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## SCOPE AND OUTLINE FOR ASEAN REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

IN THE TEXTILES AND TEXTILE PRODUCTS INDUSTRY\*

Prepared by the

**Regional and Country Studies Branch** 

**Division for Industrial Studies** 

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#### PREFACE

The Regional and Country Studies Branch of the Division for Industrial Studies, UNIDO, is carrying out analyses of issues pertaining to the enhancement of industrial co-operation between developing countries in various regions and subregions. A series of studies related to ASEAN co-operation was carried out in 1982 covering aspects, such as industrial complementation, joint venture schemes, and industrial financing. A conference was organized in October 1982 in Lima with officials of ASEAN and the Andean Group countries to facilitate a direct exchange of experience and a joint review of key issues in industrial co-operation.  $\frac{1}{}$ 

As a follow up of the said study work and the observations and conclusions of the conference - and in preparation for a second conference planned to be held at the ASEAN Secretariat - further regional industrial co-operation studies have been undertaken at the level of specific industrial sectors. $\frac{2}{}$ 

The purpose of the present study related to ASEAN is to assess the scope and identify new approaches for regional co-operation in the textiles and textile products industry.

International developments in textile production and trade are subject to increasingly fierce competition in saturating and protected markets in the industrialized countries and to changes in the international locational pattern. Although so far the textile industry in the developing countries has been remarkably resistant to recent technological breakthroughs, the introduction of more rational production processes, particularly micro-

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<sup>1/</sup> See UNIDO/IS/R.9, 'Report on the ASEAN/Andean Pact Conference and Study Tour on Regional Co-operation, 11-23 October 1982' and UNIDO/IS.401, 'Regional industrial co-operation: Experiences and perspective of ASEAN and the Andean Pact', 12 August 1983.

<sup>2/</sup> Ref. paragraphs 79-81 of minutes of the 22nd Meeting of the ASEAN Committee on Industry, Minerals and Energy (COIME) held in Manila, 1-3 December 1983.

processor-based technologies already have and are likely to have, a significant impact on the international location of production and on employment in the years to come. Most developing countries, including the ASEAN countries, are facing the need to conceive policies and programmes for adjusting their textile industry to emerging challenges and to anticipate implications of these adjustments in terms of labour and/or skill requirements and overall economic resources. To this end developing countries need to carefully analyze domestic and international trends. The purpose of the study is to assist the ASEAN countries in these endeavours, to provide a basis and a conceptual framework for intra-ASEAN co-operation and to assess the scope and identify new approaches for regional co-operation in ASEAN in the textiles and textiles products industry.

The study is essentially based on findings of short-term missions made in each of the ASEAN countries by two UNIDO consultants, Mr. Jean Raphael Chaponniere, Research Fellow at the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, Singapore, and Mr. Luigi Spreafico, Textile Industry Consultant, Rio de Janeiro. The findings rely extensively on data and documents made available to the experts during their visits.

In the preparation of the final study report at the Regional and Country Studies Branch guidance was also provided by Professor Jacques de Bandt, Institute de Recherche en Economie de la Production, Nanterre, France.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The international scene is, as of today, not very favourable for the implementation of an export-oriented textile industrialization strategy. Access to the developed countries' markets is limited and is likely to remain so in the years to come.

The essential development of the ASEAN countries' textile industries was rather late in the context of the big move in the 1960's and 1970's towards a new international division of labour and has by and large been taking advantage of the easiest opportunities: Import substitution, foreign investments, export-oriented garment production.

As such the ASEAN countries' textile industries, which are composed of successive layers, are very diverse, due to different growth patterns and different policies. Their growth performances have by and large been substantial, but beyond the actual situation - world recession, but U.S. recovery - questions are now being raised as concerns the future prospects for the ASEAN countries' textile industries. They are, indeed, showing some structural weaknesses: overall competitiveness does not seem to be very high, the quality dimensions seem to be rather neglected, dyeing and printing activities are poorly developed, the import dependency for fabrics is significant. They have still to grow up to'mature' industries. While some segments (or layers) have been successfully developed, with noteworthy export performances, these developments have not yet been worked out into a consistent textile industry sector system.

Future prospects seem to be dependent on the possibility to set up such a consistent system in which all the processes (at the successive production stages) and all the functions (not just the production, but design, quality control, training and research, maintenance, distribution, etc.) are effectively and efficiently performed. The two main aspects of such a strategy would seem to be, on the one hand, the definition and implementation of 'product policies' (or 'marketing strategies'), and, on the other hand, the

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efficient organization of the production process or textile 'chain' (development of complementary production stages, training, maintenance, provision of technical expertise, etc.).

One may wonder whether the ASEAN countries individually will be able to fulfill these necessary requirements. This is not a question of capacities or resources <u>per se</u>, nor of size. The question is whether they will find it possible to mobilize (as priority objective) the necessary resources and to fulfill all of these requirements, in the timespan available (which may be rather short taking account of the changing technological conditions) and in the framework of existing competitive pressures.

There seems to exist a good case for developing, within the ASEAN region, co-operative schemes aiming at enhancing collectively the capacities to fulfill some of the basic requirements for the development of consistent and competitive textile and clothing industries. The objective would not be to eliminate competition through the planning of productive capacities, but to increase, through co-operation and collective investments, their overall competitive position vis-à-vis the rest of the world.

Opportunities for co-operation are shown to exist in different fields: First, opportunities as concerns 'product policies' aiming at upgrading textile and clothing production. Second, opportunities in the field of those actions which are necessary to strengthen the textile 'chain' and thus reduce the actual structural imbalances. Third, opportunities to promote exports, including those on an intra-ASEAN and intra-industry basis.

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#### I. THE INTERNATIONAL SCENE

Before assessing the actual situation of the textile and clothing industries in the ASEAN countries,  $\frac{1}{2}$  as well as their future prospects, due account should be taken of the transformations which have occurred at the international level, as concerns both the supply and the demand conditions within the world textile and clothing industries. These conditions have been changing quite substantially. The tendency towards a new international division of labour in textiles and clothing has come to a halt. While free trade is increasing North-North intra-industry crade, the North-South relations and relative positions are strongly regulated.

These conditions might be subject of continued substantial change in the future. On the basis of the 'new technologies', new textile and clothing production techniques are emerging which are likely to alter the traditionally labour-intensive character of the production process and thus to modify the structure of comparative advantages. The opportunities for an export-oriented textiles industrialization strategy may accordingly be rather limited. They are in any case more limited than they were 10 to 15 years ago.

This chapter aims at making these points more explicit.

#### (a) The reduced importance of textiles in manufacturing trade

The share of textiles in total merchandise trade and in total trade in manufacturing has been decreasing continuously since the 1950's. At the world level, the share of textile exports in manufacturing trade has been, according to GATT, decreasing from 11.3 per cent in 1955 (8.74 per cent in 1953 and 6.7 per cent in 1973) to 4.9 per cent in 1982. Similarly, textiles have been losing ground in developing countries' exports of manufactures; the share has been decreasing from 34.3 per cent in 1955 to 10.6 per cent in 1982. This decrease has, however, been partially compensated by increased

<sup>1/</sup> In view of the non-existence of textile industry in Brunei Darussalam, this new member of ASEAN has not been included in the analysis of the ASEAN countries' textile sector. Brunei Darussalam constitutes, however, with its 200,000 inhabitants a not insignificant market for imported textiles and textile products.

trade in clothing; at the world level, from 1.9 per cent in 1955 to 3.9 per cent in 1982 and within developing countries' manufacturing exports from 4 per cent in 1955 to 14.2 per cent in 1973 and 13.6 per cent in 1982. But in the recent period - 1973 to 1982 - the combined share of textiles and clothing in manufacturing trade has been decreasing; from 10.3 per cent in 1973 to 8.8 per cent in 1982 at the world level and from 33 per cent in 1973 to 24.2 per cent in 1982 in developing countries' exports.

#### (b) The strongly increased deficit of the North in clothing

The biggest change in the recent period has been the rapidly growing trade deficit of the North in clothing. This deficit has been increasing from US \$4 billion in 1973 to US \$16.8 billion in 1981. While this deficit has been partially compensated by an increased surplus in textiles (textiles: from US \$0.7 billion in 1973 to US \$3.2 billion in 1981; textile fibres from US \$-0.5 to US \$2.9 billion). Account must, however, be taken of the fact that the surplus in textiles has been reduced since.

#### (c) The scagnating trade in textile machinery

To the above must be added that the OECD industrialized countries have a comfortable trade surplus in textile machinery. But while still growing in value terms - from US \$2.25 billion in 1973 to US \$2.9 billion in 1981 - this surplus is, however, not growing any more in real terms. It can be seen that, according to GATT, the volume of exports (to all destinations) of the seven major textile machinery exporters reached a peak in 1974, with US \$7.2 billion, declined substantially to US \$4.8 billion in 1977-70 and has stayed below US \$6 billion since. This seems to be reflecting at the same time not only the existence of overcapacities and reduced investment, but also the actual transition to new production techniques.

#### (d) A general tendency towards overnapacities

Textile and clothing production capacities have been building up in many places. The elasticity of supply is known to be very high in these sectors: the 'textile first' industrialization strategy and the credit facilities offered in order to promote textile machinery exports have been increasing

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production capacities nearly everywhere. The actual capacities are larger than actual demand, both at the world level and at the level of continents and most regions.

#### (e) A strongly regulated market

The process of delocalization from the North to the South has been going on for a while, but in the framework of a more and more regulated system (transition from LTA to MFA, and evolution of  $MFA^{1/}$ ). It has become more and more evident in the course of the seventies that the OECD countries were and are not willing to accept any further delocalization at any substantial degree. The tendency within MFA has been towards more protection and not towards more liberalization.

#### (f) Low performances of textiles and clothing industries

In nearly all countries - industrial and developing countries - the textiles industries appear to have reached everywhere a situation of poor (lower than average) performances, i.e. lower than average incomes (lower profitability and lower wages). This is because of a combination of structural factors: overcapacities, protectionism and limited market access, increased competition, etc. While the textiles industries in the OECD countries have for several years had to face difficulties and structural problems, due to comparative disadvantages and to the negative effects of capital/labour substitution on capital profitability, the same kind of situation has been extended to larger and larger numbers of developing countries because of strong price competition among them, and because of new fabric compositions and finishes resulting from tremendous developments in textile technologies.

#### (g) Increased exports and intra-industry trade in the North

While having stopped, or at least slowed down, the penetration of their markets by the producers from the South, the OECD countries have been

1/ LTA (the Long-Term Arrangements regarding Interntional Trade in Cotton Textiles) from 1962 and MFA (the Multi-Fibre Arrangement) from 1974.

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developing their own textiles and clothing exports, a large propor cion of these being intra-industry trade. A number of firms - a limited number of big firms, but also a larger number of medium to large sized firm, - have been able on the basis of various combinations of strategies and actions (fashion, distribution, delocalization, product innovation, technical progress etc.) to develop their exports substantially.

The textile industry in the developed countries has recently undergone and is further subject to very significant technological developments. In fact, ASEAN textile manufacturers are facing an increasing competition also on their domestic markets in textiles produced in the highly modern industry in developed countries.

#### (h) Access to remain limited to the OECD countries' markets

The observed trend towards more restrictions imposed on the access to the market in the OECD countries does not seem likely to be reversed in the medium-term. Within this limited global access, some redistribution of shares is likely to occur, but in favour of newcomers.

#### (i) New textiles and clothing production techniques

A new wave of technological progress is underway, which consists in the application of the so called 'new technologies' - in spinning, weaving/knitting and finishing as well as computer control - to the textiles and clothing production techniques. The introduction of innovative processing technologies in spinning, weaving and finishing is creating a new capital intensive generation of textile mills, offering a great variety of high quality fabrics in appropriate widths.

The opportunities for the application of CAD/CAM techniques and, further, for computer integrated manufacturing systems are wide-ranging. Several such applications already exist, at least at the pilot stage, for most of the textiles and clothing processes.

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#### (j) Changing comparative advantages

It is too early to assess the specific characteristics and impacts of the new production techniques and to decide definitively whether these new techniques are going to eliminate the labour intensiveness of textiles and, more so, of clothing production processes, and thus change the structure of comparative advantage which was based fundamentally on the level of wages (besides some other elements relating to efficiency and productivity).

But several indications are available which suggest that this might indeed be the case. While uncertainties do remain as concerns both the product range which is to be affected by the new techniques and the relation between the productivity increases and their costs (in terms of investment, human resources, maintenance and repair, etc.), the central question for future comparative advantages and relative competitiveness is the likely rate of diffusion of the new techniques. This will of course te dependent on the evolution of investments.

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#### II. OVERALL DEVELOPMENT IN ASEAN COUNTRIES' TEXTILE SECTOR

#### (a) From import substitution to export orientation

• Some of the first textile mills in the ASEAN countries were established in the thirties, to supplement the existing traditional home weaving industries and to reduce textile importations from Europe and Japan. In Thailand mechanized production of textile goods was introduced in 1936, in Indonesia the first effort to promote industrialization was followed by the setting up of the Bandung Textile Institute.  $\frac{1}{}$  Traditional home weaving industries consisting of backstrap looms and improved hand looms still exist in nearly all the ASEAN countries.

At the outbreak of World War II most of the existing textile mills in the ASEAN countries ceased operations; but due to acute needs for textiles many of the mills resumed operations, although severely hampered by lack of spare parts and scarcity of raw material supply. The postwar development of the ASEAN textile industry up to the mid-sixties was merely rehabilitation of prewar equipment in existing mills and some minor extensions. The really significant development of the modern ASEAN textile industry started in the late sixties and early seventies.

In most countries in the world textile production occupied a prominent role when industrialization began in earnest. This pattern of industrialization has been summed up as a virtual rule of 'textiles first'. To the ASEAN countries the development of the textile industries generally fits into the pattern referred to as the 'catching up product cycle' model, namely, (i) starting with an import substitution phase when imports still surpass production volumes, (ii) then proceeding to an export starting stage when some exports begin while import substitution continues and (iii) going on to an export expansion stage when exports surpass imports, (iv) to finally reaching a maturing stage and a reimport stage.

This pattern of development can be illustrated (see Table 1) for either yarn or fabrics (cotton and man-made) and Thailand is perhaps the country in

1/ Institute for Research and Development of Textile Industries, Bandung.

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		Pre-production stage	Import- substitution stage	Export starting stage	Export expansion stage	Maturing stage, reimport stage	
		(1)	(11)	(111)	(IV)	(V)	
Cotton yarns	1968		Indonesia	Philippines, Thailand, Malaysia			
	1977			Philippines Indonesia	Malaysia Thailand		
Cotton fabrics	1968		Philippines, Indonesia	Thailand Malaysia			
	1977			Indonesia Philippines Malaysia	Thailand		
Man-made yarns	1968		Indonesia Philippines Thailand	Malaysia			
	1977			Indonesia Philippines Malaysia	Thailand		
Man-made fabrics	1968		Philippines Indonesia Malaysia Thailand				
	1977			(Philippines) Malaysia Indonesia	Thailand		
Man-made fibre	1968	Thailand Malaysia Indonesia Philippines				<u> </u>	
	1977		Philippines	Th <i>a</i> iland Malaysia Indonesia			

Table l.	Stages of	development	of	the	textile	industry	sector

in ASEAN countries

Source Compartive Advantage of Manufacturing Industries in Asian Countries. Institute of Development Economics, Tokyo, 1982.

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ASEAN where the model is best illustrated. One should notice that the maturing stage does not always imply a decrease in exports.

The model, on the other hand, hardly applies to garment manufacturing. Four of the ASEAN countries are characterized by large rural populations; the ratio of urbanization is 20 per cent in Indonesia, 15 per cent in Thailand, 30 per cent in Malaysia and 37 per cent in Philippines. Most of the garments consumed are still either home-made or tailor-made; the market for ready-to-wear garments is growing rapidly, but remains relatively small. In some of the ASEAN countries a relatively large garment manufacturing sector has been established, which was export-oriented at its initial stage. In some cases the growth of the garment industry was partly at the expense of cottage industries, a fact that may lead to an overestimation of the growth potential of the industry and in domestic market projections.

The nature of the priority status of the textiles industry sector in the ASEAN countries has changed over time, from an import substituting sector to an export-oriented one. This change illustrates the shift in industrial policy in most of the countries. Being a labour intensive industry and a potential foreign exchange earner, the textiles and garment industry was receiving priority, and the ASEAN industries were trying to follow in the footsteps of East Asian exporters. As rapid wage increases would erode some of the competitiveness of exports from these latter countries, ASEAN textile exports could progressively grow.

ASEAN as a group has now emerged as a substantial exporter. Its export growth has been rapid, especially in clothing; its combined textile production capacity of over 5 million spindles and 180,000 looms puts it into the rank of large textile producers. Total ASEAN total exports reached US \$2.4 billion in 1983, and US \$2.85 billion (est.) in 1984.

However, the ASEAN exports are now growing in an international context quite different from the one which earlier surrounded the exceptional growth of the East Asian textile producers. The ASEAN exporters are facing new threats:

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- global recession which affects foreign markets as well as the domestic market;
- protectionist policies; (As a result of its emergence as a substantial exporter ASEAN has been engaged in trade diplomacies – e.g. discussion of quotas and, lately, of countervailing duties in USA);
- on the supply side
  - the emergence of new producers in countries where wages are significantly lower, either inside ASEAN (rapid growth of Indonesia in 1983 and 1984) or outside (e.g. China and Sri Lanka);
  - the introduction of more rational processes, particularly micro processor based technologies which are likely to have a significant impact on the international location of production and on employment in the years to come.
- (b) ASEAN countries' trade in textiles and textile products volume and structure

The ASEAN countries' textile and textile products exports have increased rapidly during the last decade, US \$1.6 billion in 1978, US \$2 billion in 1983 and close to US \$3 billion in 1984 (see also Table 2). However, it should be stressed that ASEAN as a whole is not a 'textile power' by Asian standards. In 1982 exports from the ASEAN countries were less than half the textile

	Annual growth (%)
1978/79	27.0
1979/80	7.5
1980/81	10.2
1981/82	3.0
1982/83 (prel.)	8.5
1983/84 (est.)	17.0

Table 2. Growth of ASEAN textile exports, 1978-84

Source: 1978-83: National trade statistics. 1984: Estimates secured from textile manufacturers associations

(per cent, on basis of current values)

<sup>-</sup> on the demand side

exports from the Republic of Korea; and the ASEAN countries' combined textile trade is less than 5 per cent of total world trade in textiles.

