Module 3
Market Access Provisions in the Agreement on Agriculture

Introduction

The primary instrument for multilateral regulation of international agricultural trade relations is the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). A number of the perceived weaknesses of the original GATT Agreements with respect to agriculture trade were addressed in the Agreement on Agriculture, contained in Annex 1 to the 1994 Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization (WTO). The goal of the Agreement on Agriculture (AoA) is to reduce current and future use of trade-distorting policies and move towards freer agricultural markets in accordance with the organizing principles of GATT. Three distinct types of trade distorting policies that impact agricultural markets are addressed in separate provisions of the A0A: restricted market access, export subsidies, and domestic support. This section will highlight the main components of the Market Access Provisions (MAP).

Objective

After completing this module you should understand what the market access provisions (MAP) of the WTO Agreement on Agriculture (AoA) mean for countries involved in global agricultural trade.

Some key concepts to be covered in this section are:

- The purpose of the MAP provisions
- The main elements of the MAP provisions, including binding of tariffs and establishment of tariff equivalents for non-tariff barriers to trade, the establishment and use of tariff-rate-quotas, and the special safeguard provisions of the MAP
- Strategies that some countries have used and are using to reduce the domestic effects of the MAP provisions as much as possible

Section 1 - Tariff Bindings

Objectives

In this section you will learn about

- the specific provisions of the MAP
- restrictions on the application of tariff and non-tariff measures to traded goods
- and, specific reduction commitments made by WTO member countries.

Introduction

The market access provisions of the WTO AoA were developed to reduce tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade. Current market access provisions center on the conversion of non-tariff barriers to tariff equivalents (tariffication) and the subsequent binding of all tariffs.

Specific Provisions of the MAP

The MAP provisions set rules for the conversion of non-tariff barriers to their tariff equivalents, established a binding on agricultural tariffs, provide guaranteed access to markets for exporters through tariff rate quotas, and have special safeguards to protect agricultural industries when world market conditions become exceptionally distorted, for example, due to weather catastrophes (Figure 1).

Figure 1. MAP of the WTO AoA

	Rules	**Liberalization**	**Safeguards**
Market Access	-Convert non-tariff trade measures to tariffs -Establish tariff-rate-quotas -Bind all tariffs	-reduce existing and new tariffs by 36% on average over 6 years -reduce tariffs for each item by at least 15%	-guaranteed access to markets through tariff-rate-quotas -special safeguard measures

Source: "The Uruguay Round Agreement on Agriculture: An Evaluation" IATRC Commissioned Paper Number 9

Countries began by setting a base rate of duty, defined as the average level of protection that was in place during 1986-1988. Base rates of duty set an upper limit on the applied tariff levels in 1995, the first year of AoA implementation. Once a base tariff had been calculated, specific reductions in the level of protection were required as noted in Figure 1.

Non-Tariff Barriers

Non-tariff barriers are non-tax policies, such as quotas, governing commerce specific to each country or region that may be used to restrict trade, most often imports from other countries. According to the AoA, *non-tariff barriers* that must be converted to tariff equivalents include "quantitative import restrictions, variable import levies, minimum import prices, discretionary import licensing, non-tariff measures maintained through state trading enterprises, voluntary export restraints and similar border measures other than ordinary customs duties." It is important that non-tariff barriers to trade are converted to tariff equivalents for transparency in trade rules, which reduce transaction costs for all parties involved.

Bound Tariffs

Bound tariffs are tariffs which a country has agreed not to exceed. For example, the 1995 U.S. bound rate for sugar was set at 91%, and for tropical fruits, the rate was set at 5%. The E.U. rates for sugar and fresh tropical fruits were set at 152% and 5%, respectively (FAO, 2000). Under the MAP, countries agreed to a specific reduction schedule in their bound tariffs over time. *Applied tariff* rates are variable since countries are free to change the tariff level as long as it remains below the bound level.

Tariff Reduction Commitments

Table 1 highlights the scheduled average tariff reductions for developed and developing countries over the implementation period of the AoA. The distinction between developed and developing countries is made as there is general recognition among WTO members that developing countries need a higher level of protection so that their agricultural industries can be allowed to develop while remaining somewhat sheltered from competition from industries in highly developed countries.

