures in international markets.

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All Sectors



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

30 Competition legislation and enforcement helps to eliminate barriers to market entry and ensure equitable access to opportunities for market participants, while also helping markets to function efficiently.

Competition authorities can be strengthened through targeted capacity building for technical staff, competition commissioners and legal personnel that improves their investigative capacity and ability to enforce national competition laws. This is especially important to counteract cartels and monopolies that constrain the development of regional value chains.

Note: Competition authorities need to be backed by strong national legislation on competition policy in order to function effectively.

Reference Material:

1. International Competition Network (2003) '*Capacity Building and Technical Assistance: Building credible competition authorities in developing and transition economies*', Report prepared by the ICN Working Group on Capacity Building and Competition Policy Implementation'.



All Sectors



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

31 Investment promotion policies aim to create a favourable environment for investors with a view to attracting FDI.

This may include the enactment of legislation that protects the rights of investors and assures them that the security of their investments will be guaranteed. Governments can also create investment portals to provide easily accessible information on investment regulations as well as incentives available to investors. Similarly, trade promotion portals can be used to provide a single access point for up-to-date and comprehensive trade-related information to assist traders to comply with import, export or transit regulations. These portals aid investor decision-making by providing a single authoritative reference point for transparent and accurate information.

Note: Investment policy instruments can be applied to attract investment in any sector, but may be front-loaded to target specific priority sectors, source countries and even companies that best serve particular industrialization or value chain development goals. Specific investment policy instruments are most effective in attracting investment if combined with general reforms to create a conducive environment for profitable investment.

Reference Material:

1. GIZ (2015) '*Developing countries and the future of the international investment regime*', German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development.
2. World Bank (2012) '*Global Investment Promotion Best Practices 2012*', Washington, DC: The World Bank.
3. World Bank (2012) '*Developing a Trade Information Portal*'. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
4. OECD (2011) '*Investment Promotion and Facilitation*', Chapter 2 in *Policy Framework for Investment User's Toolkit*. Paris: OECD.



All Sectors



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32

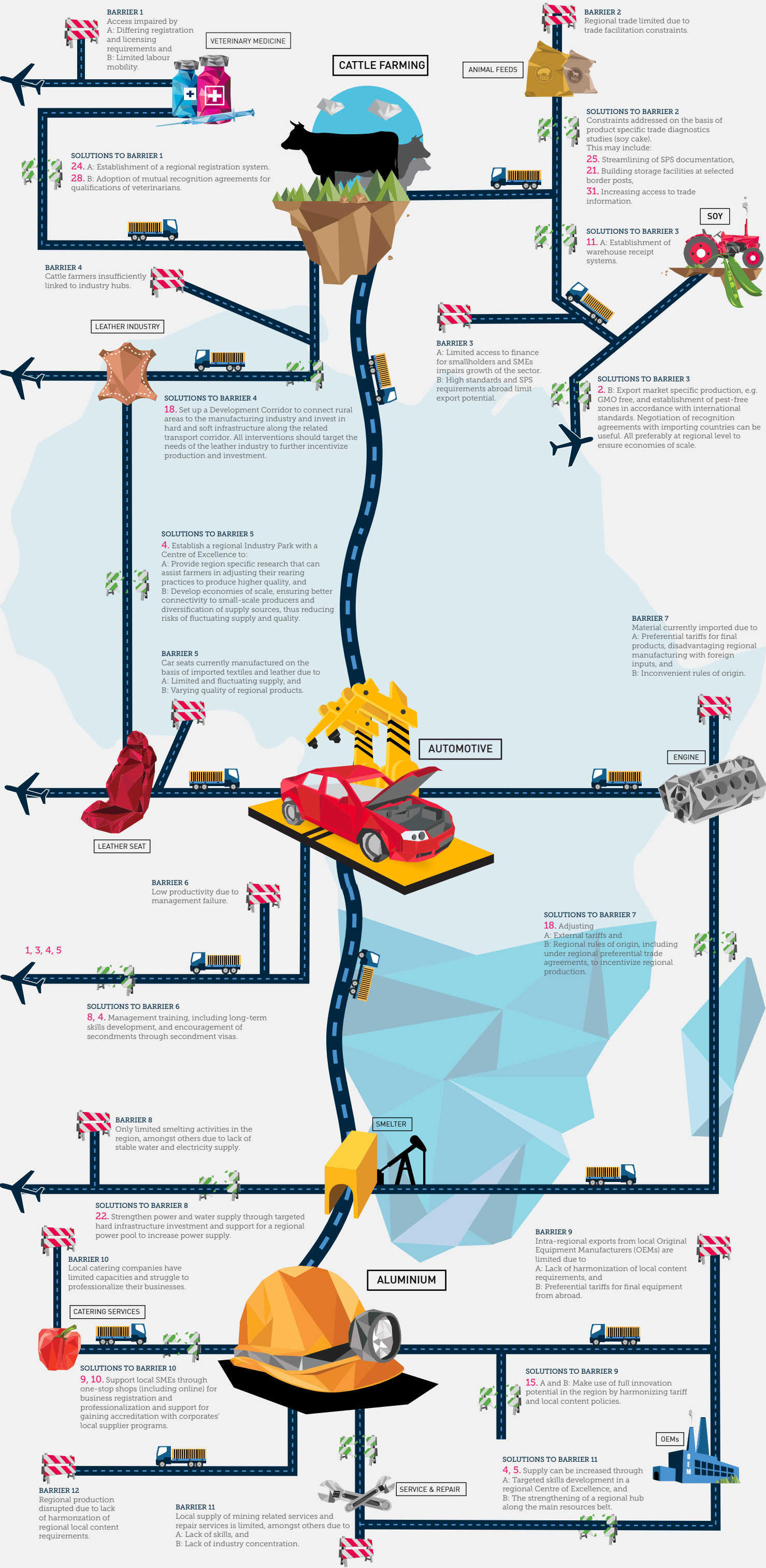
32 Transparent, streamlined and sector specific tax laws help to ensure that a country's tax system does not discourage investors and producers from financing and engaging in productive industrial activity.

The nature of the tax system plays an important role in influencing decision-making regarding investment and production. Cumbersome or complicated tax compliance procedures and the presence of multiple nuisance taxes can affect production patterns and act as a constraint to industrialization and value chain development.

Reference Material:

1. GIZ (2014) '*Environmental Fiscal Reform: Case Studies*', German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development.
2. IMF, OECD, United Nations and World Bank (2011) '*Supporting the Development of More Effective Tax Systems*', Report to the G-20 Development Working Group.

Using Policy Tools to Overcome Barriers and Enable Value Chains in the Region



Comments & Feedback

This is the first edition of "Adding Value". The aim is to create "Adding Value" as a living document in print and electronic form and as an interactive website to which public and private stakeholders in the SADC region contribute on a continuous basis. Comments and suggestions, especially regarding already included or omitted policy tools, are therefore highly encouraged. Please send them to Dr. Monnane Monnane at mmonnane@sadc.int.

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