This moderate fize has been an asset for the ASEAN countries as newcomers in the world textile market. ASEAN countries, such as Thailand and Indonesia, have enjoyed a better treatment in terms of quotas and protectionistic measures than more established textile exporters. However, the rapid export increase in the last two years have brought some changes; e.g. Indonesia was imposed quotas. Recently ASEAN export firms have been subject to an inquiry from the US Department of Commerce to measure the rate of subsidization of their export sales; this could lead to the introduction of countervailing duties on ASEAN textiles imports in the United States.<sup>1</sup>/

Tables 3, 4, 5 shows the textile exports and imports figures for total ASEAN and for each of the countries from 1978 to 1984 in million of current US dollars as well as cumulative balance of trade for each subsector. Imports and exports are aggregated in two digit SITC classification, namely, 26 fibres, 65 yarn and fabrics, and 84 clothing.

Singapore's entrepot trade is rather important. The Singapore exports of fibres, and a large proportion of its exports of fabrics are re-exports. An substantial part of its garment imports are sold to foreign tourists and should be considered as re-exports.

The first point one should stress regarding the ASEAN overall textiles balance of trade is that, taken together, the ASEAN countries have in the past been characterized by a trade deficit. Up to 1984 the textile sector was not a net foreign exchange earner for the ASEAN countries taken together. However, according to most estimates the upsurge in exports in 1984 has

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<sup>1/</sup> E.g. it was recently announced that, pressed by their Government, Malaysian textiles manufacturers have accepted a "suspension agreement" with the US authorities as the price for continuing sales to that country. The suspension agreement, signed on 1.3.1985, requires the textiles manufacturers to refuse further export benefits which would involve countervailing-duty action. These would include central bank pre- and post-shipment refinancing, tax deductions of some costs and various export allowances. In return, the US has undertaken not to impose countervailing duties (Far Eastern Economic Review, 21.3.85).

		(0,	о ф ШТТ 1					
		1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983 <u>a</u> /	<u> 1984</u> – /
SITC 26	Fibres							
	Indonesia	163	203	291	305	299	149	150
	Malaysia	74	67	85	96	82	85	85
	Philippines	101	112	106	113	106	110	110
	Singapore	52	57	77	0	46	42	53
	Thailand	155	162	148	142	127	183	227
	ASEAN	54	601	707	656	660	569	625
	Cotton							
	Indonesia	118	129	170	182	172		
	Malaysia	47	48	48	51	47		
	Philippines	43	33	42	33	19		
	Singapore	0	34	0	0	0		
	Thailand	<u>99</u>	134	124	<u>157</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>148</u>	<u>183</u>
	ASEAN	307	378	384	423	338		
	Minus cotton							
	Indonesia	45	74	121	123	127		
	Malaysia	27	19	37	45	35		
	Philippines	58	79	64	80	87		
	Singapore	56	23	77	0	46		
	Thailand	<u>56</u>	<u>28</u>	24	<u>-15</u>	27	35	<u>44</u>
	ASEAN	238	223	323	233	322		
SITC 65	Yarn and fab	rics						
	Indonesia	183	246	216	250	203	255	255
	Malaysia	171	187	294	301	286	305	315
	Philippines	208	241	285	342	309	340	350
	Singapore	648	746	878	934	894	954	956
	Thailand	48	<u>95</u>	<u>139</u>	<u>145</u>	127	155	261
	ASEAN	1,250	1,485	1,814	1,972	1,819	2,009	2,077
	ASEAN excl.	Singapore 610	739	936	1,038	925	1,055	1,121
<u>SITC 84</u>	Clothing	-					•	•
	Indonesia	5	3	3	11	4	9	9
	Malaysia	20	18	34	40	42	40	40
	Philippines	3	2	3	3	3	3	3
	Singapore	118	110	144	203	252	274	276
	Thailand	4	$1 - \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$2^{\frac{2}{2}}$	$2^{2}$	$22 \frac{2}{2}$
	ASEAN	150	134	185	258	303	328	330
Total in	ports of text	iles						•
and text	ile products							
(SITC 26	+65+84)	253	( 00	610	544	507	(12	111
	Indonesia	351	422	512	200	200	413	414
	Malaysia	265	212	413	431	4 IU 7 1 9	430	440
	Philippines	312	222	394	400	418	433	403
	Singapore	818	913	1,099	1,13/	1,192	1,470	1,400
	Inailand	$\frac{207}{053}$	2 200	2 200	200	220	2 005	3 022
	ASLAN	1,953	2,220	2,700	2,000	2,/02	2,900	,032

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Table 3. ASEAN countries' imports of textiles and textile products, 1978-1984 (US \$ million)

Source:As for Table 2.a/Prel. figures fob/Estimates. Prel. figures for Malaysia, Philippines.

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		1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983 <u>a</u> /	1984 <u>ь</u> /
SITC	26 Fibres							
	Indonesia	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
	Malaysia	6	99	36	21	17	15	15
	Philippines	18	30	32	26	32	35	40
	Singapore							
	(incl. re-exports)	27	28	31	23	19	24	32
	Singapore (domestic							
	exports only)	n.a.	n.a.	0	0	0	2	1
	Thailand	3	4	20	13	27	12	9
	ASEAN (Singapore							-
	domestic exports only)			88	61	77	65	66
SITC	65 Yarn and fabrics							
	Indonesia	6	52	46	36	44	120	150
	Malaysia	99	119	135	140	150	165	175
	Philippines	43	55	74	68	60	70	70
	Singapore							
	(incl. re-exports)	280	364	368	342	350	376	370
	Singapore (domestic							
	exports only)	n.a.	n.a.	149	224	101	80	35
	Thailand	2 70	255	228	235	273	220	271
	ASEAN (Singapore							
	domestic exports only)			632	711	628	655	701
SITC	84 Clothing							
	Indonesia	15	66	98	95	116	157	340
	Malaysia	106	134	46	163	173	215	240
	Philippines	300	372	500	578	549	566	580
	Singapore							
	(incl. re-exports)	311	377	424	460	455	466	500
	Singapore (domestic							
	exports only)	n.a.	n.a.	362	392	367	355	405
	Thailand	183	165	<u>241</u>	<u>303</u>	321	<u>368</u>	<u>507</u>
	ASEAN (Singapore							
_	domestic exports only)			1,247	1,531	1,527	1,661	2,082
<u>Tota</u>	l_exports of textiles							
and	textile products							
(SIT)	26+65+84)							
	Indonesia	21	118	144	132	161	278	501
	Malaysia	211	352	217	332	341	395	430
	Philippines	361	457	606	672	641	671	690
	Singapore						• · · ·	
	(incl. re-exports)	618	/69	823	825	824	866	902
	Singapore (domestic			<b>.</b>		-		
	exports only)	n.a.	n.a.	511	616	468	437	441
	Inaliand	400	424	489	<u>551</u>	<u>621</u>	600	707
	ASEAN (Singapore			1 0 4 7	0 0 0 0		• • • • •	0.04.5
	aomestic exports only)			1,967	2,303	2,232	2,381	2,849

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Table 4. ASEAN countries' exports of textiles and textile products, 1978-1984 (US \$ million)

Source: As for Table 2.

a/ Preliminary figures for Malaysia, Philippines.

b/ Estimates.

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		1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983 <u>a</u> ,	/ 1984 <u>b</u> /
SITC	26 Fibres							
	Indonesia	-163	-203	-291	-304	-298	-148	-149
	Malaysia	-69	32	-49	-75	-65	-70	-70
	Philippines	-83	-82	-74	-87	-74	-75	-70
	Singapore							
	(excl. re-exports)	n.a.	n.a.	-77	0	-46	-40	-52
	Thailand	-152	-158	-128	-129	-100	-171	-218
	ASEAN			-619	-595	-583	-504	-559
SITC	65 Yarn and fabrics							
	Indonesia	-177	-164	-172	-2 14	-159	-135	-105
	Malaysia	-72	-68	-159	-153	-136	-140	-140
	Philippines	-165	-186	-211	-2 74	-249	-2 70	-280
	Singapore							
	(excl. re-exports)	n.a.	n.a.	-729	-710	-793	-874	-921
	Thailand	222	160	89	90	146	65	70
	ASEAN			$-1, 1\overline{82}$	$-1, 2\overline{61}$	$-1, \overline{191}$	-1,354 -	-1,376
SITC	84 Clothing			-	-	-		-
	Indonesia	10	63	95	84	112	148	341
	Malaysia	86	116	12	123	132	175	200
	Philippines	297	370	498	576	546	563	577
	Singapore							
	(excl. re-exports)	n.a.	n.a.	218	189	115	81	129
	Thailand	179	164	240	302	319	366	505
	ASEAN			1,062	1, 274	1, 224	1,333	1,752
0ve r	all balance of textile	es		,	,	,	•	,
trad	e (SITC 26+65+84)	<del>~~~</del>						
	Indonesia	-330	-304	-368	-434	-346	-135	87
	Malaysia	-55	80	-196	-105	-69	-35	-10
	Philippines	49	102	213	215	223	218	227
	Singapore							
	(excl. re-exports)	n.a.	n.a.	-588	-521	-724	-833	-844
	Thailand	249	166	201	263	365	260	357
	ASEAN			-739	-582	-550	-525	-183

Table 5. ASEAN countries' balance of textile trade, 1978-1984 (US \$ million)

Source: As for Table 2.

 $\underline{a}$ / Preliminary figures for Malaysia, Philippines.  $\underline{b}$ / Estimates.

accelerated the trend which was clearly perceptible before, and a textiles trade surplus may soon be achieved. If one excludes Singapore, ASEAN textiles trade was in surplus from 1982 onwards. However, if one add were to deficit related to the textile machinery imports as well as the trade deficit in dyestuff, the overall textile related trade (fibre, textiles and textile products, machinery and dyestuff) would remain in deficit.

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Due to its entrepot trade, and the tourist shopping, Singapore's textile trade is negative. Also Malaysia, in spite its important textile exports, and Indonesia where most of the industries serve the home market have negative textile trade balance. According to some estimates, however, the strong Indonesian export increase in 1984 could have changed the status of the textile industry to a foreign exchange earner. In Theiland and in the Philippines the textile trade balance has been traditionally in surplus.

Every one of the ASEAN countries has to face a deficit in fibre trade (SITC 26). Total fibre imports amounted to US \$660 million in 1982. Table 3 offers a breakdown of fibre imports in, cotton and other fibres, mainly man-made fibres. Each of the ASEAN countries is a net importer of cotton and, generally, also in man-made fibres. However, as shall be seen, the countries are making steady progress towards self-sufficiency. Natural constraints limit cotton growing to some countries, while the development of synthetic fibre industry has offered additional opportunities for import substitution; unfortunately this has led to higher costs and additional constraints to the industry. This is especially the case in the Philippines. (The Malaysian synthetic fibre industry on the contrary was export-oriented from the start.)

With the exception of Thailand, each ASEAN country is characterized by a deficit in its trade in yarn and fabrics (SITC 65). Textile spinning and weaving is a sharply diminishing activity in Singapore, and this explains the decline in domestic exports of yarn and fabrics from Singapore. The other countries' deficits need, however, additional explanations in view of the local manufacturing activities which exist in both spinning, weaving and knitting, and the export growth in this sector.

In Philippines, the growth of garment exports is occurring on the basis of imported fabrics which are made up in export processing zones, or processed in factories with bonded warehouse facilities. This rapid increase of garment exports, from US \$300 million in 1978 to US \$566 million in 1983 and probably close to US \$600 million in 1984 has made the Philippines the largest ASEAN garment exporter but at the same time the second largest yarn and fabric importer.

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In Indonesia and Thailand, one does not find such structural inbalances between the different textile subsectors; however, the upstream sector encounters some difficulties in meeting the needs of the garment exports sector.

In every country but Singapore the garment imports are negligible. As said above, ready-to-wear goods are about to take off in the domestic market of rural ASEAN economies. While it may be stressed that most of the modern garment industries have been set up to cater for the export market, it should also be pointed out that garment imports to the ASEAN countries, except for Singapore are subject to high import duties with the effect of, limiting their flow to almost a trickle. Total ASEAN clothing imports amounted to US \$300 million (whereof US \$250 into Singapore) in 1982, whereas total ASEAN garment exports were over US \$1.5 billion in 1982, and probably over US \$ 2 billion in 1984.

Table 6 gives a structural overview of the ASEAN countries' textile exports, showing in percentages the relative share of fibres, yarn/fabrics and clothing in their domestic exports.

Clothing (garment) exports represent a growing proportion of total textile exports from the ASEAN countries. It has risen from 55 per cent in 1978, to 68 per cent in 1982 and an estimated 73 per cent in 1984. There are some differences among the individual countries.

Fibre exports are insignificant in most ASEAN countries. There are some natural fibre exports from the Philippines (abacca and ramie) and Thailand (cotton and kenaf) and man-made fibres from Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand. Malaysia and Thailand are the only two countries were yarn and fabrics exports play a significant role.

Textile exports (all categories) from Indonesia have been minimal, although they have increased rapidly in the last two years with both textiles and garment exporters making inroads into the world market.

As mentioned earlier, in Malaysia a large part of the exports are produced in export processing zones; this is not the case in Thailand. The

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	197ð	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983 <u>a</u> /	1984 <u>b</u> /
Percentage of SI	ITC 26 (f	ibres)				0	0
Indonesia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Malaysia	3	28	17	6	5	4	3
Philippines	5	7	5	4	5	5	6
Singapore	4	4	0	0	0	0	0
Thailand	1	1	4	2	4	2	1
ASEAN	3	8	4	3	3	3	2
Percentage of SI	LTC 65 (y	arn and f	abrics)				
Indonesia	29	44	32	27	27	43	30
Malavsia	47	34	62	45	44	42	41
Philippines	12	12	12	10	9	10	10
Singanore	45	47	29	24	22	18	8
Thailand	59	60	47	43	44	37	34
ASEAN	42	40	32	28	28	28	25
Percentage of S	ITC 84 (c	lothing)					
Indonesia	71	56	68	72	72	56	70
Malaysia	50	38	21	49	51	54	56
Philippines	83	81	83	86	86	84	84
Singapore	50	49	71	76	78	81	92
Thailand	40	39	49	55	52	61	64
ASEAN	55	53	63	69	68	70	73

Table 6. Textile trade (exports) structure in ASEAN countries, 1978-64

(in per cent)

Source: As for Table 2. a/Preliminary figures for Malaysia, Philippines. b/Estimates.

trade statistics (see Table 7) show clearly in the case of fabrics the differences between the imports and exports structures in Malaysia and Thailand. One notice in the two countries a large deficit in knitted fabrics. More meaningful conclusions have to be sought at a more disaggregated level. (Thailand is, for example, exporting mainly grey fabrics while it is importing further finished fabrics).

Garment exports are making up close to 80 per cent of the textile exports of Singapore, the Philippines and Indonesia. It may be noted, however, that the ASEAN countries are not necessarily in advantageous position in terms of prices when compared to East Asian economies even when wages are substantially higher in the latter. Table 8 shows unit prices for some selected product categories imported into Japan in 1981 from various countries.

Malaysia, 1982 (millions	of M\$)	
	Imports	Exports
Yarn	76.9	91.9
Fabrics	439	235
Woven, cotton	115	88
Woven, man-made	267	143
Knitteu	57	4
Thailand, January-Septem	ber 1984 (millions of	f baht)
	Imports	Exports
Fibre		
Cotton	3,162	35
Man-made fibre	766	107
Yarn	728	923
Cotton	90	134
Man-made	638	789
Fabrics	2,741	3,767
Woven, cotton	640	1,079
Woven, man made	1,704	2,688
Knitted	397	1

Table 7. Yarn and fabrics trade in Malaysia and Thiland

Source: Malaysia trade statistics and Thai Textile Manufacturers Association (Research Division).

Table 8.	Unit	prices	of	imports	to.	Japan	for	selected	textile	products
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(in terms of CIF prices)											
	Women's girls' and infants' dresses	Skirts	Trousers and shorts	Woven shirts	Knitted shirts	Coats	Jackets				
Indonesia	1,985	1,678	1,425	1,004	2,315	2,165	n.a.				
Malaysia	2,222	1,429	1,773	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.				
Philippines	1,925	1,648	1,726	1,058	648	844	3,387				
Singapore	1,816	819	n.a.	1,170	747	5,495	n.a				
Thailand	1,434	1,102	2,038	644	1,270	2,411	n.a.				
Korea, Rep. of	466	931	750	629	698	3,533	3,096				
China	753	680	683	866	455	1,550	2,775				

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1,611

1,420

2,542

5,189

4,973

734

1,733

3,546

7,169

6,991

694

829

396

1,004

1,433

3,565

2,453

5,705

5,167

1,558

10,787

20,732

18,448

n.a.

n.a.

n.a.

n.a.

8,838

5,724

3,623

8,218

15,221

13,962

1..... 1091

Source: Japan Exports and Imports, Ministry of Finance.

912

915

1,595

4,161

9,556

7,197

1,378

3,887

1,429

5,667

13,256

14,178

Chinese province

of Taiwan

Hong Kong

India

U.S.A

Italy

France

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#### (c) Direction of ASEAN countries' textile trade

Tables 9 and 10 give for 1982 (most recent year for which complete information is available) the direction of the ASEAN countries' textile trade. The tables provide data both in US dollar and in per cent. Table 9, related to the exports of yarn/fabrics and garments, disaggregates exports to other ASEAN countries, MFA countries and non-MFA countries. Table 10, related to the imports of yarn and fabrics, offers another geographical breakdown; it disaggregates the ASEAN countries' imports from their ASEAN partners and from East Asian economies, which play a prominent role in this trade. (Figures concerning Thailand do not fully coincide with data provided in preceding tables, due to discrepancies between statistics published by the Customs Department and Textile Manufacturers Association sources.)

