



Part 1

Recent Economic
Trends and Prospects for 2008



Developments in the World Economy and Implications for Africa

Recent developments in the world economy are likely to benefit African economies but they also pose some challenges and risks. The international economic environment for developing countries has so far not been affected by the global financial turmoil originating from the mid-2007 subprime mortgage crisis in the USA, with trends in international trade and finance remaining largely favourable.

Asian economies again are the fastest growing, with a growth rate of more than 8 per cent per annum. In contrast, growth in advanced economies remains modest and is declining in the USA due to the housing and mortgage crises. Key constraints to growth include the massive global macroeconomic imbalances as well as record high oil prices that undermine growth in both developed and developing countries, through high production costs.

Some positive developments in the world economy are likely to sustain growth in African countries, especially through the high demand for African export commodities and the relatively low costs of external borrowing. Rising inflows of foreign direct investment (FDI) are still dominated by resource extraction but they have started to diversify. The closer links between Asia and Africa based on complementarities as well as similarities are providing mutual benefits but they also pose some challenges for African economies.

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Massive global macroeconomic imbalances and record high oil prices undermine growth
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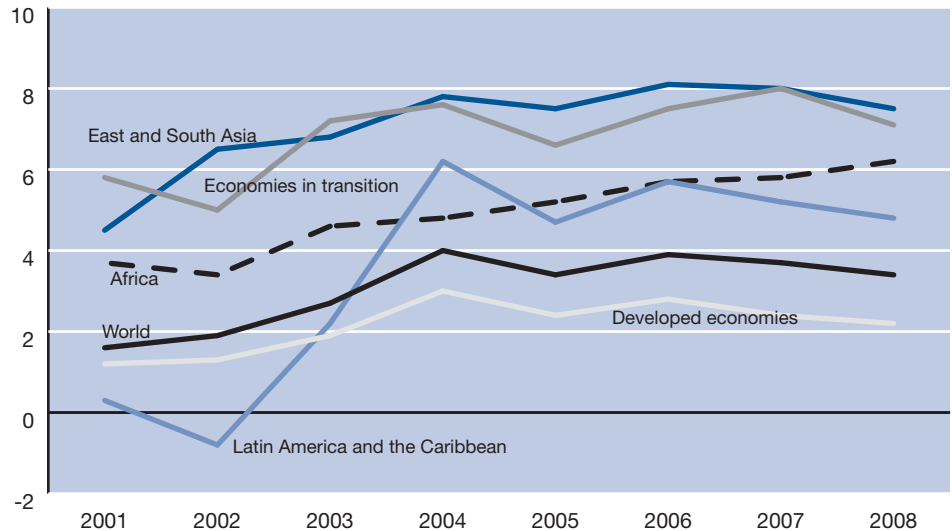
1.1 World growth slowed in 2007 mainly due to weak US growth

In 2007, world economic growth slowed only slightly to 3.7 per cent from 3.9 per cent in 2006 (figures 1.1 and 1.2)¹. High prices for oil and other inputs combined with some turbulence in financial markets have contributed to this slowdown. Globally, growth rates were highest in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries as well as in East Asia, with rates above 8 per cent. Growth in developing countries declined only slightly from 7.0 per cent in 2006 to 6.9 per cent in 2007 (UN 2008). For 2008, some further slowdown is expected in all regions (except

¹ The analysis is based on data from UN-DESA's WESP 2008, as of October 2007.

Africa and Central America), leading to a decline in world growth from 3.7 to 3.4 per cent.

Figure 1.1
GDP growth rates of major regions, 2001-2008



Source: UN 2008. Estimates for 2007; forecasts for 2008.

Note: The reported estimates of growth rates for world gross product are obtained using country gross domestic product at market prices in dollars as weights. For comparison, world growth rates estimated using purchasing power parity-based weights would be 4.9 per cent for 2007 and 2008.