Table 1. Scheduled Tariff Rate Reductions for WTO Member Countries

Tariffs	**Developed Countries 6 years: 1995-2000**	**Developing Countries 10 years: 1995-2004**
Average for all agricultural products	-36%	-24%
Minimum reduction per product	-15%	-10%

Conclusion

In this section you have learned about the specific market access provisions of the AoA. Especially important are the restrictions on the application of tariff and non-tariff measures to restrict trade flow. You have also learned how much countries have committed to reduce their already existing tariffs, and why special exemptions have been made for developing countries. In the next few sections, you will learn more about the ways the MAP has been applied.

Anecdote: The WTO Agreement on Agriculture: Market Access

If WalMart were a country, it would rank ahead of Great Britain and Russia in total imports to China!

Widespread consolidation in the grocery industry has had a significant effect on the share of total grocery store sales accounted for by the largest food retailers. Foreign retailers such as France's Carrefour or Holland's Ahold, or the U.S' Walmart are often the driving force behind this rapidly growing phenomenon of supermarket consolidation in the world. The widespread growing and consolidation of supermarkets raises questions about the implications for consumers and for food market suppliers such as grower-shippers, food processors, and wholesalers. Among grocery suppliers the main fear is that fewer but larger buyers could force prices lower for products and services that food retailers purchase. Also, more consolidation implies more barriers to enter markets. Today, retailers are likely to continue consolidating in order to maintain profitability as competition for the consumer food dollar heightens.

Sales Company	Headquarter location	Net grocery sales in 2002 ($ billion)	Number of Countries where they are present	Present in the U.S.
Walmart	U.S	83.14	10	Yes
Ahold	Netherlands	49.78	15	Yes
Carrefour	France	45.34	30	No
Kroger	U.S	43.48	1	Yes
Albertsons	U.S	29.93	1	Yes

Source:

Economic Research Service Agricultural Outlook/August 2000. “Consolidation in Food Retailing: Prospects for Consumers & Grocery Suppliers”. Available at: http://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/agoutlook/aug2000/ao273g.pdf

Cook, Roberta. 2003. Trends in Global Fruit and Vegetable Production, Demand and Emphasis on the United States. Dept. of Ag and Resource Economics UC Davis. October 2003.

Key Terms

Applied tariff - The actual tariff rate applied to imports at a particular time.
Bound Tariff - The maximum tariff rate that a WTO member undertakes to apply. The bound rate provides a ceiling that applied tariffs cannot exceed, except by negotiations with compensation for affected trading partners.
Non-tariff barrier - A non-tax policy an importing country might use to limit inflows of a product – examples include labeling requirements, quality restrictions, licensing requirements or other regulations, or minimum price requirements.
Tariff- A duty (or tax) levied by an importing country on goods transported from another customs area.

Quiz

1. A tariff on a product can increase the price of that product in the importing country. T or F (answer is T)
2. An example of a non-tariff barrier to trade is
    a. A tariff on a good imported to a country
    b. A requirement that a good be labeled with health information
    c. A requirement that a good contain no peanuts
    d. b. and c., but not a.

    (answer is d.)

Section 2 – Tariff-Rate-Quotas

Objectives

In this section you will learn about

- tariff rate quotas and how they are applied under the AoA
- and, the effects of tariff rate quotas on trade.

Introduction

Under the MAP provisions, countries are guaranteed market access for some commodities and conversely, are required to allow minimum levels of imports of many commodities into their markets. Tariff-rate-quotas (TRQs) are the mechanism used to allow a fixed amount of product into the market at a very low tariff rate, but to prohibit flooding of the market by applying a high tariff once the minimum access commitments are met.

Application of TRQs

The market access provisions established minimum access commitments for some commodities. This means countries had to commit to accepting a certain amount of an imported product each year. Imports equal to 3-5 percent of domestic consumption are required under a system of TRQs. Under a TRQ, a specified amount of the commodity is imported with reduced tariffs while a higher (essentially prohibitive) tariff rate is imposed on quantities greater than the quota. Prior to 2001, 36 WTO member countries had established TRQs on a total of 1,370 individual products (FAO, 2000).

Effects of TRQs

It is still uncertain whether TRQs have actually increased access to markets; however, it is clear that not all TRQ amounts are filled in each country. The average quota fill-rates for many agricultural commodities have decreased since implementation of the market access provisions. Between 1995 and 1998, the average fill rate for all products fell from 66 percent to 62 percent (WTO-2, 2002). This means that in 1998, on average, only 62 percent of products that were eligible for exchange under the lower tariff rate were actually traded. Examples of selected average fill rates are given in Table 4 below (FAO, 2000).