Intra-ASEAN trade in textiles and cextile products is very small. This would seem to be due to various factors, such as differences in tariff structure, lack of information, and the ownership structure in the textile industry in each of the countries. The share of intra-ASEAN trade in the ASEAN countries' total exports of garments is 3 per cent. Intra-ASEAN trade related to yarn and fabrics is somewhat larger in percentage, around 13 per cent (12.5 per cent in the case of the export figures and 13.3 per cent in the case of the import figures); however its total value is only slightly less than twice of that of the intra-ASEAN garments trade since garments play a much bigger role in the ASEAN countries' exports than yarn and fabrics.

Exports from Malaysia and Thailand represent 80 per cent of total intra-ASEAN trade in yarn and fabrics, and Singapore is in both cases the main destination. The trade between Thailand and Singapore represents two thirds of the total intra-ASEAN garments trade. It may be related to Singaporean investment in Thailand garment industry.

As noted earlier exports of garments play a prominent role in textile exports from ASEAN countries; they represent 70 per cent of total exports, whereas yarn and fabrics make up 25 per cent. These two categories follow quite different directions or patterns of trade as illustrated in Table 9.

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Destination											
Esporting countries	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Theiland	Total Asean	BBC	USA	NFA countries	Non MFA countries	Total
<u> 51TC 65 - Ya</u>	rn and fabr	ics									
				(US	\$ million)						
Indonesia	-	0.2	0.0	7.3	0.0	7.5	14.2	2.5	16.7	27.3	44.0
Malaysia	0.8	0.0	7.3	12.7	2.2	23.0	35.3	5.3	40.6	109.8	150.4
Philippines	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0 0	60.0	60.0
Singapore	2.2	10.4	0.8	-	0.6	14.0	24.9	19.0	43.9	57.1	101.0
Theiland	4.2	10.6	0.0	29.4	-	44.2	115.8	50.2	166.0	188.1	354.2
Total ASEAN	7.2	21.2	8.2	49.4	2.8	88.8	190.2	77.0	267.3	142.3	709.6
				(p	ercent)						
Indonesia	-	0.5	0.0	16.6	0.0	17.0	32.3	5.7	38.0	62.0	100.0
Malavsia	0.5	-	4.9	8.5	1.4	15.3	23.5	3.5	27.0	73.0	100.0
Philippines	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
Singapore	2.2	10.3	0.8	-	0.6	13.9	24.6	18.8	43.5	56.5	100.0
Thailand	1.2	3.0	0.0	8.3	+	12.5	32.7	14.2	46.9	53.1	100.0
Total ASEAN	1.0	3.0	1.2	7.0	0.4	12.5	26.8	10.9	37.7	62.3	100.0
<u> 517C 84 - C1</u>	othing (gar	ments)									
				US	<pre>\$ million</pre>						
Indonesia	-	0.0	υ.ο	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.9	58.5	80.4	35.6	116.0
Halaysia	4.1	-	0.0	0.5	1.3	6.0	76.1	57.4	133.5	40.9	174.3
Philippines	0.0	0.6	-	2.0	0.0	2.6	280.0	152.0	432.0	117.0	549.0
Singapore	0.0	2.1	4.9	-	0.0	7.0	92.8	173.7	266.5	103.0	366.8
Thailand	3.0	2.5	0.2	24.6		30.3	73.1	72.3	145.3	176.9	321.3
TOTAL ASEAN	1.2	5.2	5.1	27.1	1.3	45.9	415.9	641.8	1,057.7	469.8	1,527.5
				(p	ercent)						
Indonesia	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	18.9	51.0	69.3	30.7	100.0
Malaysia	2.4		0.0	0.3	0.8	3.4	43.6	32.9	76.6	23.4	100.0
Cailippines	0.0	0.1	-	0.4	0.0	0.5	27.7	50.4	78.7	21.3	100.0
Singapore	0.0	0.6	1.3	-	0.0	1.9	25.3	47.3	72.6	27.4	100.0
Thailand	0.9	0.8	0.1	7.6	-	9.4	22.7	22.5	45.2	54.8	100.0
Total ASEAN	0.5	0.3	0.3	1.8	0 1	3.0	21.2	A2 0	69 2	30.8	100.0

#### Table 9. ASEAN countries' exports of textiles, 1982

Source: As for Table 2.

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						Origin						
Importing countries	Inconesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	7otal ASEAN	Japan	Hong Kong	Chinese province of Taiwan	Republic of Korea	Others	Total
STCI 65 - Ya	rn and fabr	ics										
<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>					US <b>\$</b> milli	on .						
Indonesia		0.4	0.2	2.2	10.5	13.3	75.0	8.5	11.0	23.0	72.2	203.0
Маlаувіа	1.2	0.0	0.7	14.7	8.6	25.2	76.5	34.3	44.6	43.0	62.5	286.1
Philippines	0.0	4.2	-	1.5	0.6	6.3	30.0	75.0	40.0	17.5	140.2	309.0
Singapore	0.0	51.7	2.0	-	34.6	88.3	237.6	90.2	113.7	140.0	268.3	938.0
Thailand	2.2	2.0	0.0	0.6	-	4.8	57.1	17.6	29.6	27.9	22.9	159.9
Total ASEAN	3.4	58.3	2.9	19.0	54.3	137.9	475.2	225.7	238.8	251.4	566.1	1,896.0
-					(percent)							
Indonesia	_	0.2	0.1	1.1	5.2	6.6	36.9	4.2	5.4	11.3	35.6	100.0
Malavsia	0.4	0.0	0.3	5.1	3.0	8.8	26.7	12.0	15.6	15.0	21.8	100.0
Philippines	0.0	1.4	-	0.5	0.2	2.0	9.7	24.3	12.9	5.7	45.4	100.0
Singapore	0.0	5.5	0.2	-	3.7	9.4	25.3	9.6	12.1	14.9	28.6	100.0
Thailand	1.4	1.2	0.0	0.4	-	3.0	35.7	11.0	18.5	17.5	14.3	100.0
Total ASEAN	0.2	3.1	0.2	1.0	2.9	7.3	25.1	11.9	12.6	13.3	29.9	100.0

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## Table 10. ASEAN countries' imports of yarn and fabrics, 1982

Source: As for Table 2.

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Countries of the Multifibre Agreement (MFA) represent the main outlet for ASEAN garment exports; their combined share is 70 per cent. Between ASEAN countries the ratios vary from 45 per cent in Thailand to 78 per cent in Indonesia. Up to now most ASEAN garments exporters have failed to effectively enter large non-MFA markets, such as Japan.

The directions of trade of yarn and fabrics are opposite to those of the garments: Non-MFA countries represent 63 per cent of total ASEAN exports while the MFA countries share is 37 per cent. In the former group the East Asian economics (Japan, Hong Kong, the Chinese province of Taiwan and the Republic of Korea) play a substantial role.

In the case of Malaysia and, to a lesser extent, Indonesia, exports of yarn and fabrics are largely made by multinational companies to countries where they have other operations. The products in question may subsequently be exported to other markets in the world, either as yarn and fabrics or incorporated in clothing.

In Thailand border trade with Burma, Democratic Kampuchea, and Laos has traditionally played an important role for fabrics producers. However, currently this trade has been much reduced.

The yarn and fabrics imports from the East Asian economies represent more than 60 per cent of total ASEAN imports; imports from other ASEAN countries account for 7 per cent and imports from other countries 33 per cent. The East Asian share is close to 50 per cent in Indonesia and the Philippines, and over 80 per cent in Thailan1; in Singapore and Malaysia the ratio is close to 60 per cent. Imports origins of yarn and fabrics highlight the relationship in the textiles field between ASEAN countries and East Asian economies (Japan, Hong Kong, the Chinese province of Taiwan, and the Republic of Korea). Firms from the latter area have played quite an important role in the setting up of ASEAN textile industries, e.g. through foreign investments (subsidiaries, joint ventures), technical expertise, and handling of trade; in some cases the possible use of quota allocations have been a significant factor.

Due to this large share of yarn and fabrics imports from East Asian economies there is a wide textile trade deficit between the ASEAN and the East Asian area.

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The MFA is of great importance for the ASEAN countries' textile trade with industrialized countries' markets. The availability of quotas is an important factor enabling ASEAN textile industry to take full advantage of opportunities for export in these markets. However, one should not overestimate the impact of quotas; a large share of the export items are in fact non-sensitive products.

It has not been possible to have a dissaggregate overview of the proportion of most sensitive MFA import categories in the ASEAN countries' exports to MFA countries. In the case of Malaysia tentative findings indicate that exports of yarn and fabrics in the most sensitive MFA categories represent only 12 per cent of the country's MFA-exports, while the highly sensitive categories of textile products, such as T-shirts, pullovers and blouses, represent a further 28 per cent. This means that 60 per cent of Malaysian exports to MFA countries are not in fact in sensitive MFA categories.

The performance of different countries against available quotas provide an indication whether the ASEAN countries have been able to take advantage of available quotas which offer access to developed country markets. Table 11 gives the ASEAN countries' performances against quotas in EEC. It shows the different levels of concentration in the ASEAN countries. Exports from Malaysia are far more concentrated in the most sensitive MFA groups than are exports from other ASEAN countries, notably the Philippines and Singapore which have a wider range of export products to the EEC market.

An analysis made by the EEC Commission of MFA textiles from ASEAN countries makes possible some comparison between ASEAN countries regarding the EEC market. Table 12 shows the EEC imports of MFA textiles from ASEAN countries between 1978 and 1982 both by value and volume. Imports to EEC from Indonesia and the Philippines have outperformed that of the other ASEAN countries' in terms of average annual growth rate 1978-82 on basis of either value and volume: respectively 32 per cent and 26 per cent for Indonesia, and 28 per cent and 12 per cent for the Philippines. Imports to EEC from Singapore and Malaysia have declined in volume during the period. As will be pointed out later, these performances are somewhat related to the strength of the individual ASEAN country's currency <u>vis-à-vis</u> the European currencies.

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Cotton yarn Cotton fabrics Man-made fabrics T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre yarn	- - - 28 es 64 80 -	64 76 66 57 61 56 81	- - 61 36 69 82	47 48 50 31 70	91 71 74 84 83
Cotton yarn Cotton fabrics Man-made fabrics T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre yarn	- - - 28 28 28 28 28 28 -	- 64 76 57 61 56 81	- - 61 36 69 82	47 48 50 31 70	- 91 71 74 84 83
Cotton fabrics Man-made fabrics T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	- - 28 es 64 80 -	64 76 57 61 56 81	- 61 36 69 82	47 48 50 31 70	91 71 74 84 83
Man-made fabrics T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	- 28 28 es 64 80 -	76 57 61 56 81	- 61 36 69 82	48 50 31 70	71 74 84 83
T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	s – 28 es 64 80	66 57 61 56 81	61 36 69 82	50 31 70	74 84 83
T-shirts; knitted shirt Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	s – 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28	66 57 61 56 81	61 36 69 82	50 31 70	74 84 83
Jerseys; pullovers Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blous Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	28 28 64 80	57 61 56 81	36 69 82	31 70	84 83
Trousers and shorts Woven and knitted blouse Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	28 es 64 80	61 56 81	69 82	70	83
Woven and knitted blouse Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	es 64 80 -	56 81	82		55
Men's woven shirts Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	80 -	81		69	76
Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	-		55	73	41
Towels and towelling Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn	-				
Bed linen Synthetic fibre varn		-	-	-	_
Synthetic fibre varn	-	-	-	-	-
	-	36	-	17	46
Artificial fibre yarn	-	-	-	<del>-</del> ·	-
Velvet and corduroy	-	-	-	-	-
Table and kitchen linen	-	-	-	-	-
Socks	-	-	23	-	44
Knitted underpants	-	-	72	27	-
Woven coats: men	-	-	-	0	-
Woven coats: women	-	-	69	-	-
Woven suits: men	100		_	-	-
Woven jackets: men	12	-	-	-	-
Men's woven pyjamas	-	-	-	-1	-
89. Handkerchiefs	-	16	16	-	-
Anoraks	-	-	61	58	97
25. Knitted pyjamas	-	30	39	4	14
Women's dresses	-	74	73	99.6	74
Women's shirts	-	-	-	44	83
Knitted trousers	-	-	-	42	-
Woven suits: women	-	-	136	42	-
Woven nightwear: women	-	-	-	0	-
Brassieres	-	-	85		-
Knitted track suits	-	-	-		29
Rayon fibre fabric	-	-	-	-	69
Knitted gloves	-	-	-	-	13
Babies knitted outerwear	r –	-	111	-	-
Vairrad animas	-	_	-	0	77
NHILLEG SUIES: WOMEN				₩	
	Socks Knitted underpants Woven coats: men Woven coats: women Woven suits: men Woven jackets: men Men's woven pyjamas 89. Handkerchiefs Anoraks 25. Knitted pyjamas Women's dresses Women's dresses Women's shirts Knitted trousers Woven suits: women Brassieres Knitted track suits Rayon fibre fabric Knitted gloves Babies knitted outerwean Knitted suits: women	Socks-Knitted underpants-Woven coats: men-Woven coats: women-Woven suits: men100Woven jackets: men12Men's woven pyjamas-89. Handkerchiefs-Anoraks-25. Knitted pyjamas-Women's dresses-Women's shirts-Knitted trousers-Woven nightwear: women-Brassieres-Knitted track suits-Rayon fibre fabric-Knitted gloves-Babies knitted outerwear-Knitted suits: women-	Socks-Knitted underpants-Woven coats: men-Woven coats: women-Woven suits: men100Woven jackets: men12Men's woven pyjamas-89. Handkerchiefs-Anoraks-25. Knitted pyjamas-74Women's dresses-74Women's shirts-75. Knitted trousers-76Wowen suits: women-77Woven shirts-7879Woven suits: women-74Wowen fightwear: women-757475767778797475767778797474757677787979797979797979797979-<	Socks23Knitted underpants72Woven coats: men72Woven coats: women69Woven suits: men100-Woven jackets: men12-Men's woven pyjamas89. Handkerchiefs-161616Anoraks25. Knitted pyjamas26. Knitted pyjamas27. Knitted pyjamas28. Handkerchiefs-16161616Anoraks25. Knitted pyjamas-3039Women's dresses-26. Knitted trousers5. Knitted trousers9. Woven nightwear: women9. Brassieres8. Knitted track suits7. Knitted gloves9. Babies knitted outerwear111Knitted suits: women	Socks23-Knitted underpants7227Woven coats: men0Woven coats: women0Woven suits: men100Woven jackets: men12Men's woven pyjamas1616Anoraks6125. Knitted pyjamas26. Knitted pyjamas27. Women's dresses-7428. Women's shirts29. 6Women's shirts-20. 747399.6Woven suits: women27. 7289. Handkerchiefs20. 821. 422. 523. 424. 425. 526. 727. 727. 729. 620. 721. 722. 823. 924. 925. 726. 827. 927. 928. 929. 929. 929. 9-

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# Table 11. ASEAN countries' performance against quotas exports to EEC.15 months licences 1982. Percentage utilization

Source: EEC Commission.

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	1978	1979	1980	1981 <u>a</u> /	1982 <u>a</u> /
Value (million Europea	n				
currency units)					
Indonesia	14.4	21.5	29.9	35.8	44.2
Malavsia	61.8	77.3	79.2	94.4	93.6
Philippines	53.5	98.4	109.7	138.6	144.3
Singapore	86.2	115.0	124.7	136.5	127.2
Thailand	82.3	111.8	130.3	167.6	201.7
Total ASEAN	298.2	424.0	473.8	572.9	611.0
Quantity ('000 tons)					
Indonesia	1.9	3.2	4.3	3.8	4.8
Malaysia	14.0	13.8	12.5	11.9	10.6
Philippines	5.3	9.8	9.5	9.1	8.3
Singapore	11.0	13.8	12.8	10.5	8.9
Thailand	22.2	24.0	23.2	20.6	23.9
Total ASEAN	54.4	64.6	62.3	55.9	56.5

Table 12. EEC imports of MFA textiles from ASEAN countries, 1978-82

a/ Since 1981 - 10 European countries.

Source: EEC Commission.

Table 13 shows the EEC imports from ASEAN countries in Group 1, most sensitive products, and other groups. On average, the ASEAN countries have had better performances in the case of Group 1 products.

	• G	roup I	All other groups			
	Quota	Utili	zed	Quota	Utilized	
	(tons)	(tons)	(%)	(tons)	(tons)	(%)
Indonesia	3,480	1,685	48	-	-	-
Malaysia	12,057	8,282	69	4,740	1,586	33
Philippines	5,401	3,177	59	4,521	2,269	50
Singapore	11,979	6,789	57	4,047	1,008	25
Thailand	18,690	13,581	73	6.929	4.226	61
Total ASEAN	51,607	33,514		20,237	9,089	
Weighted average			65		-	45

Table 13. EEC imports from ASEAN countries - 15 months licences 1982

Source: EEC Commission.

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#### III. THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN ASEAN COUNTRIES

## (a) The role of the textile industry in the ASEAN countries<sup>1</sup> manufacturing and exports

The importance textile of the industry in each of the ASEAN countries may be measured by its relative share in employment, value added and manufacturing exports.

Table 14 shows the textile and clothing industry's share of manufacturing employment and value added in the ASEAN countries. From the table it can be seen that textile and garment production account for quite an important proportion of manufacturing employment and value added in Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines; Singapore and Malaysia record significantly smaller shares.

	Contribution to manu- Contribution to m facturing valued added facturing employm (MVA)			
	(pe	er cent)		
Indonesia	11.4	25		
Malaysia	5.4	13.3		
Philippines	9.2	33.4 (1980)		
Singapore ·	3.5	12.7		
Thailand (1983)	25.3	19.7 (1981)		

Table 14. Contribution to MVA and manufacturing employment of the textiles and garment industry in ASEAN countries, 1982

Sources: Indonesia: Biro Pusat Statistik 1983. Malaysia: Manufacturing Census 1981. Philippines: Statistical Yearbook 1983. Singapore: Manufacturing Census 1983 Thailand: NESDB, Thai Textile Manufacturers Association.

Tables 15 and 16 show the average annual growth rate of textiles and garment industry value added and employment, with reference to overall manufacturing growth, from 1970 to 1980 and 1980 to 1982. The textile industry has been a highly dynamic one in the 70s in most of the ASEAN countries; its growth has been larger than average manufacturing growth. Figures from 1980/82, when available, show the impact of world recession and domestic recession on the industry. In the case of Singapore the rapid increase in wages starting 1979 has strongly affected the textile industry.