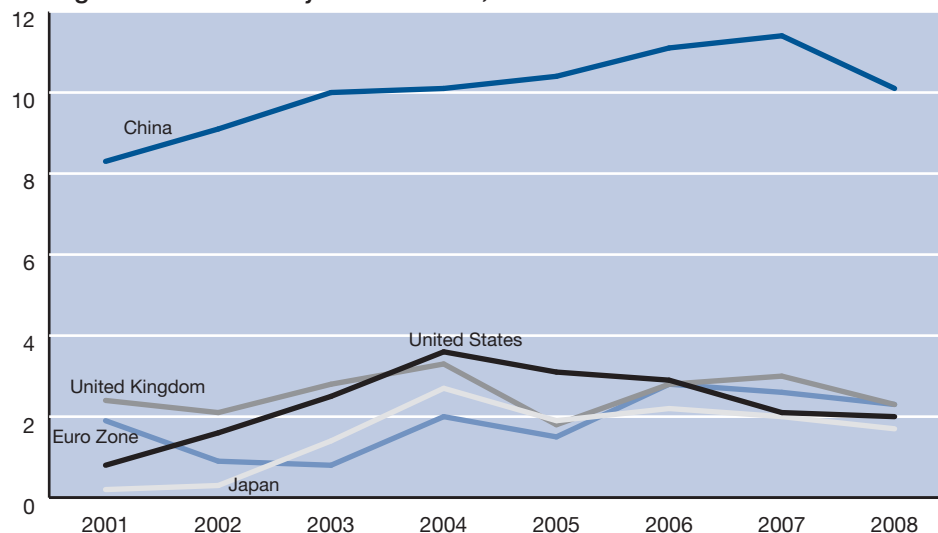
Growth in the USA slowed considerably in 2007 to 2.1 per cent, down from 2.9 per cent in 2006. The weakness is partly due to the decline in house prices and the crisis in the subprime mortgage sector, which together with high household debt has weakened consumer spending. Likewise, business capital spending has weakened since late 2006. For 2008, no major change is expected (UN 2008).

Growth in the European Union (EU) remained virtually unchanged in 2007 at 2.9 per cent compared to 3 per cent in 2006. This relatively good performance was driven by higher domestic demand, particularly investment expenditure and strong export performance. In 2008, a decline to 2.5 per cent of GDP growth is expected, as the Euro remains strong. Growth in Japan remained stable in 2007 at 2.0 per cent, compared to 2.2 per cent the previous year, but is expected to slow down in 2008 (to 1.7 per cent). In both cases, improved labour market conditions contribute to overall performance (UN 2008).

Growth in East and South Asia remained strong with 8.0 per cent in 2007, almost unchanged from the 8.1 per cent in 2006. For 2008, it is expected that growth will

slow down somewhat to 7.5 per cent. This good performance is driven mainly by exports but also by recovery of domestic demand. With continued strong growth at 11.4 per cent in 2007, China continued to gain in importance as an export destination for other East Asian countries. Growth in India slowed in 2007 to 8.5 per cent, down from 9.4 per cent in 2006, mainly due to high capacity utilization, inflationary pressures and continued monetary tightening (UN 2008).

Figure 1.2
GDP growth rates of major economies, 2001-2008



Source: UN 2008. Estimates for 2007; forecasts for 2008.

Growth in Western Asia increased considerably to 5.7 per cent in 2007 from 4.6 per cent the previous year. Oil exporters in the region, such as United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Qatar experienced growth above 7 per cent, supported by higher-than-expected non-oil production, most notably in the construction and finance sectors (UN 2008).

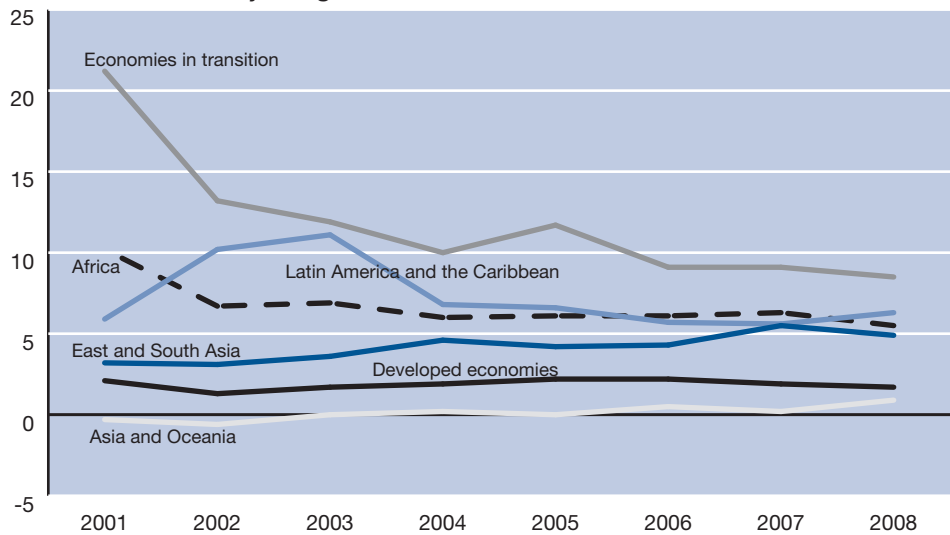
Growth in Latin America and the Caribbean declined slightly to 5.2 per cent in 2007, down from 5.7 per cent in 2006, but is still quite robust due to strong external and domestic demand, especially in the three largest economies (Brazil, Mexico and Argentina). For 2008, only a slight decline in GDP growth is expected (UN 2008). In Africa, growth continued to increase and stood at 5.8 per cent in 2007. For 2008, it is expected to remain high, although there are some downside risks for all regions as discussed in detail in chapter 2.