Table 4. Simple Average Fill Rates for Selected Product Categories, 1995-1997

	Simple Average Fill-Rate (percent of quota)		
Product Category	**1995**	**1996**	**1997**
Cereals	64	63	43
Sugar and Sugar Products	76	71	55
Dairy Products	64	63	49

Fruits and Vegetables	72	69	46

Source: FAO, 2000

Conclusion

The MAP guarantees access to markets for many commodities. Prior to the AoA, countries were able to place outright bans on products in an effort to protect domestic industries. With the MAP, tariff-rate-quotas are used to allow minimum access to market for many commodities.

Key Terms

Tariff Rate Quotas (TRQs) - minimum access commitments that ensure countries will allow a given quantity of a product into their market at a fixed duty rate. Imports above the quota rate are subject to higher tariffs.

Quiz

1. The TRQ system of the MAP require countries to allow import equal to 3-5 percent of domestic consumption for many commodities.
   T or F (answer T)
2. The average quota fill-rates for many agricultural commodities increased since implementation of the MAP.
   T or F (answer F)

Section 3 -Special Safeguard Provisions

Objectives

In this section you will learn about

- the Special Safeguard Provisions of the MAP
- how the SSP are applied
- the anti-dumping provisions of the AoA.

Introduction

Special safeguard provisions (SSP) of the MAP outline specific ways in which countries can increase import duties or regulations when they are faced with a flood of imports, or rapidly declining prices on imported products, which threaten the domestic industry (FAO, 2000).

Application of the SSP

The SSP provisions can be enacted when three specific criteria are met;

1) the product was previously subject to tarriffication,

2) the product must have been designated as eligible for a SSP, and

3) a price-trigger or volume-trigger is tripped.

The price trigger for a SSP provision is tripped when the price of the import falls below an established level as defined by the AoA provisions (FAO, 2000). The volume-trigger is tripped when there is a flood of imports above some threshold quantity. The trigger is calculated using a formula defined by the AoA. SSPs cannot be applied to in-quota imports. SSP policies for agriculture include anti-dumping provisions, provisions on subsidies and countervailing duties, and emergency safeguards.

Anti-dumping Provisions

Dumping is sale by a private firm of a product in a foreign market at a lower price than what is normally charged in the domestic market. The anti-dumping provisions of the AoA allow affected countries to apply for SSP provisions when there is proof that dumping has occurred. Unlike SSPs for other industries, the AoA rules state that there need not be proof of damage to a domestic industry for an anti-dumping provision to be invoked (WTO, 2002). The provisions on subsidies and countervailing duties provide for protection against dumping behavior by countries rather than individual firms (FAO, 2000).

Currently 39 member countries have reserved the right to use safeguards. Only eight members have invoked SSP provisions, these members include: the EU, Japan, the Republic of Korea, the United States, Poland, Hungary, Switzerland, and the Slovak Republic (WTO, 2001).

Conclusion

In this section you have learned about the SSP of the MAP. These provisions allow for special application of duties or tariffs when domestic industries are threatened by floods of imports, very low priced imports, or dumping practices by exporting countries.

Key Terms

Dumping- Sale by a private firm of a product in a foreign market at a lower price than what is normally charged in the domestic market.

Special safeguard provisions (SSP) - outline specific ways in which countries can increase import duties or regulations when they are faced with a flood of imports, or rapidly declining prices on imported products, which threaten the domestic industry

Quiz

1. Currently, ___________ countries have invoked the SSP of the MAP.
   a. 39
   b. 20
   c. 8
   d. All of them
   (Answer is c.)
2. The AoA rules state proof of damage to a domestic industry for an anti-dumping is necessary in order to invoke the SSP provision.
   T or F (answer F)

Section 4 -MAP Application

Objectives

In this section you will learn about

- the application of the MAP
- how countries have engaged in *dirty tarrification* as a way around the MAP
- and, how countries have used variable tariff rates to impact trade.

Introduction

The impacts of the MAP of the AoA on aggregate world trade are not yet clear. There are several reasons for this, including the practice of *dirty tariffication* and the use of variable tariff rates over the implementation period of the agreement.

Dirty Tariffication

Actual bound tariff rates are generally considered to be artificially high. One reason for these high rates is that many developed countries continued to protect temperate zone products (those products which most developed countries produce domestically) by maintaining high tariff rates. Products that fit into this category include: dairy, sugar, meats, and cereals (FAO, 2000).