## Table 15. Average annual growth rate of value added in ASEAN countries, 1970-80, 1980-82

+ <u></u>		Indonesia	Malaysia Ph	ilippines	Singapore	Thailand
Textiles	1970/80	11.8 )		4.2	13	14.5
	1980/82	n.a. )	12 (1970/80)	1.9	-9	n.a.
Garments	1970/80	n.a. )	-2.6 (1980/8	2) 8.5	20	17.2
	1980/82	n.a. )		9.5	6.9	n.a.
Total man	ufacturing					
	1970/80	11.8	11.4	6.9	11.2	10.4
	1980/82	n.a.	4.4	2.8	1.8	n.a.

(per cent, on basis of constant prices)

Source: As for Table 14.

Table 16. Annual growth rate of employment in ASEAN countries, 1970-80

		Indones	ia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
Textiles	1970/80	n.a.	)		10.4	3.6	10
Garments	1970/80	n.a.	)	10.4	17.8	10.5	8.3
Total man	ufacturing 1970/80	n.a.		9.7	9.9	8.6	8.3

Source: As for Table 14.

The total number of persons engaged in textiles and garment industries in the ASEAN countries is around 950,000 (Table 17) with 60 per cent in garments and 40 per cent in textiles production. This total employment figure is roughly equal to that of the Republic of Korea where one million persons, 30 per cent of the country's total manufacturing workforce, are engaged in textile industry. The statistics fail, however, to give an acurate picture of the true importance of textile employment in the ASEAN countries. In many of the countries there exists a sizable unorganized sector, and production of textiles is one of this sector's most important activities. This is  $es_{P}$  ially the case in Indonesia where employment in cottage textile industries was recorded to be 293,000 in 1979 (see Table 18) or in Thailand were a very large number of small weaving units are not registered. The

	Indonesia (1982)	Malaysia (1981)	Philippines (1982)	Singapore (1983)	Thailand (1980)	ASEAN					
Textile (spinning) (weaving) (others)	196 (86.5) (108.5)	40	140	6.5	144 (45) (46) (53)	426.5					
Garment	65.5	25	207	28.5	199	525.0					
Total	261.5	65.0	347	35.0	343	951.5					

Table 17. Employment in textiles and garment industries in ASEAN countries

Source: As for Table 14.

	Employment (1000)	Value added (billions Rp)
Large and medium-scale firms	227	72
Small firms	91	6
Cottage industries	293	7

Table	18.	Employment	and	value	added	in	the	textile
		industry	in T	ndones	ia. 19	79		

Source: Biro Pusat Statistik 1980.

unorganized textile sector consists of home weaving, tailoring and garment making. In some countries the informal sector is undertaking subcontracting activities for the 'modern' sector. This is especially the case in the Philippines where export-oriented garment industries are "farming out" parts of their production to household units where parts of garments are sewn together and then sent back to the garment export firm for quality control and final expedition. According to some estimates between 100,000 and 400,000 persons are engaged on a part time basis in these "farming out" activities in the Philippines (while the garment industry itself employs about 200,000 persons). Total employment related to textile industry is probably around 1.5 million in all ASEAN countries if the informal sector is included.

Textiles and textile products represent 4 per cent of total ASEAN exports, and 15.2 per cent of ASEAN manufactured exports (see Table 19). The share of textiles and garments in total manufactured exports is relatively small in Malaysia, where over 50 per cent of manufactured exports consist of integrated circuits, and Singapore; the highest shares are found in the Philippines and Thailand.

I	ndonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	ASEAN
Total exports						<b>67 7 0 0</b>
(US \$ million)	18,000	13,600	5,000	14,700	6,400	57,700
Total manufacturing						
exports (US \$ million)	1,300	4,100	2,400	5,000	1,900	15,200
Exports of textiles (US \$ million)	120	165	70	80	220	655
Exports of garments (US \$ million)	157	215	566	355	368	1,661
Share of textiles in tota exports (%)	al 0.6	1.2	1.4	0.5	3.4	1.1
Share of garments in tota exports (%)	al 0.8	1.5	11.3	2.4	5.7	2.8
Share of textiles in tota manufacturing exports (	al (%) 9.2	4.0	2.9	1.6	11.5	4.3
Share of garments in tota manufacturing exports (	al (%) 12.1	5.2	23.5	7.1	19.3	10.9

Table 19. Share of exports of textiles and textile products in total exports of ASEAN countries, 1983

#### Source: National trade statistics.

In promoting garment exports the ASEAN countries generally can rely to various degrees on the comparative advantage they have in labour intensive activities. Table 20 and 21 give an indication of labour costs in various

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countries in textiles and garments industry. In general, it can be said that the textile industry offers the lowest wages among other manufacturing activities. Except in Singapore and Malaysia, direct wages are almost equal to labour costs.

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
Local currency	1,100 Rp.	11 M\$	62 pesos	13 S\$	70 Baht
US \$ per day	1.0	4.8	3.0	6.4	2.7
US \$ per hour	0.12	0.6	0.37	0.8	0.34

Table 20. Daily and hourly wages for unskilled labour in ASEAN countries, 1984

Source: National textile manufacturers associations.

	Indonesia	China	Hong Kong	Republic of Korea	Thailand
Direct (local currencies)	202	0.48	11.03	980	11.8
Total costs (local currencies)	) 224	0.53	12.8	1,506	12.8
Total costs (US \$/hour)	0.22	0.26	1.65	1.89	0.56

Table 21. Labour costs per hour in textile industry in Asia, 1984

Source: Werner International.

According to Singaporean statistics average labour costs per hour in Singapore are US \$1.6, and thus very close to those in Hong Kong (given in Table 21). The increase of labour costs in Singapore between 1978 and 1982 in the textiles and clothing sectors has been approximately 66 per cent for the whole period.

Exchange rate fluctuations have had a substantial impact on costs in the Philippines and also in Thailand and Indonesia. Werner International's report in 1981 gave labour costs in Indonesia at US \$0.63, three times more than in 1984, while in Thailand on the contrary the 1984 figures given by Werner International were (before the November 1984 devaluation there) 70 per cent higher than labour costs measured in 1981 (US \$0.34). Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines appear to be in an intermediate position in regard to wages, between the Asian NICs on the one hand and China and Indonesia on the other.

While considering the relative importance of textile exports in total manufacturing exports from the ASEAN countries, one should not forget that, with the exception of garments, foreign markets play a relatively minor role compared with local textile demand in most ASEAN countries. Economic figures measuring production, exports and domestic consumption are not readily available for each country. One has to rely on different sets of data to gauge the relative importance of exports and domestic demand for each of the countries. An effort in this respect has been made and is shown in Table 22.

Table 22. Domestic demand as a share of total textiles and textile products production in ASEAN countries, 1983

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
Textiles	97		94	57	
(Yarn) (Fabrics)					95 77
Clothing Textiles and clothing	(10) <u>90</u>	<u>65</u>	n.a. <u>n.a.</u>	30 35	(60) <u>78</u>

() tentative estimates.

<u>Sources:</u> <u>Indonesia</u>: Computed from datas in values from the trade statistics and industrial census statistics.

Malaysia: Malaysian Textile Manufacturers Association estimates.

<u>Philippines</u>: Textiles: computed by volume from production and export statistics. Garments: computed from data in values from the trade statistics and from value added data of industrial statistics.

Singapore: In values from industrial statistics.

Thailand: Yarn and fabrics: Textile Manufacturers Association, computed by volume. Garments: This estimate includes the production also of the small and medium industries which are not registered as promoted firms by the Board of Investment. The export ratio of promoted firms is around 90 per cent. As said earlier the textile industry started as an import substitution industry in the ASEAN countries and has been slowly shifting to an export oriented industry. This is clearly the case in Thailand where domestic demand used to absorb more than 90 per cent of yarn and fabrics in the early 1970s. Currently, production for domestic demand represents 95 per cent of man-made yarn, and 77 per cent of fabrics (84 per cent of cotton fabrics and 72 per cent of man-made fabrics). For textiles and garments together the share of exports was 22 per cent of total output in 1982.

In the Philippines textile production remains domestic-oriented; measured in terms of volume the exports either direct or indirect (sales to the garment exporters), account for less than 10 per cent of total production.

Indonesian production is mainly aimed at the domestic market; exports accounted for less than 3 per cent of total textile production in 1982. However, the exports are increasing rapidly, while domestic demand is stagnant.

In Malaysia, the Malaysian Textile Manufacturers Association has estimated that exports represent 35 per cent of total production. In Singapore domestic demand represents, respectively, 57 per cent and 30 per cent of textiles and garment sales.

The figures probably reflect an underestimation of the importance of external demand, since they treat the demand of fabrics by garment exporters as domestic demand, and not as 'indirect export'. However, this correction would not alter fundamentally the assessment that can be made regarding the overall domestic market orientation of the textiles industry in the ASEAN countries.

With the exception of Singapore, the ASEAN countries' textiles industry is not as export-oriented as Hong Hong's, the Republic of Korea's or the Chinese province of Taiwan's where exports represent, respectively, 77 per cent (1978), 50 per cent (1979), and 50 per cent (1981) of total textile output.

In the ASEAN countries the garment industry on the other hand started with an export orientation. In most countries domestic consumption is still

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concentrated in rural areas where people buy fabrics which are either tailor-made or sewn into garments in households. However, there is a growing demand for ready-to-wear products.

As general comment it may be reiterated that estimates of the domestic demand's share of total production should be considered highly tentative in most countries since there is of the indication on cottage industries performances. This notwithstanding it might be said that the ASEAN countries' domestic consumption is relatively low by international standards (Table 23).

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore <u>a</u> /	Thailand
Natural fibre	0.5	0.5	0.7	22.8	2.1
Man made	1.5	4.0	0.7	7.4	1.5
Total	2.0	4.5	1.4	30.2	3.6

Table 23. Per capita textile consumption in ASEAN countries, 1980 (kg)

Source: FAO World Apparel Fibre Consumption Survey 1980. <u>a</u>/ The Singapore figures probably include the domestic sales to tourists.

Growth of textile consumption is closely correlated with income growth, and the elasticity of textile consumption has been around 1.2 in most of the ASEAN countries. Generally, the ASEAN textile industries were confronted with a highly dynamic domestic market in the 1970s. The slowdown of domestic growth, in some countries, the economic recession has resulted in a reduction in textile consumption. In the Philippines, total textile domestic consumption has been reduced by close to 30 per cent in 4 years (1980-1984); the Indonesian consumption is also decreasing.

#### (b) Production facilities in the ASEAN countries

Table 24 shows the development, since the early 1960's of spinning and weaving facilities in the ASEAN countries, and Table 25 shows textile production facilities as of 1984.

The Philippines had been the pioneer among the ASEAN countries from the end of the 1950s to the mid-60s. After 1965, however, the Philippines

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	ASEAN
Spindles ('000)						
1961	120	n.a.	501	n.a.	93	714
1971	482	n.a.	860	160 (1975)	539	1,881
1980	2,160	429	1,013	142	1,320	5,064
1981	2,425	446	1,140	140	1,566	5,719
1984	2,650	450	1,100	70	1,600	5,870
Growth (%)						
1961/71	4.0	n.a.	1.7	n.a.	5.8	2.6
1971/81	5.0	n.a.	1.3	n.a.	2.9	3.0
Share of each						
country 1984 (%	) 45.1	7.7	18.7	1.2	27.3	100.0
Looms						
1961	35,395 (1968	) n.a.	9,400	n.a.	6,900	n.a.
1971	53,000	n.a.	15,000	1,600 (1975)	27,000	n.a.
1984	95,285	8,980	21,000	1,400	64,352 19	1,017
Share of each						
country 1984 (%	) 49.9	4.7	11.0	0.7	33.7	100.0

Table 24. Spinning and weaving equipment in the ASEAN countries, 1961-84

Source: National textile manufacturers associations.

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand
Spindles ('000)	2,650	450	1,100	70	1,600
Open end rotors	10,000	11,900	12,700	n.a.	11,900
Looms	95,285	8,980	21,000	1,400	64.352 a
Knitting	12,000	8,700	1,700	330	33,000
Texturizing	346	70	363	20	317
Garments sewing	12,000	10,000	10,000	15,000	40,500

Table 25. Textile production facilities in ASEAN countries, 1984

Source: As for Table 24.

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a/ Whereof 29,700 automatic and shuttleless looms.

stagnated in spindleage, in contrast to the industry in other ASEAN countries which attained rapid capacity increases, encouraged by Government support through investment promotion and incentives. In terms of growth of installed capacity, Thailand recorded the largest increase in the 1960s, and Indonesia in the 1970s. In terms of absolute numbers, Indonesia is in first position, followed by Thailand, while the Philippines have dropped to the third position among the ASEAN countries followed by Malaysia and Singapore. In terms of number of spindles per 10,000 persons the ASEAN countries, have spindleage between 180 (Indonesia) and 330 (Thailand).

There are in total 191,000 looms installed in the ASEAN countries. However, this number aggregates a wide range of machines, from old automatic looms used in small and medium industry (especially in Indonesia and Thailand) to modern shuttleless looms.

Table 26 shows current production of yarn and fabrics in the ASEAN countries. The Indonesian textiles industry is the biggest producer, with 247,000 tons of yarn in 1982 (293,000 in 1983) and close to 2 billion square metres of fabrics. It is followed by Thailand with, respectively, 182,000 tons of yarn and 1.7 billion square metres of fabrics. The Philippines which suffers from outdated equipment has a production less than half of Thailand's. Malaysia, and Singapore (where textiles production is declining) are the smallest ASEAN producers.

	Indonesia (1982)	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand (1982)
Yarn ('000 tons)	247	56	95	18	182
Cotton	96.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Man-made	130.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Fabrics (million sq.m)	1,708	250	592	40	1,742
Cotton	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	782
Man-made	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	959
Garments (million pieces	) 252	n.a.	n.a	n.a.	206

Table 26.	Textile	production	in	the	ASEAN	countries,	1984
		1					

Source: As for Table 24.

As noted earlier, the Philippines is the largest garment exporter, and probably producer, followed by Thailand and Singapore.

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The structural characteristics of the textile industry can be considered from different angles:

- the ratio of integration looking at the proportion of either spinning and weaving facilities owned by integrated textile firms;
- the ratio of concentration between textile groups;
- the role of foreign firms vis-à-vis domestic firms in textile production.

Table 27 offers some estimates of the integration ratio in the ASEAN countries. Comparable figures were not available from Indonesia. However, it seems that integrated textile mills are far from being as important in Indonesia as they are elsewhere in the ASEAN countries. The integration rate cannot be considered to be either favourable or unfavourable to productivity; one has to consider also the product mix. When integration is coupled with a very large diversity of yarn counts (count measures the thinness of the yarn) it can be counterproductive.

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand
Percentage of spinning	n.a.	55	70	69
Percentage of weaving	n.a.	53	78	68 (35) <u>a</u> /

Table 27. Production share of integrated textile firms in total textile production in ASEAN countries

a/ In Thailand 35 per cent if small and medium weavers are included.

Source: Computed from list of firms given by national textile manufacturers associations.

Besides spinning and weaving other activities such as dyeing, printing and finishing can be either integrated or specialized. No data are available on this. Mowever, it is widely known that in most countries the commissioning of dyeing and finishing is hardly developed. Many firms hesitate to subcontract these activities for fear of loosing trade secrets and competitiveness. The degree of concentration can be assessed by looking at the share of either spinning or weaving capacity owned by the largest firms. Concentration is highest ir Malaysia, where foreign investment is playing a large role, while production capacity is most evenly distributed in the Philippines. The minimum economic size might range between 20,000 and 30,000 spindles. Firms with spindleage lower than this minimum are more frequently found in Malaysia (Table 28).

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand
Spinning capacity owned by:				
first firm '000 spindles	86	92	65	132
(per cent)	(3.2)	(22.3)	(5.4)	(7.9)
first three firms '000 spin	ndles n.a.	127	186	364
(per cent)		(30.8)	(15.5)	(22.6)
first five firms '000 spind	lles	171	286	535
(per cent)		(41.5)	(23.9)	(33.2)
Total '000 spindles	2,600	412	1,198	1,608
(per cent)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)
Weaving capacity owned by:				
first firms looms		1,600	1,870	2,900
(per cent)		(21.3)	(9.5)	(10.9)
first three firms looms		3,600	5,200	8,200
(per cent)		(48.2)	(26.5)	(30.8)
first five firms looms		4,600	8,400	10,100
(per cent)		(61.5)	(43.1)	(37.9)

Table 28. Concentration in the textile industry in ASEAN countries

Source: National textile manufacturers associations.

Data on foreign investment in the textile sector are not available. Foreign investment plays the largest role in Malaysia where 51 per cent of the textile industry equity is owned by foreign investors; in terms of production capacity foreign firms, either subsidiaries or joint ventures, possess respectively, 75 per cent and 40 per cent of spinning and weaving capacities (see Table 29).

In Indonesia joint ventures are rather important; their share of spindleage is around 31 per cent (Table 30), whereas in Thailand it is 25 per cent. No data have been found regarding the Philippines where foreign investment does not play such a large role.

Subsectors	Foreign capital	Malaysian capital	Total paid-up	
	(\$'000)	(\$'000)	(\$'000)	
Spinning, weaving & finishing	293,908	217,396	511,304	
Made-up textile goods	11,120	16,314	27,434	
Knitting mills	31,449	52,787	84,236	
Carpet and rugs	1,947	2,977	4,924	
Cordage rope and twine	3,969	8,247	12,216	
Manufacture of textiles, n.e.	c <b>–</b>	227	227	
Wearing apparel	33,716	50,560	84,276	
Total	376,107	348,508	724,615	

# Table 29. Paid up capital of textile companies in production

in Malaysia, as at 31.12.1982

Source: MIDA.