1.2 Macroeconomic policies in major regions are improving

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Despite continued high oil prices, global average inflation has remained low
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Despite continued high oil prices, global average inflation has remained low and even declined slightly in 2007 (figure 1.3), partly due to restrictions on wage increases, a tight macroeconomic policy stance in both advanced and developing countries, and the supply of cheap manufactured goods from China. However, the prospects for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries are characterized by scant spare capacity and unemployment rates close to their structural levels, as well as high energy prices and increasing food prices, which might trigger increases in interest rates, especially by the European Central Bank (ECB) (OECD 2007b).

Figure 1.3
Inflation rates in major regions and economies, 2001-2008



Source: UN 2008. Estimates for 2007; forecasts for 2008.

In general, there is little concern about overheating in most developing economies.² However, inflation increased in South Africa from 8.4 per cent to 9.9 per cent mainly due to reduced subsidies for fuel and increases in food prices. This has led to a tightening of monetary policies in these countries. In Africa, average inflation remained low and stable, averaging 6.3 per cent in 2007 relative to 6.1 per cent in 2006. In general, inflation risks have increased as unemployment has fallen, especially in Europe, and many commodity prices remain high (UN 2008; OECD 2007a).

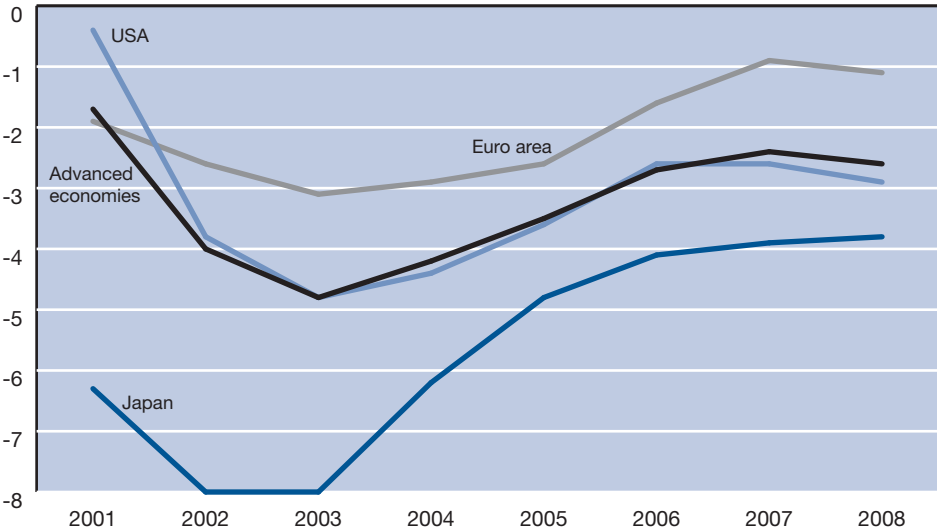
² Overheating means that an economy is growing too fast and that its productive capacity cannot keep up with demand, implying rising inflation.

Recently, business cycles in most major economies except Japan have converged, with these economies moving into a position of excess demand. While this presents opportunities for countries that are able to meet this demand, a convergence of business cycles is likely to increase global macroeconomic volatility. As a consequence, monetary policies across most developed countries show a greater similarity, with increases in interest rates (OECD 2007a).

“Convergence of business cycles is likely to increase global macroeconomic volatility”

Many industrial countries have experienced higher government revenues due to higher growth over the past few years leading to a steady reduction in fiscal deficits (figure 1.4). In 2007, the average fiscal deficit of OECD countries remained constant at 1.6 per cent of GDP. The deficit in the USA also remained flat, while the deficit in the Euro area was reduced to 0.9 per cent in 2007 against 1.6 per cent in 2006. This overall reduction in fiscal deficits is expected to stop in 2008, due to lower growth expectations (UN 2008).