Selection of 1986-88 as the reference period often resulted in base tariff rates higher than the applied tariff rate in place when the Uruguay Round concluded in 1994. In addition, prices employed to calculate base rates were often selected by many importing to reflect even higher levels of protectionism. This process has been called *dirty tariffication*. An indication of the extent of dirty tariffication is shown in Table 2 as the difference between the 1995 base rates listed in the country schedules and the 1986-88 estimated *ad valorem* applied tariff equivalents. An ad valorem tariff is A tariff calculated as a percentage of value = tariff rate * value of imported product

Many of the entries in the table are positive indicating tariffication resulted in base duties higher than the actual estimated effect of non-tariff barriers during the 1986-1988 reference period. For example, the base tariff rate on rice in the EU was 207 percent higher than the estimated 1986-88 tariff equivalent. Similarly, the base tariff rates on dairy products were 287 percent and 474 percent higher than the estimated tariff equivalent in Norway and Switzerland, respectively. A few entries in Table 2 are negative, indicating cases where base tariffs provided less protection than that estimated for the 1986-1988 reference period. For example, the base tariff on poultry in Norway was 235 percent lower than the estimated 1986-88 tariff equivalent.

Table 2. Base tariff rates under the Uruguay Round market access commitments minus 1986-88 *ad valorem* tariff equivalents for selected countries and commodities

	Commodity			
Country	Rice	Wheat	Poultry	Dairy
	------------------------ percent ------------------------			

EU	207	53	-8	12
Japan	n/a	-411	1	-12
Norway	n/a	229	-235	287
Switzerland	n/a	-66	182	474
U.S.	4	-14	-8	12

n/a = not applicable
Source: Hathaway and Ingco (1996), pp. 43-44.

Variable Tariff Rates

The second strategy used by WTO members to minimize AoA market access disciplines involved varying the percentage tariff reductions across commodities over the implementation period. Reduction commitments for tariff levels are imposed as simple averages, therefore it is possible to manipulate the process by taking large reductions in those commodities where a country is competitive in production or the initial base tariff rate was artificially high. Table 3 indicates the wide variation in tariff reductions among commodities within a specific country. For example, the U.S. committed to a 55 percent reduction in the base tariff on common wheat but only a 15 percent (the minimum) reduction in the base tariff on refined sugar.

Table 3. Percentage reduction commitments in base tariff rates under the Uruguay Round market access provisions for selected countries and commodities

	Commodity						
Country	Wheat	Maize	Refined Sugar	Skim Milk Powder	Beef	Pork	Poultry
	----------------------- percent ---------------------						
Australia	n/a	50	50	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Canada	15	36	15	15	30	n/a	15
EU	36	36	20	20	36	36	36
Iceland	50	50	50	15	15	15	15
Japan	15	20	15	15	46	15	15
Mexico	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
New Zealand	n/a	n/a	n/a	36	n/a	58	36
Norway	n/a	30	70	15	15	15	15
Switzerland	15	36	15	15	15	15	15
U.S.	55	74	15	15	15	n/a	20

n/a = not applicable

Source: OECD (1995), Tables III.1 – III.10.

Conclusion

In this section you have learned about some of the strategies employed by countries to avoid application of the MAP. Specifically, the practices of *dirty tarrification* and variable tariff rates have slowed progress with the MAP.

Key Terms

Ad Valorum Tariff - A tariff calculated as a percentage of value = tariff rate * value of imported product
Dirty Tariffication – The use of higher than actual prices and base tariff rates in calculating average tariffs to be reduced over the implementation period of the MAP

Quiz

1. Countries undertake *dirty tariffication* to protect domestic industries which are very sensitive to competition from imported products.
    T or F (answer T).
2. Reduction commitments for tariff levels are imposed as a
    a. higher reduction per commodity group
    b. lower reduction per commodity group
    c. simple averages per commodity group
    Answer is c.

Conclusion

It is apparent from the discussion above that several countries have tried to reshape the MAP in its application to the benefit of domestic producers. It is important to highlight some of the benefits of the MAP, and the AoA, for all WTO members. The MAP has set the stage for more open global markets by limiting the types of instruments countries can use to limit imports at the border. In the next stage of negotiations, member countries will need to be more willing to increase actual market access opportunities for this part of the AoA to be considered successful (IATRC, 2001).