	Number o	f companies	Capac	ity
	Integrated	Non-integrated	Spindles	Percentage
Government	2	12	493,292	20.51
Semi-government	3	-	90,728	3.77
Private national	12	20	1,036,264	43.10
Co-operatives	1	1	85,824	3.57
Joint ventures:				
Japan-Indonesia	9	5	282,480	11.75
Hong Kong-Indonesia	5	2	141,582	5.85
India-Indonesia	4	8	274,352	11.41
Total	36	48	2,404,522	100.00

Table 30. Structure of spinning companies in Indonesia

Source: PT Data Consult. Industrial and Commercial News, 17 October 1983.

Foreign investment has played an important role in the development of the modern Thai textile industry. Since the active promotion of industrial investment in the 1960s, many foreign textile companies have come to invest in Thailand, mostly as joint ventures with Thai businessmen. Japan has been the most important foreign investing country. Most of the large integrated firms in the Thai textile industry at present are joint ventures with Japanese investment.

#### IV. PRINCIPAL CONSTRAINTS

#### (a) Restructuring the ASEAN textile industry

In each of the ASEAN countries, industrial restructuring is a living issue in the textile industry sector. National programmes aim to overcome different sets of constraints which characterize each of the countries' textile industry.

Singapore introduced a wide-ranging industrial strategy in 1979, through which higher wages (the New Wage Policy) would act as deterrent to highly labour intensive industries. Textile entrepreneurs were forced or encouraged to upgrade their mills. Lately, the Trade Development Board has declared its intention to make staff training a requisite for companies who would wish to get a higher share in the allocations of annual export quotas. This upgrading process is of primary concern for the garment industry which represents a very large proportion of the textile sector in Singapore.

In the Philippines, the Board of Investments is implementing a textile industry modernization programme for the period 1981-85. This programme gets financial support from the World Bank. It concerns the textile industry (spinning, and weaving), and the highlights of the programme are: (i) rehabilitation of existing facilities, (ii) acquisition of new equipment, and (iii) methods to improve efficiency and promote textile exports, direct and indirect (sales to garment exporters).

In Indonesia, a World Bank study on the textile industry is about to be launched. The study will identify the areas where restructuring actions are needed and help to streamline the industry.

In Thailand and Malaysia, UNIDO is providing assistance to the respective Governments in restructuring the industry (Thailand), and setting medium-term development objectives (Industrial Master Plan in Malaysia).

These programmes highlight the constraints facing the textile industry in each of these countries. These constraints can be divided into two main categories: those which are linked to the evolution of demand, either external and domestic; and those which point to problems on the supply side. However, it is clear that the two sets of constraints are highly related.

### (b) Demand issues

The problems facing the ASEAN countries' textile industry in the world markets, and the issues brought up through protectionist policies are well known; the present study cannot contribute much in this field. However, domestic demand represents in most ASEAN countries the largest outlet for the production, and the evolution of that demand is thus of primary concern for the ASEAN textile industry.

#### (i) Domestic demand

As has been noted earlier, the textile industry first developed as an import substitution industry in ASEAN countries. This was clearly the case in Indonesia where exports of either textiles or garments used to be minimal, and also in the Philippines (spinning, and weaving). However, even in a country such as Thailand where textile exports (yarn, fabrics and garments) are very important, the growth of domestic demand (through import substitution and domestic demand increase) played a crucial role in sustaining textile growth during the late 1970s (Table 31).

	1975-1978			1978-1980		
	Domestic demand	Import substitution	Export expansion	Domestic demand s	: Import substitution	Export expansion
Textile and clothing	66	3	31	74.5	10.5	15
(Total manufacturing)	79.5	-8	28	144	-14	70

Table 31.	Thailand:	Sources	of	growth	of	manufacturing	output,	1975-80
		(% contr	ibu	ition to	) i	ncrease)		

Source:

Thailand Industrial Sector, background paper prepared by IFCT for the World Bank (1982).

As was pointed out earlier, domestic consumption of textile products in the ASEAN countries has always been most important even if it remains limited by international standards. Textile producers which got used to supply fast growing markets, have now to face a slowdown of their domestic markets. Most ASEAN economies are still growing at a fast pace by world standards. However the GNP growth rate has been reduced and austerity measures (reduction of oudget deficit, limitation on wages) have been introduced in most of the countries. The rate of income growth has declined, and so has the demand for textiles and garment products. According to industry sources, the domestic markets are saturated, notwithstanding the fact that domestic consumption is low by international standards.

The decline of domestic demand has been one of the major problems in Indonesia, the Philippines and (compunded with difficulties in the border trade) in Thailand. In Malaysia, the relatively limited size of the domestic market is a clearly felt constraint for national producers. It has greatly affected those firms that are unable to shift easily from domestic to export markets.

The Philippines economy is in its fifth year of economic recession. This has led to a significant decline in disposable income per capita, and domestic consumption of textile products has fallen markedly since 1979 from 3 kg per capita equivalent fibre to 1.9 kg (see Table 32). Textile production has

Year	Consumption fibre equivalent	Personal disposable income	Population
	(million kg)	(million pesos) <u>a</u> /	(million)
	•		
1972	92.2	96.6	38.8
1973	97.0	102.7	39.8
1974	90.7	106.8	40.8
1975	99.0	112.9	41.9
1976	96.8	120.7	42.9
1977	114.4	127.6	44.0
1978	136.7	131.7	45.2
1979	139.9	138.5	46.3
1980	108.4	141.4	48.1
1981	105.6	144.3	49.5
1982	103.1	146.7	50.7
1983	100.3	150.3	52.0

Table 32. Demand for textiles in the Philippines, 1972-83

a/ At constant 1978 prices.

Source: Data provided by the Board of Investments, Manila.

traditionally been oriented towards the domestic market and comprised mainly fabrics for making up, with ready-to-wear garments forming a small but growing segment of the market. There is also significant clandestine imports in some parts of the archipelago. Informal estimates put the level of such imports at 25 per cent of the market.

In the case of Indonesia, according to a study made at the Institute for Research and Development of Textile Industries, Bandung, the per capita consumption increased from 1 kg to close to 1.4 kg of equivalent fibres between 1965 and 1974. From 1975 to 1982 textile production steadily kept increasing at 13.5 per cent a year on average, while domestic demand only grew at 4.3 per cent yearly. It is estimated that current production is about 35 per cent greater than total domestic demand. In the past four years 660 million metres of cloth have remained unsold, close to 30 per cent of one year's output. The slowdown which has affected the Indonesian economy since 1982 has had a deep impact on the domestic textiles demand. The effects of this imbalance between supply and demand are not yet measured by the statistics; the number of establishments in the textile industry decreased between 1981 and 1982 from 2,051 to 1,991, and this decline was mainly due to the closure of weaving establishments (from 1,938 to 995). This trend has continued in 1983 and 1984. The industry is thus currently undergoing a restructuring process which is, however, not closely monitored. The closure of industrial establishments, in particular in the Bandung area, is hastening the processes of industrial concentration. Some old units with outdated equipment have closed down, others have shifted a major part of their activities to subcontracting. The industries which are affected by the crisis are the ones that cannot shift their sales from the domestic market to the export market. The industries which produce better quality fabrics and have some knowledge of international markets are not significantly hit by the crisis, and, on the contrary, many of them are investing to upgrade their equipment in order to succeed on the foreign markets, either directly or indirectly by selling to garment exporters.

In Thailand, domestic consumption increased rapidly in the 1960s and 1970s and it now represents 3 kg of fibre equivalent per capita. This increase has been related to the economic growth of Thailand with an average per capita GNP growth rate of 8.4 per cent in the 1960s and 7.2 per cent in

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the 1970s. Domestic market expansion, however, slowed down from 1979. This has been compounded by sharply reduced border trade. Thailand's textile industry has traditionally been supported by the demand structure of some 100 million consumers who live on either in Thailand or in surrounding nations such as Laos, Democratic Kampuchea, Burma, northern Peninsular Malaysia and also the Yunnan province of China. In the late 1970s the textile industry output was divided between 30 per cent overseas exports, 20 per cent border trade and 50 per cent Thai domestic consumption. The decline of domestic consumption and the border trade is not the only demand problem affecting the industry. There is also a qualitative imbalance between supply and demand. As in most ASEAN countries, domestic demand was earlier mainly for fabrics, which were either home-sewn or tailor-made into garments; ready-to-wear consumption was limited to the urban areas, whereas the largest share of total population is living in rural areas. According to industry sources there is now throughout the country an increasing demand for ready-to-wear garments, specially by the younger generations. This trend affects the Thai (as well as other ASEAN countries') textile industry in several ways;

- Many of the textile mills had earlier no marketing worries. The mills had been set up by wholesalers, who went on selling the production through their old channels. They did not make much efforts regarding the quality of the fabrics they produceed for the domestic market and they enjoyed for many years the benefits of a "seller's market". They now have problems to meet the new consumers requirements, and, in some cases, clandestine imports of better quality fabrics or of extremely low priced fabrics are competing with the domestic products.
- Most textile mills used to produce and sell large quantities of the same fabrics. The ready-to-wear development will lead them to more diversification in their product mix: in quality, design and raw material. In Indonesia, for example, the growing demand for 'fancy' fabrics is offering larger opportunities to continuous filament producers, whereas the firms specializing in cotton and polyester-cotton blended yarns face a downturn in their sales.

Projections of domestic demand are available in only two countries while most of them have ambitious objectives for their exports. In Thailand the NESDB has projected a textile (fabrics) domestic demand growth of 7.3 per cent/per annum up to 1987 (which means a per capita annual increase of 5 per cent), whereas fabrics exports were supposed to grow at 14 per cent/per annum.

In Indonesia projections made for Repelita IV call for an annual growth rate of 7 per cent for textile production, sustained by a 4 per cent annual

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growth rate of domestic demand and 33 per cent annual growth rate of exports. Exports of fabrics are supposed to play a significant role in 1987, representing 22 per cent total production, instead of 6 per cent in 1983. In the medium-term, business circles envisage limited domestic demand growth, and new investments are geared towards exports (either fabrics or garments).

(ii) Export markets

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Like others textile producers in the developing world the ASEAN countries are confronted with the consequences of world recession and growing protectionism. Unlike some other Asian economies, most ASEAN countries are relatively new producers in the world market.

The problems of external markets, and access to these markets have already been much studied. Suffice here to say that the ASEAN countries' export growth have been hampered by the evolution of external demand. The export growth responding to external demand was significant in the late 1970s, it decreased in the early 1980s. The US recovery offered new opportunites of growth in 1983 and 1984. However, this growth will probably be reduced in the coming years.

Although the importance of quotas should not be overemphasized - some of them have not been met, and markets outside the quotas, such as Japan, have hardly been tapped - it should be noted that many industries in countries being relative latecomers, like the ASEAN countries, cannot easily switch between quota and non-quota items, and have difficulties to anticipate which items will be affected in the future. The threat of quotas can be a most serious deterrent for would-be exporters.

Among the ASEAN countries with ambitious export objectives, are the Philippines and Indonesia which both have targetted in the medium-term export sales of US \$1.2 billion of textile products. In the case of the Philippines these objectives, represent a multiplication of current exports by nearly two and a half times within the next five years in a difficult international environment. In this context, the Philippines have also emphasized indirect exports objectives, namely fabrics sales to the country's garments exporters.

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Heavy reliance an external export channels is a problem which affects most of the ASEAN countries. This is specially important now that export diversification is an objective. In most cases ASEAN textile firms are producing and exporting in a responsive manner to the requirements of the importers. There are only a few exceptions to this pattern. This also partly explains the import dependence on fabrics that characterizes the garments industry in most ASEAN countries.

In Indonesia, according to the Jakarta Jetro office, Japanese joint ventures accounted for 28 per cent of Indonesia's textile exports in 1983, and industry sources say that as much as 80 per cent of all textile exports are using the channels of Japanese trading houses. Textile fabrics and garments are also exported under counter-trade agreement schemes.

In Thailand, the largest textile exporter is the Saha Union group (60 million square yards in 1983) which is also a large trading house. Other exporters, such as Japanese joint ventures, are relying on Japanese <u>sogo-soshas</u>. Most garments exports are made under a subcontracting arrangement with the foreign buyer which is also the ultimate seller.

In Malaysia's spinning and weaving sector most foreign-owned firms have external marketing resources, usually controlled by their parent companies who decide on marketing policies. Only a few larger locally-owned firms with an export orientation have some marketing capability, whereas the smaller companies tend to act in a wholly responsive manner. In the garments sector the buyer specifies the features of the product, that is, the design and the brand name, the materials and the packaging. Most of the Malaysian companies act solely as production units.

The relative strength of individual ASEAN currencies may either help or hinder export growth (see Figure 1). The Singapore dollar and the Malaysian ringgit have been very strong currencies, these two currencies even appreciated against the US dollar in the 1970s. Other ASEAN currencies depreciated against the US dollar in the 1970s, and this trend has been accelerating during the last two years, after the devaluation of the Indonesian rupiah (in 1983) and of the Thai Baht (in 1984), and three successive devaluations of the Philippines peso. It is noteworthy that the

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currencies of the major East Asian competitors have also declined vis-à-vis the US dollar.

The performance of the ASEAN countries' exports in the European market should be seen in relation to their currency behaviour <u>vis-à-vis</u> the European currencies. Malaysian and Singaporean exports have encountered less problems in the Federal Republic of Germany than in France. In the future the probable strength of the Singapore dollar and of the Malaysian ringgit will be added factors affecting negatively the exports from these two countries, whereas Philippines and Indonesian exports may benefit from the relative weakness of their currencies.

There is no question that such exchange rate changes have a profound impact on the relative competitiveness of the industries in the different ASEAN countries. However, one has to remember that some of the countries import the fabrics they then process into garments, and this has a counter effect on individual competitiveness. Indeed, in some cases the real impact of exchange rates on export competitiveness remains to be seen. Some conclusions may be drawn from Table 33 which records the growth of textile and textile products imported in the USA in 1982 and 1983.

Country of origin	1982	1983	Changes (%)
Indonesia	42,042	84,151	+95.9
Malaysia	37,348	49,064	+31.3
Philippines	170,872	190,905	+11.7
Singapore	104,445	103,086	-1.3
Thailand	116,636	121,773	+4.4
China	670,580	785,516	+17.1
Republic of Korea	763,950	975,389	+27.7
Hong Kong	842,657	954,879	+13.3
Chinese province of Taiwan	938,295	1,185,864	+26.4
Total	3,649,077	4,450,627	+21.9

Table 33. USA's imports of textiles and textile products from east and southeast Asia, 1982-1983

(US **\$** '000)

Source: International Trade Administration Office of Textiles and Apparel, USA.

#### (c) Supply issues

Import dependence is one of the main problem affecting the industry on the supply side, it is related to questions of productivity. New development in textile technology are a possible threat for ASEAN countries which are also on the other hand facing growing competition from lower wage countries.

#### (i) Import dependence

Overall ASEAN textile trade was in deficit during the 1970s and up to the early 1980s. Maintaining a trade surplus in that sector in the years to come will necessitate further import substitution.

As seen earlier (Table 5) the fibre deficit (SITC 26) has not grown significantly in the past years. Cotton is a traditional crop in Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines. Cotton growing has been encouraged and promoted by the respective Governments. Other natural fibres are also produced, e.g. amie in the Philippines and Indonesia, and silk in Thailand and the Philippines.

#### Table 34. Cotton ratio of self-sufficency, 1984

Thailand	58
Indonesia (1982)	14
Philippines	20

Source: National textile manufcturers associations.

Although use of man-made fibres has shown a significant upward trend in the past years, the ASEAN countries' man-made fibre capacities do not as yet fully meet the requirements of the area's textile industry (see Tables 35 and 36). In the near future the basic material for polyester staple will be produced in Indonesia; the planned capacity has been reduced from 225,000 to 150,000 tons. Singapore has no synthetic fibre production.

Due to the limited size of the market (= economy of scale), the man-made fibre industry in the ASEAN countries is not always fully competitive, and

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Tons/year	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand
Polyester filament	60,600		9,000	24,000
Polyester staple	75,550	33,960	19,500	65,000
Neylon filament	11,800	-	-	18,000
Acrylic rayon staple	34,500			·18,000

Table 35. Man-made fibre production facilities in the ASEAN countries, 1983

Source: As for Table 34.

## Table 36. Production, imports and exports of man-made fibres

in the ASEAN countries, 1983

('000 tons)

	Production	Installed capacity	Imports	Exports
Indonesia				
Polyester staple	59	75)		
Polyester filament	51	61)	18	
Nylon filament	11	5	20	
Rayon staple	34	3	8	
Total	155	175	46	
Malaysia			—	
Polyester staple filament			1	
Polyester staple	34		2	22
Nylon filament			1	
Acrylic			5	
Rayon staple			2	
Total	34		11	22
Philippines				_
Polyester staple	19		2	
Filament	9		13	
Nylon filament	n.a.			
Acrylic				
Ravon staple			20	
Total	28		35	
Thailand			<u> </u>	
Polvester staple	54	86		8
Nylon filament	17			_
Ravon staple	11		6	
Total	<u>95</u>	23	14	

Sources: As for Table 34.

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higher than international prices for man-made fibres is an additional problem in some ASEAN countries, notably the Philippines (see Table 37).

Table 37. Price of polyester short staple

Indonesia	0.80 US \$/1b
Malaysia	0.60-0.70 US \$/1b
Philippines	2.60 US \$/1b
Thailand	1.02 US \$/1b
Chinese province of Taiwan	0.65 US \$71b

Source: Cotton outlook, 1984 (various issues).

The ASEAN countries' textile trade show a deficit in yarn and fabrics, mainly as further indicated below as result of the activities of the garment exporters working out of EPZs and bonded warehouses. In Singapore, specially, textiles production has even been declining. However, the garments manufacturers have an easy access to a wide choice of fabrics produced elsewhere.

In the Philippines, the garment exports have increased from US \$36 million in 1970 to a peak of US \$681 in 1982. (Due to the world recession the figure was lower in 1983 US \$566). This dynamic development reflects the country's wage costs advantage in this highly labour extensive industry; another important factor has been the Government policy of allowing the unrestricted and duty free import of fabrics under bond for making up into clothing for exports. The surge of garment exports went thus along with a corresponding growth of yarn and fabrics imports. To maintain or increase their share in the highly competitive clothing world market, the garment manufacturers need raw materials on internationally competitive terms. The vital elements are price, consistency of quality, delivery performance, and ability to quote a fixed price per contract. So far the domestic textile mills have not be able to comply with these terms. The dependence of the export-oriented garments industry almost entirely on imported fabrics means that the domestic value added is low and that oportunities for indirect exports of domestic fabrics are missed. Imported woven fabrics are preferred to the domestically produced fabrics because the price is lower, the quality is higher and there are fewer problems in obtaining orders in small quantities. The main obstacle to the use of domestic woven fabrics is the price, with domestic fabrics up to 70 per cent more expensive than equivalent

imported fabrics. This difference in price can be illustrated (see Table 38) in the case of the main fabrics used by the export garment makers, namely (i) polyester/cotton woven fabrics (65/35) dyed used for infant wear, blouses, dresses, nightwear lingerie; (ii) denim (100 per cent cotton) used in jeans;

Fabric	Local prices	International prices C.i.f.	Price difference	
P/C woven	19/m	9.81/m	9.19/m	94%
Denim	64/m	42.88/m	21.28/m	58%
Nylon taffeta lining	22/m	9.95/m	12.00/m	110%
P/C yarn for knitting	37/kg	45.60/kg	41.40/kg	90%

Table 38.	Philippines:	Typical	<u>s</u> elling	price	comparisons
		(in peso	s)		

Source: As for Table 32.

(iii) nylon taffeta used in jackets, anoraks; and (iv) polyester/cotton yarn for knitting. Among the principal reasons explaining those differences one can mention:

- The price of local polyester which is currently US \$2.6 per pound instead of US \$0.65 per pound on the international market;
- The lack of specialization of the textile industry which is predominantly vertically integrated;
- The high financial cost incurred by local textile mills.
- The price of electricity and oil which is currently higher than in other countries;

Looking at Malaysia, the trade statistics reveal Malaysia has a trade deficit in the case of fibres as well as yarn and fabrics. There are several reasons for this:

- The most efficient textiles producing companies are located in the free trade zones and have a limited access to the domestic market. They export their fabrics. In the case of the garments manufacturers, their purchases of fabrics are managed by overseas agent, parent company, or the garments buyer himself.

- Sales in the domestic market are characterized by long delays in payments. Interest free trade credit can be expected for periods from nine to twelve months. Since duties are payable on delivery and wage bills and financial charges must be met, the incentive to sell locally is law and firms are more likely to seek foreign buyers which pay promptly.
- Reasons given by garment manufacturers for using imported cloth are lower prices, more reliable quality, greater range and larger width of fabrics.

It may be concluded that in the case of Malaysia there exists significant areas for import substitution linked to the export orientation.

In Thailand, the garments industry is the most successful textile exporter. However, its dependence upon imported fabrics is growing. Between 1982 and 1983 the 15 per cent growth in garment exports coincided with a 40 per cent growth in textile fabrics imports. Between the first nine months of 1983 and 1984 the garment industry experienced a 30 per cent increase of its exports in volume (number of pieces). However, in the same period the imports of fabrics increased over 55 per cent during a time when the country's weaving capacity utilization was only 70 per cent (see Table 39). The reasons for the imports increase are many:

- The garments industry is producing according to the design and specifications of foreign buyers and consequently needs a wide range of styles of fabrics which the local textile mills find difficult to produce on short notice. Sometimes the importers even specify in the L/C the origin of the fabrics. (There are on the other hand cases where the technical capacity of the Thai textile industry has shown to be up to the requirements; e.g. a well as known American shirt maker relies exclusively on Thai fabrics);
- The reliance upon imported fabrics can also be explained by the delay which are experienced in order to obtain the duty rebate. Garment exporters can either buy duty free imported fabrics, or buy local fabrics and apply for a tax rebate equivalent to the import duty.

In Indonesia, the textile export growth is a recent phenomenon; before 1984 Indonesia was not a significant exporter. Things are, however, changing rapidly, and Indonesia is now affected by quotas. By and large garment exports are concentrated in the low quality spectrum by international standards. One should notice that the Indonesian export growth has not lead to a similar growth in imported fabrics. One of the largest private domestic companies engaged in exporting blue jeans has reported that, while in the

	1979	1980	1982	1984
Man-made fibre	88	91	80	n.a
Yarn	90	94	80	n.a
Fabrics: weaving	85	90	75	70
knitting	60	59	n.a.	n.a
Garments	63	76	90	90

Table 39. Thailand: Capacity utilization in textile industry 1979-1984 (per cent)

Source: Thai Textile Manufacturers Association.

beginning all the raw material and accessories had to be imported, now blue denim of reasonable quality is obtainable domestically and so are most of the accessories (sewing thread, sewing needles, zippers, buttons, etc.). It is, however, difficult to assess whether the country's textile industry would be able to produce in significant quality and quantity for a much larger garments export sector. Nevertheless, according to industry sources most of the upcoming investment in either spinning and weaving are linked to the envisaged export drive. The country's export processing zones do not play a significant role in that process.

#### (ii) Structural imbalances

The textile industry in the ASEAN countries is experiencing a situation of imbalance between supply and demand (see preceding pages), and in some cases this is worsened by other imbalances of structural nature.

Imbalance between spinning and weaving is a characteristic of the Indonesian textile industry. According to the Association of Textile Industries, there is a current imbalance between large spinning capcity on one hand, and limited weaving and knitting capacity on the other. In the late 1960s, the imbalance was between a small spinning sector and a large weaving sector. The surge in investment in spinning during the 1970s has led to this new imbalance. According to the Bandung Textile Institute the spinning sector can produce 2.5 billion meters of weaving and knitting yarn, whereas the weaving sector can process 1.8 billion. There are, however, contradictory opinions on that matter within the industry, and in the absence of an in-depth study in its difficult to conclude on the matter.

In Thailand, the textile industry can be divided into two main categories of firms: modern integrated mills, and small and medium weaving mills located in the area of Bangkok. The importance of this later activity is expressed by the number of plants and the equipment installed: 250 plants and 28,000 looms. These plants are among the worst hit by the current depression in respect of both the domestic and the border trade market. It may be expected that many of the plants will have to close down, should they not find the means to upgrade their weaving capacity.

Imbalance between weaving and finishing is, according to industry sources, another significant feature of Thailand's textile industry in so far as dyeing, printing and finishing are main bottlenecks. Dyeing of staple fibre is a sector which should be upgraded, nothwithstanding that the dyestuffs are imported. The weakness in this field partly explains why a large part of fabrics exports consists of grey fabrics. Another factor is of course that these fabrics are not affected by fashion changes and it is thus easier to make long-term planning at plant level.

One of the weak points, generally, of the ASEAN countries' textile industry seems to be the dyeing and finishing subsectors. This is partly due to the industrial organization in these countries; too much integration is a deterrent factor to subcontracting arrangements. Commissioning dyeing and finishing is a rare activity in the ASEAN countries.

In the Philippines' textile industry, in particular, there is an imbalance between product diversification and specialization. Lack of specialization, absence of competition pressure and obsolete machinery have contributed to poor performances of that industry in that country. Most of the firms show very low profitability. Lack of specialization in particular has had negative affects on the industry's over all productivity. Average per spindle productivity of the specialized firms are 35 per cent higher than that of the integrated mills.

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Most Philippine mills tend to produce fabrics within a limited weight range with width governed by the types of looms installed, and the number of styles in each mill is not large considering the number of looms in use. If all other production factors were satisfactory, this degree of variety would not prevent an efficient weaving performance. However, because the mills are vertically integrated, the range of yarns consumed in the weaving departments is invariably produced by the spinning departments of the same mill. The range of yarn counts is often wide, leading to poor spinning performance and poor quality yarn which, in turn, causes poor weaving performance. It is not uncommon to find one mill using counts 4s to 36s, or another with counts 10s to 45s.

## (iii) <u>Production</u> costs

(a) Energy.

Textile industry is typically considered as a labour intensive industry. However in ASEAN countries many firms are noting that a main characteristic is that it has become an energy intensive industry. The ASEAN countries' textile manufacturers associations state that their electricity charges are very high compared to those of their major competitors. The structure of production costs shows that energy is now as important as labour (see Table 40). At the same time it seems that the ASEAN countries among themselves are more or less on equal footing regarding electricity prices. Moreover, electricity unit prices have been increasing in recent years in Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand.

	(per cent	)	
	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand
Electricity	11.6	14.5	15.3

Table 40. Energy costs as portion of total production costs of fabrics (per cent)

Source: National textile manufacturers associations.

High prices of electricity is a constraint for the ASEAN textile industries which have to face competition of East Asian countries where electricity rates are significantly lower (see Table 41). Subsidizing electricity costs may lead to additional countervailing duties in USA.

Table 41. Electricity charges (US cents per kWh)

Indonesia	7.5
Philippines	7.25
Singapore	7.8
Thailand	7.0
Chinese province of Taiwan	5.0
Source: As for Table 40.	

(b) Wag<u>es</u>.

There exists wide range of wages among the ASEAN countries; the comparative advantage in this respect of some of the countries is being eroded.

As seen earlier (Table 20) daily wages vary from US \$1 in Indonesia to US \$6 in Singapore. In Malaysia where the labour market is very tight and turnover extremely high (up to 100 per cent per year) wages projections assume a 7 per cent growth during the coming years. One can assume that the wages increases in the Malaysian textile industry will be move to about the same level as in Singapore, while in Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand it is probable that wages in textiles are not going to grow that substantially in the near future. This development is likely to widen the wages range between ASEAN countries, foster competition between countries or promote new co-operation.

In the meantime, the ASEAN countries are competing with new textile producers relying on very low wages to promote their exports.

(iv) Labour productivity

Productivity is said to be rather low in the ASEAN countries' textile industry. Average figures can be worked out from available statistics in spinning they give an average of 1 kg of yarn per man hour in Indonesia, 4 kg in the Philippines, 5 kg in Thailand. One has to stress that average figures are rather meaningless in an industry where one can find such a large panel of technologies: from hand looms still used in rural areas to air jet looms. If one looks only at those firms which are affiliated to the different Textile Manufacturers Associations, the average productivity in spinning is 4 kg; this is regardless of the count diversity. As has been noted above, a problem facing the spinning industry (especially in the Philippines and Malaysia) is too little specialization in yarn count. In each of the ASEAN countries one can, however, also find individual firms with labour productivity close to European average.

In Thailand, productivity has been growing steadily during the last ten years. In weaving the achievement of integrated mills of 68,000 thousands pick per man hour is about 71 per cent of the productivity level in France or Italy. However, in the small and medium mills the level of productivity is only 16 per cent of that achieved in the modern plants. The average number of looms per operative is 40 in large scale industries while in small industries it is thought to be 24. In the garment industry the average output per man/year is 2,458 pieces; considering that operatives work 2,300 hours per year, the average time for one piece is 50 minutes (see Table 42).

In the Philippines outdated equipment partly explains the low productivity in the spinning sector. According to industry sources the average man-hour production per spindle is between 4 to 6 kg. These figures give only a crude idea of productivity since one should take into account the count number of the yarn. In one of the most efficient plant visited, productivity was close to 8 kg per month. However, the age of machinery is not the only cause of this low performance. One has to take into account the problems linked with the sector organization (e.g. integration) and work organization. Better organization and manpower development can lead to substantial increase in productivity.

### (v) Machine productivity and economies of scale

From Tables 25 and 26 it can be deducted that the average machine productivity in spinning varies from 90 kg per spindle (Philippines) to 120 kg (Thailand); the low figure for the Philippines is mainly due to the age structure of the spinning industry. In all ASEAN countries but the Philippines, the equipment is quite up-to-date in most of the modern mills.

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	Spinners				Garment workers				
	Yarn production (tons)	No. of production spinners	Output per man/year (kg)	Annual growth of output per man/year (%)	Production (1000 pieces)	No. of garment workers	Output per man/year (pieces)	Annual growth of output per man/year (%)	
1972	79,815	18,770	4,252		340,450	186,350	1,827		
1973	95,248	22,483	4,236	O.38	436,204	232,331	1,878	2.8	
1974	92,607	22,054	4,199	- O . 87	448,976	235,075	1,910	1.7	
1975	107,048	25,366	4,220	0.50	492,074	248,310	1,982	3.8	
1976	119,246	27,460	4,342	2.89	514,841	252,422	2,040	2.9	
1977	152,797	31,365	4,871	12.18	548,024	260,530	2,103	3.1	
1978	163,904	31,584	5,189	6.55	616,386	285,650	2,158	2.6	
1979	181,101	33,355	5,430	4.64	659,353	300,376	2,195	1.7	
1980	181,452	33,021	5,495	1.20	729,950	322,729	2,262	3 . 1	
1981	182,578	33,228	5,495	0	795,927	336,645	2,364	4.5	
1982	181,656	33,246	5,464	-0.56	831,979	347,395	2,395	1.3	
1983	-	-	-	_	894,848	363,984	2,458	2.6	

Table 42. Thailand: Labour productivity of spinners and of garments workers, 1972-83

<u>Source</u>: Thai Textile Manufacturers Association.

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In the Philippines problems arise, as indicated, from the large proportion of aging and badly maintained equipment. As shown in Table 43 36.4 per cent of the spindles and 48 per cent of the looms are more than 25 years old.

	Pre-1950	1951-1960	1960-1975	Post 1976	Total
Spindles	53,600	370,200	523,100	249,800	(100.0)
(per cent)	(5.4)	(31.0)	(43.7)	(20.9)	
	Pre-1960	1960-1970	<u>1970-1981</u>	Total	
Looms	9,454	5,500	4,600	19,564	
(per cent)	(48.3)	(28.1)	(23.6)	(100.0)	

Cable	43.	Philippi	ines: Age	e dis	tribution	of	spindles	and	100ms

In Malaysia, according to a recent survey, the machinery tends in general to be between 7 and 10 years old. Some industries possess very modern up-to-date equipment. One of the key technical issues seems to be the absence of shuttleless looms. For Malaysia to be at par with world average, it would require 700 shuttleless looms. Another problem is the width of the fabrics weaved and finished by much of the industry; using less than optimal equipment these industries are weaving too narrow fabrics. These narrow fabrics (1.2 to 1.5 metre) are exported at a discounted price. Many of the industries are now making efforts to overcome this problem by either widening their looms or buying second hand larger ones.

More than half the Malaysian spinning establishments posses less than 20,000 spindles, a scale often regarded as the minimum economic size. This problem is worsened by the lack of specialization. There is a lack of standardization in the yarn market and most firms go on offering a much too wide range of yarn counts, often from 8's to 60's.

The principal technological breakthroughs in textiles concern open-end spinning and shuttleless looms. These developments have not failed to reach the ASEAN countries as can be seen from the Table 25 which gives the number of rotors installed as far as data are available. There is not a complete coverage of the number of shuttleless looms installed in the ASEAN countries. There seems to be a complete absence of them in Malaysia whereas in the other countries many firms are equipped with shuttleless looms using the conventional rapier system. In Indonesia, according to industry sources, the number of shuttleless looms using either air-jet and water-jet is growing. One estimate gives their number at around 200. However, to be effective these investments require a certain standard of industrial environment (problem of water control, humidity control), and a high quality of yarn. In Thailand some air-jet looms are to be introduced this year.

In the field of garments, the ASEAN exporters rely on the comparative advantage in wage costs. However, new technologies could erode this competitive edge. Technology is now available that combines computerized pattern grading with optional pattern lay out, marker duplication facilities and electronics controlled cutting. This allows the producer to keep the cloth wastage to a minimum, and to wastly enhance labour productivity in an area of highly skilled manual work.

Further progress in electronics would lower the price of automation and make it quite affordable for medium-sized companies in industrialized countries, in the first hand, but also for textile firms in developing countries (where capital costs are usually higher). What might be expected is a gradual process of automation, which in fact does take place in some of the ASEAN countries where domestic garment makers are now investing in computer-aided machines (for designing, pattern grding and layout).

(vi) Training

Whatever is the real average productivity in the ASEAN textile industry, labour training at the operatives and the technician levels is seen as a major objective in each of the countries. Many foreign companies rely on expatriate technicians. Training capacity are underdeveloped in every country but Indones: a, and other ASEAN countries have projects to build up training facilities for its technicians.

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In Malaysia, the very high rate of manpower turnover makes it difficult for the industry to train qualified operatives. Firms face an accute shortage of technical personnel; a situation which is exacerbated by the inadequacy of present training facilities. In the spinning and weaving sector the demand for Malaysian personnel far outstrips supply, and the sector is dependent on expartriate expertise. In 15 firms recently surveyed 71 non-Malaysians were employed. The same survey has estimated at 125 the number of trained technicans needed each year, without taking into account the backlog of insufficient training which presently exists.

In Thailand, there is no specialized textile engineering school and textile technician training centre. The lack of trained professionals for technical and managerial activities in textiles is thought to be a major obstacle for the upgrading of the product mix; specifically, technicians in dyeing and finishing are lacking.

The Textile Industry Division of the Department of Industrial Promotion, Ministry of Industry, is the country's only textile technical institution which has responsibility of promoting the textile industry by means of providing technical training,  $\frac{1}{}$  technical and management consultancy services, quality testing services as well as carrying out research and experiments in textile fields. Due to, e.g. budgetary constraints and difficulties in maintaining a cadre of well qualified technical staff (in competition with the industry), the Division lacks much of the dynamism that is required from a modern training institute.

In the Philippines, the findings of a recent survey on training needs were as follows:

(a) In 18 mills visited, there were very few qualified textile engineers (technologists) - only 6 or 7 - and there was an almost total lack of trained training staff (i.e., training officers required to assist management with the planning, implementation and co-ordination of all programmes in the company's training plan) and of trainers for the training of mechanics and operatives.

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<sup>1/</sup> The Textile Industry Division is giving courses for machine tenders and practical classes to the students of engineering from the local univsersities.

(b) The country has 157 textile plants of significant size (35 spinning, 42 weaving, 19 finishing and 61 sizeable knitting plants). There should be at least one fully quilified technologist in each of the plants other than the knitting-only plants. For these latter, well qualified technicians (machine technicians) may suffice in those plants which specialize in circular, or warp, or flat-bed knitting operations. A fully qualified knitting technologist as plant manager may be desirable in those of the large knitting-only plants which carry out different types of knitting operations. The needs of the industry for technologists and technicians therefore may be around 100 or so fully qualified technologists for spinning, weaving and finishing sectors and 50-60 qualified technicians for the knitting sector.