Case Study: Fruit Imports

One of the strongest import categories in the U.S. during the 1990s and 2000s has been fresh fruit products. According to the ERS/USDA, imports as a share of the domestic fruit consumption rose from 35% in 1990 to 42% in 2000. Among the highest volume of imports are bananas, which represent nearly 70% of the volume of fresh fruit imported. Fresh fruits imports, excluding bananas, rose from 12% of domestic consumption in 1990 to 19% in 2000.

U.S. fresh fruit imports are primarily from Mexico, which is also a major supplier of frozen fruit. Mexico alone accounts for more than 30% of the value of fresh and frozen fruit imports (excluding bananas). Fruit products imported from Mexico imports include limes, tangerines, mangoes, grapes, pineapples, avocados and strawberries.

Another major supplier of fresh fruit is Chile, with an approximately 20% share of the U.S. import market. One advantage of trading with Chile is the seasonality of its production. Chile exports to the U.S. particularly from November through March, which coincides with the U.S. off-season for fruit production. Important fruit imports from Chile are grapes, stone fruit, avocados, and kiwifruit.

More information at http://ciber.msu.edu/

Which fruit has the highest share of total world fruit production?

Fruits	**Share Total Production in the World**
Tropical Fruits (exc bananas)	21.8
Banana	15.7
Orange	14.6
Grape	14.1
Apple	13.1
Berry	1.2

Source: Cook, 2003.

Bananas. India is the top producer of bananas in the world, growing approximately 20% of the world's output. Latin American countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Costa Rica and Mexico are the second largest producers of bananas, and the main exporters to the U.S.. In South East Asia, the top banana producers include Thailand, Indonesia, Philippines and Malaysia.

Orange. In order of volume produced, the top 10 orange-growing countries are: Brazil, the U.S., Mexico, Spain, Italy, China, Egypt, Turkey, Morocco and Greece.

Grapes. The European Union (mainly Italy, France, Spain and Germany) is the largest producer of grapes accounting for 36% of world production in 2002. The U.S. is the second largest (11%). Other important producers are China (6%), Turkey (6%). Famous for their wine production are Argentina, which produces 4% of the world grape output. Also, Australia (3% of world grape output), Chile (3%) and South Africa (2%).

Apple. China is the largest producer of apples in the world, the U.S. is ranked second, and Italy, France, Germany and Poland complete the list of the top-six apple producing countries.

Source:
Cook, Roberta. 2003. Trends in Global Fruit and Vegetable Production, Demand and Emphasis on the United States. Dept. of Ag and Resource Economics UC Davis. October 2003.

FAOSTAT database, 2004. Available at www.fao.org.

Game: Where does the berry roll?

In this game, we will imagine a three country world. Country A is a major agricultural producer and has a comparative *(link to Section 1, page 1 and definition of comparative advantage)* advantage in berry production. Country B is also a major agricultural producer, but has only a fledgling berry industry at the beginning of this game. Country C is not a major agricultural producer, but has a large population that really likes berries.

Year 1 – In this year free trade dominates. No countries impose barriers to trade and supply and demand determine the movement of agricultural products. Country A is the major supplier of berries to Country C. Meanwhile, Country B begins to develop its berry sector through government supported product development grants and an industry-led initiative to train and recruit new berry growers.

Year 2 – In this year, Country C imposes a significant tariff on imported berries from Country A only. Country B continues to increase its production levels of berries. How do you expect berry movement to change as a result of the tariff? (*answer: Fewer berries will move from A to C, as the tariff makes them expensive for C's consumers. Berries will move from country B, though production may not completely meet demand)*. Who has a competitive advantage <u>(link to Section 1, page 1 and definition of competitive advantage)</u> in berry trade with Country C *(answer: B now has a competitive advantage in trade with C because of the new tariff. A still has a comparative advantage in production)*?

Year 3 – This year all three countries sign an agreement to reduce tariffs equally among all trading partners. How do you expect berries to move between Country A and Country C? *(answer: some trade will likely resume between A and C, however, it most likely will not be at the level it was in year 1).*Between Country B and Country C ?*(answer: Trade will likely remain strong between the two countries, and may even increase as the costs of production for berries decreases in country B).* Why was the imposition of a tariff in Year 2 so significant in this example? *(answer: Because it came at a time when country B was just developing its berry industry. It gave country B a significant advantage in trade with C by eliminating a large amount of its competition in trade for a period of time).*

Game: Which Tariffs are Reduced?

In this game we will imagine three different countries who, in compliance with the MAP of the AoA, have agreed to reduce tariffs on all agricultural items by 36 percent, with a minimum of a 15 percent reduction in each tariff. Each country is a developed country, meaning they have none of the exemptions offered to developing countries under the MAP.