In Indonesia, there are six private academic schools training textile technicians (Jakarta, Bandung, Tengerang, Yogyakarta, Surabaya and Medan) and, according to industry sources, recruiting qualified technicians is not a problem in most cases. However, firms complain about the high turnover of some of the technicians. At the engineer level 80 persons graduate each year from the Bandung Institute for Research and Development of Textile Industries.

#### (vii) Fashion

The need to upgrade the quality and design of garments exports is strongly felt in the two largest ASEAN garment export countries, the Philippines and Thailand, as well as in Singapore where higher wages make it impossible to compete in low range products.

In every ASEAN country the main bulk of exports has been consisting of classical, steady products not affected by fashion, although it being well recognized that fashion products can provide substantially higher profits to those plants that respond quickly to the demand. Fashion articles have a very short life cycle.

As example of promotional measures in this context may be mentioned that, in Thailand, the Thai Garment Manufacturers Association is organizing in 1985 a "garment for export" design contest in order to discover new talents. In the Philippines the Centre for International Trade Expositions and Missions (CITEM) was established in 1983. CITEM has a programme to promote local ready-to-wear designers through study tours overseas. Singapore has begun to generate enough original design talent to mount exhibitions of its own. However, in 1983 a Singapore mission to the Paris Salon resulted in orders worth US \$3.4 million. In 1984 the level of orders was not that high, although still quite substantial.

The use of natural local fibres for fashion articles is still at the onset. In Philippines the use of ramie for fashion articles is about to begin; however, the ramie production has some problems to limit the coarseness of the fabrics. In Thailand, the unevenness of the silk fabrics is a characteristic influencing (positively as well as negatively) the development of silk in fashion articles.

#### V. OVERALL OBSERVATIONS ON THE ASEAN TEXTILE INDUSTRY

A review of the development of the ASEAN countries' textile industry has shown that it has responded to different successive objectives. Cottage or small-scale industries catering for the domestic market have been supplemented by modern industries promoted for import substitution reasons and, later, priority has been given to exports and the setting up of export-oriented firms.

From an outsider's point of view it seems that the ASEAN countries' textile indutry is made of different layers, each of them being characterized by its technical level and its economic rationale. As it was stated earlier average figures are quite meaningless in such a context: hand looms still in use in distant rural areas co-exist with water-jet looms in foreign joint ventures. The more striking evidence of this type of industrial duality is found in Indonesia but also to a lesser extent in Thailand and Malaysia.

These different industrial layers make it difficult to speak of national competitiveness in the textile industry. Some East Asian joint ventures located in ASEAN countries, and some domestic firms are able to export their fabrics to East Asia or other countries, while at the same time ASEAN garment manufacturers are reluctant to use domestically produced fabrics. Intra-firm trade does explain some of these exports of ASEAN-made fabrics; however, they would not have taken place if the ASEAN industry was not competitive by international standards. In some plants the productivity is evidently very close to the one measured in industrialized countries in either spinning or weaving, whereas on average the performances of the ASEAT industry has been found to be rather low.

In some cases these different industrial layers have some direct relations between each other. Garment exporters in the Philippines are extensively using the 'putting out' system in order to subcontract sewing operations to households. This is hardly the case for every subsector of the industry, and for every country.

One of the main problems facing the garment industry is its trade dependence on fabrics. In many cases the increase in garment exports leads to

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an increase in fabrics imports. This is specially the case in the Philippine where most of the garment exporters are either located in export processing zones or working in bonded ware-houses. It is also the case in Malaysia, where foreign firms are exporting fabrics from export processing zones, when at the same time garment exporters (in the EPZs) are importing fabrics. This is also the case, in a smaller extent in both Indonesia and Thailand. There are many reasons to this import dependency, some are linked to questions of productivity (prices, quality), others to the industrial organization (intra-firms trade), or the marketing organization (the importer will choose the fabrics to be utilized), and finally to administrative reasons (e.g. the time required to get a tax refund on domestically produced input).

Domestic oriented industries, whether cottage or small-scale industries or modern medium-sized, have been used to respond to demand of growing markets consisting of consumers who are not 'quality wise'. In some cases the growth of domestic modern production has been at the expense of cottage industries whose output had earlier not been recorded. These textile producers used to supply fast growing markets have now to face a slowdown in their traditional markets. Although most ASEAN economies are still very dynamic by world standards, they have all felt the impact of world economic recession or slow down. Small scale weavers in Indonesia or in Thailand are among the worst hit by economic slow down in their own countries or in neighbouring countries (border trade has traditionally been very important for Thailand). In the Philippines the decrease of internal consumption has had a dramatic effect on the domestic industry. The impact of recession has been felt more acutely by those firms which were not able to shift easily from the domestic to the foreign markets.

Within this rather deceptive domestic environment some segments of the industry are fareing better than the others. This is particularly the case of the garments manufacturers. Urbanization and changes in living standards are modifying the mode of consumption and, increasingly, people are buying ready-to-wear garments instead of buying fabrics which were either home sewn or tailor made. This trend goes along with a growing demand for fancy fabrics made of man-made yarn, which is not always produced in the countries. In some cases garment producers have also to face the competition of cheap clandestine imports.

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By and large the ASEAN textile industry remains domestic oriented. Domestic demand represents between 60 and 90 per cent of total demand. During the last few years, export growth explains probably an increasing part of total growth. The export orientation has developed rapidly since the late 1970s. and this shift from an import substitution to an export oriented industry might best be assessed at the national macro-level. It does not always reflect the evolution of individual firms, nor the growing competitiveness of large segments of the industry, specially the medium-scale, non-integrated firms. Often the market evolution is, above all, the result of new promoted firms responding to various incentives (utilization of quotas, export processing zones), or the flexibility of foreign jcint ventures which (having invested heavily to cater for the domestic market) were able to export part of their output when the growth of the domestic market slowed down.

As a result of its emergence as a substantial exporter the ASEAN group of countries has found itself engaged in trade diplomacy. As noted earlier, being late-comers on the international scene has both its advantages (in terms of quotas) and its shortcomings (the threat of quotas can be a deterrent to would-be exporters). The slowdown in domestic demand has led some of the ASEAN countries to set ambitious objectives regarding the export markets. As has been stated earlier, the prospects for international trade are somewhat gloomy. The new MFA will not offer larger quotas, and the emergence of new exporters with more negotiation power is a possible threat for ASEAN. Although it is difficult to fully assess the effects of new technology on international competitiveness, it is likely to reduce the developing countries' market share in developed countries. Japan, a market still largely untapped by ASEAN exporters, is making efforts to upgrade its technological capacity for each subsector of textiles so that its industry will be able to win back its domestic market in the 1990s.

One can say that ASEAN countries' textile industry has dealt with successively the easy stages of import substitution and export orientation. To pursue growth in a more difficult environment will require additional efforts, and not only additional incentives. The countries will have to restructure their textile industry sector to be able to overcome new constraints and try to build on linkages between the different layers of the industry.

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#### VI. CONSOLIDATION THROUGH CO-OPERATION

The textile industry in the ASEAN countries is characterized by growth in production and export. The industry constitute a significant part of industrial output and employment in the ASEAN countries. The past rapid development of the industry has been largely based on <u>firstly</u>, the growth of the domestic markets partly due to substitution of ready-made garments to self-made or crafts Import substitution; <u>secondly</u>, attraction of foreign investment coupled with acquisition and distribution capabilities and <u>thirdly</u>, expansion of the export-oriented garment industry, at a production stage with low technical and skill requirements. At the same time, however, the industry shows a relatively low performance in terms of value added and a significant depending on import of essential material and non-material inputs. The industry is under increasing international competitive pressure and restriction in market access. In view of these international development there is a need for the industry for systematic reorganization and technological upgrading.

The ASEAN countries' textiles and clothing industries parts which have been developed along the various lines indicated above there has, however, been little integration of this sector in the region. The various types of textiles and clothing industries in the ASEAN countries show various structural weaknesses:

- With some exceptions (particularly some foreign affiliates), overall competitiveness does not seem to be very high, due to a combination of factors (related to equipment, skills and organization, to lack of specialization, non-availability of some inputs, or lack of technical know-how for some activities, etc.);
- In general the level of value added per unit is rather low, due to the fact that many quality aspects are neglected (product range, non-autonomous product definition, etc.);
- Some activities are insufficiently developed. The garment producers' import dependency for fabrics is very significant. Dying and printing activities are poorly developed.

These defficiencies indicate is that the most of the ASEAN textiles and clothing idustries have not reduced the stage of cohesive production systems. Some parts of the processes are not carried out or are only poorly performed. The textile 'chain' is lacking some essential segments and is showing

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structural disequilibria between production stages. Industries are also heavily dependent on foreign designs of the exported products. Further export expansion would require a systematic alleviation of these structural deficiencies.

The consolidation of the ASEAN countries' textiles and clothing industries thus requires the following actions at the national level:

- The formulation and implementation of policies for product ranges;

- The strengthening of weak links in the textile production 'chain';

Taking account of resource constraints and of increasing competitive pressures, considerable benefits could be achieved through ASEAN co-operation. This co-operation could cover joint approaches for the outlined consideration of the industry and the promotion of trade and linking the various segments through intra-ASEAN trade flows, partly on an intra-industry basis.

## (a) Product policies

In order to 'upgrade' textile and clothing production and increase unit value added, 'product policies' need to be formulated. Actual marketing should be pursued by the individual firms. In a longer-term perspective, however, it would be important to evolve an industry/government programme to develop production capacities towards increasing shares of higher unit values.

The very rapid and far-reaching technological development in developed countries has drastically widened the gap between the modern, capital-intensive industry and the traditional industry. Except for yarns, grey fabric and local specialities such as Thai silk, batik etc, the technological gap seems already too wide to close in a foreseable future. In the case of clothing the scope for ASEAN producers is different. In the medium-term, the garment industry would seem to continue to have major prospects on the basis of cheap labour inputs and the continuously increasing efficiency in international transports and communications. These communication will facilitate production co-operation with producers overseas. The establishment of integrated information/communication networks

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via satellite will strengthen the scope of such manufacturing in which even full cutting and production instructions could be transmitted and checked by remote control. Such arrangements would, however, require that the production organization of the garment units in ASEAN countries be modelled in accordance with the most modern process technology.

Some of the key endeavours to be pursued by ASEAN countries would need to go along the following lines:

- Specialization. On the basis of traditions, culture, consumption patterns, etc., it should be possible to 'develop' and promote regional specialities for the ASEAN countries.
- (2) Product images and collections. These would be built up on the basis of the specialization programmes.
- (3) Development of design capabilities. This would be a precondition for (2) above. The development of these capabilities is a complex undertaking which would require a set of complementary functions and capacities.
- (4) Market research. Parallel to the above, extensive and systematic market research in international markets is required.
- (5) Distribution. The organization of export promotion and sales is required in order to reduce the current dependency on existing distribution channels.

Whereas these endeavours would be largely pursued on the national level, there would seem to be considerable scope for ASEAN co-operation in terms of information exchange, pooling of resources and joint marketing efforts.

One immediate approach for some countries (e.g. Thailand) might be to give increased attention to pure cotton fabrics in particular for the European market. Also cotton and cotton blended yarns and grey fabrics are on expanded market in Europe. Household goods, mainly bedspreads are the articles in the group of finished products, that also show an increasing demand. Fashion trends in household textiles are changing more slowly than other finished goods like printed fabrics for garments.

(b) Strenghtening the textile production 'chain'

The textile industry in the ASEAN countries shows various structural weaknesses in respect of the organization of production. Thus, training

facilities seem to be developed both in Thailand and Malaysia. The textile research institutions which should be supporting the companies with technological upgrading of products and processes seem to be insufficiently linked with industry. Between the spinning sector and the weaving sector there seems to be insufficient organization of linkages due to the fact that the spinning sector is generally dominated by modern integrated firms whereas the weaving sector is composed mainly of a large number of small- and medium-scale firms catering for the local markets.

In respect of the dyeing and printing processes, most countries show significant deficiencies. Commission dyeing is hardly developed. This segment of activities of the industry requires more know-how and specialized expertise than most other processes. In all ASEAN countries significant inputs to the textile production system are imported. These imports represent significant total values, in particular dyestuffs and machinery.

Whereas the common problems of the industry seem to be generally less susceptible to immediate co-operation at the regional level and carl primarily to be national efforts, some type of diversion of labour would seem to be feasible in ASEAN countries in the longer term. Such developments would seem to be highly beneficial but require a systematic effort to increase intra-ASEAN trade. The reinforcement of the textile chain would in any case be an area of co-operation between ASEAN countries. What is required is a comprehensive analysis of possibly mutually-supporting actions and their impact.

Specific areas for possible co-operation can be outlined as follows:

#### (c) Co-operation in the field of technical training

Technical training is an expensive activity in the textile industry. It needs complete laboratories and pilot plants which require not only a considerable investment but also involve high running costs.

There is a serious lack of local technicians and engineers especially in Thailand and the Philippines. Engineers are hired abroad, mainly from Hong Kong and the Chinese province of Taiwan. The Philippine Textile Research

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Institute (PTRI) is providing practical classes to engineers of the state university but it seems that most of these students are going to other areas. In Thailand there are no regular courses for textile engineers and the Textile Industry Division of the Ministry of Industry is short staffed, needs to improve its labouratories and pilot plants as well as a full reorganization of its structure. The Institute for Research and Development of Textile Industries in Bandung is the only centre that has an effective training activity. The Institute has 24,000 sq.metres of laboratories, a spinning pilot plant of 8,000 spindles, as well as a number of looms and other equipment.

An intensified co-operation among the ASEAN countires, in the field of training, will benefit all the countries. It may be suggested that:

- The Bandung Institute should be used as a model to organize the textile education at the Philippines Institute so that a complete career in the textile field would be offered within the institute and its laboratories and pilot plants. The students would also be involved in the research programmes;
- Thailand will have to strengthen its institutional set up. Nevertheless it will take some time until decisions are made, plans are set up and action starts. In the meantime, the Bandung Institute could train students from Thailan, and also contribute to the engineers and technologists to reinforce the staff of the Textile Industry Division and fill the needs in the future;
- More co-operation between the respective institutes is suggested in the field of interchanging experiences in specific fields through seminars, conferences and fellowships.

# (d) <u>Co-operation in research and development in utilization of</u> indigenous fibres

Two important areas in raw material utilization would benefit from a closer co-operation among the ASEAN countries and with other tropical countries, namely, silk and ramie. In both cases it would help to build a more specific 'product image'.

## (i) <u>Silk</u>

It is usually thought that world production (around 70,000 ton) will not increase as fast as consumption in the medium term. Japan is the world's

biggest consumer. It is also the biggest producer (25 per cent of world production in 1983), followed by China, the Chinese province of Taiwan and the Republic of Korea. In the future, Japanese consumption is likely to decrease somewhat, whereas other OECD markets would be growing.

There is a growing awareness among the ASEAN countries of the future of silk goods. A common feature is their traditional familiarity with silk and silk products. Thailand is a well known producer, in Indonesia silk weaving and use of silk for batik has been known for centuries, in Malaysia silk is used for head dress and sarong and in the Philippines the traditional costume, barong tagalog is traditionally made of silk. While the potential exists in all these countries, the performances in <u>tropical</u> sericulture vary from one country to the other.

In Thailand there are 4,500 hand looms involved in silk production and total production amounted to 10 million square yards. The warp yarn used in the Thai silk is mostly imported and efforts made to introduce a silk worm capable of producing warp yarn have not been successful.

Indonesia is a net importer of silk, importing three times its local production to feed its highly developed handwoven textile industry. The Government attaches importance to intensified development of silk textiles for rural employment as well as foreign exchange objectives.

The Philippines is producing cocoons but no raw silk. The Philippine Textile Research Institute runs a pilot plant for reeling silk and carries on weaving and finishing tests.

In Malaysia a silk project began in 1980 in Trengannu. It was expected to produce 10 tons of cocoons in 1984.

All the countries suffer from shortcomings arising from lack of technical knowledge and experience, required for adoption of appropriate technology. To overcome these problems the ASEAN countries may wish to consider a programme of co-operation. Such a programme of regional co-operation in silk might cover matters relating to international trade and trends in the industrial markets as well as problems of production. There is a need for research co-ordination between research institutions in the ASEAN countries. Above all, the ASEAN countries can learn from the breakthroughs in the field of sericulture in other tropical countries, such as India or Brazil, and a co-operative programme for that purpose might be initiated.

It should be noted that some regional co-operation has already been established. ESCAP is regularly organizing regional consultative meetings in order to promote co-operation among the silk producing countries. Currently the ESCAP consultantive group is considering setting up of scheme for sharing and dissemination of information among the participating countries.

(ii) Ramie

Ramie is a vegetable fibre quite similar to flax; it is suitable for household table cloth goods as well as garments. Contrary to silk it can be produced in bulk quantities. It can be used both alone and in blend with polyester staple fibre.

Among the ASEAN countries, Indonesia and the Philippines are interested in the production of ramie. The processing of ramie is met in particular with problems to reduce the coarseness of the fibre so that it can be used properly in the clothing industry. In the Philippines ramie production has reached an industrial stage since some years, and more than 2,000 tons of ramie is currently spun by Ramitex. R and D work in ramie processing technology (spinning, fabric construction and finishing) is undertaken by the Philippine Textile Research Institute.

In Indonesia, the Bandung Institute is heavily involved in the research of spinning technology for ramie, but is facing lack of basic information especially in deguming practices and pre-treatment for spinning.

Both countries would probably gain in co-operating either with each other or with a third country, like Brazil, which has a regular production of ramie for garments and is exporting yarn for knitting.

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#### (iii) <u>Testing</u>

Certain co-operation in the area of textiles testing might be of direct interest. E.g. there is no official testing laboratory for coloured yarns in Malaysia and testing for wool mark certificate has to be carried out in Singapore.

# (e) <u>Co-operation in reducing the imbalances between production stages</u> and the import dependence of fabrics

The import dependence for fabrics can only be reduced if competitive domestic production can be increased, which implies the reduction of imbalances between spinning and weaving as well as the strengthening of weaving and the development of dyeing and printing capacities. The last is also required from the standpoint of the necessary 'product policies'.

The main issue here is not necessarily to plan new capacities but to create better conditions (training, research, transfer of technology and know-how, etc.,) for the efficient sevelopment and organization of this production stage and, eventually, to introduce incentives and regional preference systems. This is in itself nothing but the usual approach for import substitution, but in this case the purpose is not only to substitute domestic production for imports, but also to enhance the competitiveness of the user sectors.

# (f) Co-operation in textile machinery and dyestuffs production

#### (i) Textile machinery

The ASEAN textile industry is as a whole a sector with a total of 5.8 million spindles and 190 thousand looms. The sector depends entirely on imports for high technology equipment and to large extent also for some equipment of simple technology suitable for many of the local market segments  $\frac{1}{}$ .

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<sup>1/</sup> Indonesia has the only recorded manufacture of mechanic looms.

Table 44 gives a breakdown of the ASEAN countries' imports of textile machinery for 1982. Total ASEAN imports amounted to US \$273 million. The relative share of each ASEAN country is of course related to their relative weight in the ASEAN textile industry, but it might be particularly noted that

- Indonesia accounted for over one half of the total ASEAN imports;

- Thailand's share was 19 per cent;

- The Philippines imported in spite of a relatively large textile sector, not as much as Malaysia and only slightly more than Singapore.

In terms of overall imports structure the main items are parts and accessories, followed by spinning and weaving machines and machines for extruding fibres. As shown in table, in each country's imports structure the share of spare parts and accessories is quite similar to the overall share.

The presented imports figures offer a preliminary assessment of the textile machinery market as a market large enough to justify some initiatives for promotion of production.

There are certain spare parts which are worn out rather quickly and which have been mentioned in the context of ASEAN-wide production: spindle tape, bearings and traveller<sup>1/</sup>. The manufacture of bearings and traveller involves very high technology and, besides, famous brand are well established in the world market. It would be difficult for ASEAN countries to establish a common production for these parts unless in context of international joint ventures. Serious consideration may, however, be given to a spindle tape producing venture (aimed at the older machinery) because its manufacture would not require such a high technology. In weaving, the spare and accessory parts which may be considered for common production include shuttle, reed and picking stick.

In Indonesia the start-up of manufacture of wooden shuttles is presently under consideration. Such shuttles could have a market in the South East Asian region as a whole.

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<sup>1/</sup> See e.g., "ASEAN Industrial Joint Ventures (AIJV) in the private sector", UNIDO/IS.310, 1982.

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Theiland	ASEAN	Indonusia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Theiland	ASEA
			(*000 US \$)						(%)			
Domestic sewing machines	2,737	1,686	٩	3,477	825	8,729	2	6	9	13	2	3
Industrial sewing	4,695	5,247	499	8,920	1,325	20,685	3	18	2	35	2	8
Parts for sewing machines	1,827	3,120	7,359	3,804	8,835	24,945	1	11	34	15	17	9
Muchines for extruding fibre	9,325	1,110	146	10	91	10,683	6	4	1	0	0	4
Machines for processing fibre	14,96/	1,168	270	32	2,354	18,792	10	4	1	0	4	1
Machines for textile spinning	24,778	2,434	3,098	644	9,190	40,144	17	8	14	2	17	15
Weaving machines	30,808	1,167	1,509	1,183	6,432	41,098	21	4	7	5	12	15
Knitting machines	11,398	4,318	1,971	3,024	6,774	27,484	8	15	9	12	13	10
Muchines for lace	314	1,701	1,365	0	3,654	7,034	0	6	6	0	7	3
Machine for felt	595	49	3	35	1	683	0	0	0	0	0	0
Auxillary machines	11,797	481	429	234	5,608	18,550	8	2	2	1	11	7
Parts and accessories	30,679	6,684	4,851	4,427	7,947	54,587	21	23	23	17	15	20
Total	143,920	29,165	21,504	25,790	53,035	273,414	100	100	100	100	100	100
(%)	53	11	8	9	19	100						

Table 44. The ASEAN countries' imports of textile machinery, 1982

Source: National trade statistics.

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Another way to assess the market is to look at the expected machinery demand in the coming years. Considering the market for replacement of old equipment and assuming 15 years as the economic life of the machines, the annual demand for spindles would be 386,000 units per year. Translated into mill capacity this represents an output of  $t_i$  spinning machines per month, a demand large enough to sustain two large manufacturers.

In the weaving operations the plature is even clearer. At least 28,000 looms in Thailand, and a good part of the 15,000 looms in the Philippines, are more than 20 years old. In Indonesia, the equivalent of 60,000 hand looms together with a large number of old mechanic looms, will have to be replaced in the next 5 years. Most of these looms will probably be shifted to automatic looms or will disappear.

This second approach (to project the machinery demand) might, however, lead to an overestimation of future demand since one has to consider the variety of models, and the future trend between rotors and spindles. The first step in this field would be to make, on co-operative basis, a systematic study of both the demand prospects and the technical requirements and capabil; ies.

## (ii) <u>Dyestuffs</u>

The ASEAN countries are importing most of their needs of dyestuffs; total imports were US \$150 million in 1982. The only country having a project in that field is Indonesia, which is also the largest importer. Some co-operative scheme could be devised in promoting production and use of natural dyestuffs, in which field ASEAN countries have certain complementary resource endowments.

It should be pointed out that dyestuff production is a large scale R and D and production process where economies of scle are of overriding importance. Any scheme of industrial co-operation in dyestuff production may in effect imply joint venture or other direct links with an established international producer.

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(g) Information

A prerequisite to any scheme of co-operation between the ASEAN countries is a good knowledge of each others capacities and constraints which seems to be lacking. As one specific example, it might be most useful if a systematic assessment of the impact of energy costs in the textile industry would be made, as energy represents in many cases a very high percentage of total costs, higher than labour.

Bearing in mind the importance of the textile industry in most of the ASEAN countries as a manufacturing activity and an export industry, and the uncertainties concerning its medium-term future (e.g. due to emergence of new exporters and diffusion of new technology), serious consideration should be given to the need for an instrument able to gather information required for policy makers.

There are presently, in each of the ASEAN countries, many Government agencies concerned with the textile industry, each one with specific tasks. Although the regulations issued by each agency tend to be coherent, the informations on which the decisions have to be based are not always readily available and reliable. Moreover, the information that comes from the industry itself, might not be as complete as may be desirable.

To cope with this problem, the closest possible co-operation between the Government agency (or agencies) directly concerned and the industry is required within each country, and a <u>textile industry secretariat</u> or unit might be set up. The institutional framewwork for this might be provided by the respective constituent member of the ASEAN Federation of Textile Industries (AFTEX), namely

- Asasiasi Perekstilan Indonesia
- Malaysian Textile Association
- Philippine Federation of Textile and Garment Industry
- Joint Standing Committee of Singapore Textile Industries
- Thai Textile Manufacturers Association.

The main tasks of such units at national level and, as appropriate, at ASEAN level would be to:

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- monitor technological trends in the textile field and assess their impact and their appropriateness to the respective country's industry. This will help the industry and the policy-makers to keep abreast with changes happening in the world;
- monitor the trade evolution in different markets, with particular emphasis on (i) non-quotas countries, about which knowledge is often lacking among domestic firms in ASEAN countries, and (ii) special items produced in individual ASEAN countries, and appropriate to build an ASEAN product image on;
- compile information of non-confidential nature on individual ASEAN textile production and trade, as well as external inputs required.
- (h) Co-operation in trade

#### (i) External trade with MFA countries

Regarding the trade with the MFA countries, the swapping of quotas among the five ASEAN countries is still a matter of discussions, whether in the form of direct swap, the use of third country quota and exports directly from the country of manufacture. or the use of third country quota for goods to be exported through that third country.

One of the problems facing the different ASEAN countries is that there might not be much room for any swap in respect of 'hot' items, and that very few companies in either of the countries are interested in 'left over' items.

### (ii) External trade with non-MFA countries

As seen earlier, the ASEAN countries have a large textile trade deficit with the developing East Asian economies and with Japan. The ASEAN countries have not been able to really penetrate the Japanese market. Together they account for less than 7 per cent of Japanese imports of yarn and fabrics and less than 2 per cent of clothing imports whereas imports from the developing East Asian economies represent 55 per cent (yarn and fabrics) and 78 per cent (clothing) of all Japanese imports of this products. On the other hand the share of Japanese yarn and fabrics of the total ASEAN imports of yarn and fabrics is 25 per cent. There is clearly an imbalance that ASEAN co-operation could help to alleviate. It could be deduced that currently ASEAN manufacturers are not competitive on this market in terms of price, design and fabric construction. More importantly, however, is the lack of entrepreneurship and salesmanship that is required here. The relationship between entrepreneurs and trading organization is too weak for a region that is dominated by Japanese trading houses and Chinese traders. More emphasis would thus need to be placed on professional marketing. A marketing strategy would involve establishing a strong trademark, a credible price strategy and a convincing product strategy.

To quote one example, the Japanese market of cotton textiles for outer garments is thought to be a promising one for ASEAN exporters according to a recent study published by the ASEAN Centre in Tokyo<sup>1/</sup>. The annual growth rate of that item at the Japanese market is estimated at 10 per cent compared to only 1 per cent for the total consumption of textiles for garment; cotton items accounts for 23 per cent of the total outer garment market. Imports from ASEAN of cotton textiles accounted for 3.3 per cent of total Japanese imports; the largest suppliers are China, USA and the Republic of Korea.

Among the positive factors for the outlook of ASEAN exports to Japan the above-mentioned study cited certain kinds of traditional work on products, such as cotton batik, European style embroideries, Chinese style cut work, calico prints. The negative factors are primarly quality aspects, and specially in textile finishing (failure of multi-colour printing, problems with quality dyeing) and in sewing.

ASEAN textile products have also had difficulties in entering the Australian market. There East Asian imports account for the biggest share (58 per cent), whereas the ASEAN share of total Australian textile imports is around 10 per cent. There is also a need to identify new markets for ASEAN textile products outside industrialized countries, so far little efforts have been done to sell to Africa, Arab countries and Latin America.

## (iii) Intra-ASEAN trade

One market that has been generally neglected by ASEAN textile manufacturers is the market in other ASEAN countries. As seen

1/ ASEAN Centre: Marketing in Japan, outer garments of cotton, Tokyo 1983.

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earlier intra-ASEAN trade accounts for some 13 per cent of total ASEAN exports. This is probably an area where much fruitful co-operation is possible, if approached selectively.

Some ASEAN countries have set very ambitious objectives for their textile exports. This may encounter some difficulties in view of growing competition of lower wages countries (e.g. China), and increased competition from East Asian economies which are still able to underprice ASEAN exports. One of the problems of the ASEAN countries' garments exports is, as has been discussed, the reliance on imported fabrics. The value of fabrics is a major proportion of final costs for the garment producers, and these costs are comparable for manufacture worldwide; for manufacturers relying on lower wages countries as well as for manufacturers implementing micro computer-based technology for garment making.

The supply of fabrics would be a significant area of intra-regional trade, although one that is quite demanding. In view, e.g. of the short time lapse between receipt of order and stipulated date of shipment for garments, or from the point of view of certain quality specifications, it may not always be technically possible to purchase fabrics domestically to meet the requirements of garment exports orders. Textile mills in other ASEAN countries, however, could increasingly be the source of supply (instead of East Asian economies) and mechanisms could be developed in order to encourage intra-ASEAN sourcing of fabric requirements for ASEAN garment exporters. This would be fully in line iwth the efforts of the Philippines and Malaysia, particularly to give high priority to the development of indirect exports, meaning import substitution of fabrics to meet the needs of domestic or foreign (mostly EP2-based) garments exporters. This indirect export policy could thus be a regional objective. However, domestic production would have to meet the price and quality of imported fabrics; domestic purchases should not penalize garments exports. As the situation is at present domestic investors are sometimes reluctant to invest or modernize referring to the saturation of their domestic market. The widening of the market could improve both quality and price of sold fabrics.

One of the major obstacles to the promotion of intra-trade in yarn and fabrics is the difference in tariff structure between the ASEAN countries with

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respect to textile materials, (fibres, yarns, fabrics and garments). The information in following summary table (Table 45) is derived from a 1979 study by NEDA in the Philippines. It clearly shows the wide range of tariff levels in the ASEAN countries. The table shows that textile and textile materials are among those receiving the highest average protection among the various commodity groupings. On average it is 31.4 per cent, whereas total average (for all commodity groupings) was 23.5 per cent. If one exlcudes Singapore, where tariff rates are almost non-existent, the respective averages are 38.5 per cent (textiles), and 29.0 per cent (all commodity groupings).

Table 46 shows the tariff structure for the different textile products:

- the range in duties vary from 0 to 140 per cent (Indonesia) to 0 to 76 per cent (Malaysia) and 0-2.5 per cent (Singapore). Highest range includes cotton and cotton fabrics (BTN 55);
- the mode varies from 0 (Singapore and Malaysia) and 100 (Philippines);
- the weighted average rate varies from 2 per cent (Singapore) to 30 per cent (Malaysia).

Since the publication (in 1979) of this study on tariff structure some of the ASEAN countries, notably the Philippines, have reduced their import duties on yarn and fabrics in order to expose their textile industry to import competition and stimulate improvements in quality and productivity. Import tariff reductions on yarn and fabrics imports from ASEAN members countries could be implemented on a shorter schedule than that for extra regional imports to stimulate intra-regional trade in textiles.

In the medium- and long-term, the promotion of a competitive ASEAN yarn and fabrics industry may be the principal measure to protect the garments exports from growing competition arising from either lower wages countries or more industrialized economies.

Commodity grouping		Ave	rage rate of	duty	Regione	l average	Standard deviation		
	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Thailand	including Singapore	excluding Singapore	including Singapore	excluding Singepore
Totel	31.78	11.25	43.86	1.07	29.27	23.45	29.04	16.68	11.66
Animal products, plants and vegetable products	35.52	9.73	63.73	0.20	41.51	30.30	37.63	28.79	19.24
Prepared food stuff, beverages, tobacco	50.66	13.03	78.92	2.60	45.27	38.07	46.97	29.79	23.39
Mineral products and fuels	15.45	1.99	17.66	2.37	21.77	11.85	14.22	14.37	7.25
Chemicals and chemical product	ts 20.68	7.18	20.82	0.73	25.06	15.78	18.44	16.65	6.73
Artificial resins, plastic materials, rubber products	25.49	21.50	36.39	3.81	41.26	26.44	31.21	18.54	8.01
Pulp, paper, paper board	44.06	10.91	55.51	0	22.52	26.60	33.25	24.86	77.50
Textiles and textile materials	3 40.85	17.44	59.38	2.10	36.29	31.37	38.49	27.51	14.92
Ceramic products and glass	38.19	16.68	47.75	0	34.25	31.79	34.22	23.26	11.23
Base metals and artifical	26.97	8.12	33.72	0.70	32.85	18.80	22.92	19.73	9.39
Machinery, electrical and non-electrical	24.37	9.12	24.62	1.17	20.57	15.67	19.67	15.42	6.30
Transport equipment	15.12	8.50	20.00	3.41	11.80	11.77	13.86	16.02	4.25
Instruments and apparatus	29.93	17.74	25.19	0	29.12	20.40	25.50	18.37	4.82

# Table 45. Comparison of simple average of tariff rates in ASEAN countries, by selected commodity grouping

Source: NEDA.

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				Hange					Hode				Weighted average rate			
BTN		Indo- nesia	Malay- sia	- Philip- pines	Singa- pore	Thei- land	Indo- nesia	Halay- sia	- Philip- pines	Sings- pore	Thai- land	Indo- nesie	Halay- sia	Philip- nesis	Singa- pore	Thai- land
	<u>Textile and textile</u>															
	materials	0140	0-70	10-100	0-25	5-60	10	0	100	0	40	21.2	30.0	26.2	2.1	46.6
50	Silk and waste silk Man made fibres	10~80	0-25	20-70	0	10-60	10;15	0	20	0	10	7.9	14.5	26.2	0	9.4
	(continuous)	080	0-50	30-70	0	20-60	60	15	30	٥	20	12.9	25 🔺	35.0	0	33 1
52	Meislized textiles	20-60	0-25	100	ŏ	30-60	20:60	0:25	100	ŏ	30:60	23.8	2.7	100 0	õ	31 6
53	Wool and other animal hair	10-60	0~35	20-70	ō	30-60	10	2	20:30	õ	30	46.8	0.6	30.8	õ	36.7
54	Flax and ramie	10-60	0-25	20-70	Ō	30-60	10	Ō	50	ō	30	36.5	15.4	33.9	ō	37.3
55	Cotton	0 140	0-60	10-70	0	0-60	10:40	0	70	ò	40	5.8	11.0	30.3	Ō	4.9
56	Han made fibre															
	(discontinuous)	0-80	0-76	10-70	0	20-60	10	0	30	0	20	11.3	29.0	12.4	0	22.6
57	Other vegetable textile															
	materials	10-60	0-25	10-70	0	30-60	40	0	10;30;70	0	30	12.4	17,3	10.6	0	45.3
58	Carpet, lace, embroidery	20-60	25-50	30-100	0	30-60	60	25	100	0	40	55.9	31.4	76.1	0	50.7
59	Wedding rope, costed															
	fabrics	15~56	9-60	10 -100	0	5 - 23	25	60	50	0	30	27.8	29.5	40.4	0	28.6
60	Knitted and crocheted															
	Roods	30-80	25-48	30-100	0-25	30-60	70	25	100	15	60	69.9	39.5	30.9	4.2	55.8
61	Articles of apparel and															
	clothing accessories of															
	textile fabrics other															
	then knitted or crocheted															
	guud	70-120	25 - 30	100	0-25	10-60	60	25	100	15	60	76.6	32.5	100.0	14.8	59.9
62	Other made up textile															
	articles	20-80	ú- 50	100	0	14-60	70	30	100	0	30;60	25.4	32.2	100.0	0	39.8
63	Old clothing, rage	70	0	100	0	20	70	0	100	0	20	70.0	0	100.0	0	20.0

# Table 46. Tariff structure for different textile products in ASEAN countries

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Source: NEDA, 1979.

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