Pretend you are the leader of each country, you must reduce tariffs on agricultural imports, and that you hope to be re-elected next year. Your job is to determine how you will reach an average reduction of 36 percent in the base tariff, with a minimum reduction of 15 percent for each item. Based on information given about comparative advantage; which of the tariff reduction schemes will you choose?

Country 1

This country is an island nation with a long history of fishing among it inhabitants. Production of tropical agricultural commodities is limited since this country is located well north of the equator. Dairy and grain farmers in this country have long been a strong minority who vote regularly with high turnout at the polls. Given the following base tariff rates, how will you achieve an average tariff reduction of 36 percent (choose option 1, 2, or 3)?

	Bananas	Wheat	Codfish	Average
	--- percent tariff---			
Base Tariff	80	100	100	
Option 1	2	85	85	36
Option 2	52	40	40	36
Option 3	57	30	85	36

(Answer: Option 1 is the best option)

Country 2

This country is a land-locked country and a former member of a communist regime that limited trade with western countries. Once considered the “bread-basket” in the union of communist countries, the country has struggled since its release from the old regime and exposure to the world agricultural market. Sugar beet production is still a main source of sugar and many farmers in the country produce sugar beets, along with grains and dairy products. Many farms are still “traditional” in that they include several enterprises and are also somewhat self sufficient. Over 60 percent of the population still lives on a farm. As president of this country, how will you make reductions in tariff rates given the above information?

	Sugar	Skim Milk Powder	Codfish	Average
Base Tariff	100	100	70	
Option 1	50	50	62	36
Option 2	80	80	2	36
Option 3	60	60	42	36

(Answer: Option 2 is the best option)

Questions

1. Why is it important that non-tariff barriers to trade be converted to tariff equivalents?
2. Why would WTO members agree to protecting agricultural industries in developing countries when they compete with them on the world market?
3. a) What are two examples of temperate zone products? b) Why do developed countries persist in protecting temperate zone industries from imports from other countries? c) What is one way developed countries have protected temperate zone products within the auspices of the MAP of the AoA?
4. With the exceptions of New Zealand and the E.U., every country listed in Table 3 chose to reduce base tariff rates on skim milk powder by the minimum rate (10-15%). What does this tell you about skim milk powder and the dairy industries in all of these countries?
5. a) What are the implications of unfilled tariff rate quotas? b) Why might the fill rate for fruits and vegetables vary from year to year?
6. Why are the special safeguard provisions against dumping important?

Glossary

Ad Valorem Tariff- A tariff calculated as a percentage of value = tariff rate * value of imported product
Applied tariff- The actual tariff rate applied to imports at a particular time.
Base Tariff- Average tariff rates for products during the 1986-1988 reference period.
Bound tariff- The maximum tariff rate that a WTO member undertakes to apply. The bound rate provides a ceiling that applied tariffs cannot exceed, except by negotiations with compensation for affected trading partners.
Dumping- Sale by a private firm of a product in a foreign market at a lower price than what is normally charged in the domestic market.
Non-tariff barrier to trade- A non-tax policy an importing country might use to limit inflows of a product – examples include labeling requirements, quality restrictions, licensing requirements or other regulations, or minimum price requirements.
Tariff- A duty (or tax) levied by an importing country on goods transported from another customs area.
Tariffication- Conversion to tariff equivalent of tariff and non-tariff measures applied to particular products.

Tariff-Rate Quota- Minimum access commitments that ensure countries will allow a given quantity of a product into their market at a fixed duty rate. Imports above the quota rate are subject to higher tariffs.

Sources of More Information

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Multilateral Trade Negotiations On Agriculture: A Resource Manual. Rome, 2000.
GlobalEdge - http://ciber.msu.edu/globalEDGE/default.asp

International Agricultural Trade Research Consortium (IATRC). "Market Access: Issues and Options in the Agricultural Negotiations". Commissioned Paper Number 14. May 2001.

Podbury, Troy and Ivan Roberts. WTO Agricultural Negotiations : Important Market Access Isuses. ABARE Research Report 99.3. Australia, 1999.

WTO. WTO Agriculture Negotiations: The issues, and where we are now. www.wto.org Accessed 30/10/2002.

_____ . Market Access: Unfinished Business. https://secure/vtx/ch/shop/boutiques/wto-index-boutique.asp.