Figure 1.4
Central government fiscal balance for selected regions and economies, 2001-2008 (% of GDP)



Source: IMF 2007. Estimates for 2007; forecasts for 2008.

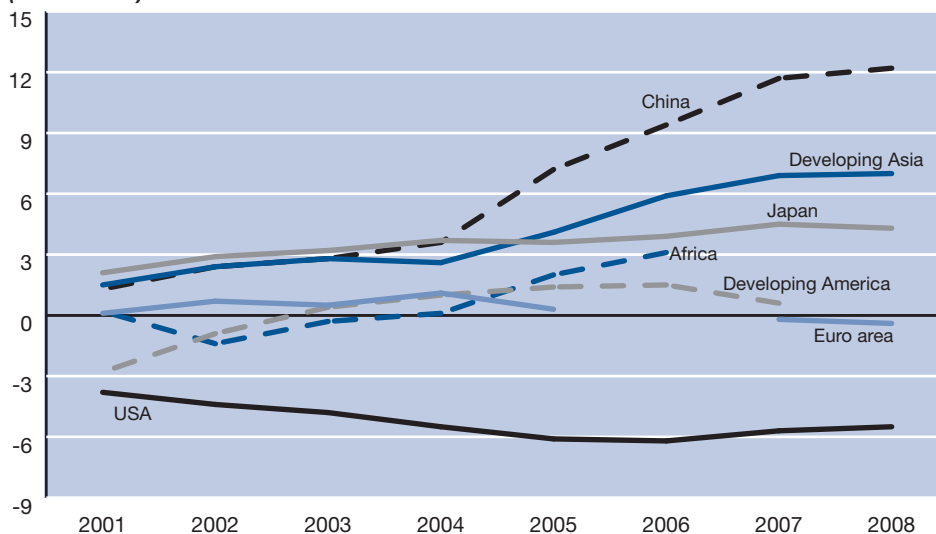
1.3 World macroeconomic imbalances remain large

Widening macroeconomic imbalances constitute a major concern for future growth prospects and economic stability. These imbalances cause uncertainty and increase the risk of financial instability, which have negative effects on economic growth.

Recently, equity, commodity and currency markets have become more volatile while short-term capital outflows from some emerging markets have increased. This has raised fears of a new global financial crisis. However, the turbulence is limited to a number of countries with high current account deficits (UNCTAD 2006a).

“ Widening macroeconomic imbalances constitute a major concern for future growth prospects and economic stability ”

Figure 1.5
Current account balance for selected regions and countries, 2001-2008
(% of GDP)



Source: IMF 2007. Estimates for 2007; forecasts for 2008.

Imbalances in the current accounts are large but have stabilized in 2007 (figure 1.5). In developed countries, the deficit remained constant in 2007 with around \$600 billion, despite sizable surpluses in Germany and Japan. The US trade deficit declined from a record high of \$844 billion in 2006 to \$780 billion in 2007, due to higher exports. Oil-exporting countries have a combined surplus of \$500 billion. Most developing regions are running surpluses. Developing Asia’s surplus exceeds \$200 billion, with China being the largest contributor (UN 2008). The current trends are expected to continue in 2008.

Despite the stabilization of current account imbalances, the risks of a disorderly adjustment remain significant, as the US deficits have accumulated to more than \$3 trillion by the end of 2006. As growth in the USA is less robust than in most other developed countries, further depreciation of the US dollar is expected (the effects of the depreciation of the dollar for African economies are discussed in chapter 2). To overcome these risks, there is need for international policy coordination in deficit and surplus countries, ranging from fiscal consolidation in the USA to increased

public expenditure and exchange rate adjustments in surplus countries (for more details see UN 2008).

Developing countries have continued to accumulate foreign reserves with the aim of providing a buffer against external shocks and reducing vulnerability to volatilities in capital inflows. However, the costs of excessive reserves are significant, including high fiscal costs from sterilization. The considerable risk of depreciation of reserve currency poses a challenge with respect to management of reserves. For example, China had accumulated more than \$1.2 trillion at the end of the first quarter of 2007. With the appreciation of the Chinese currency and the low nominal interest received on the dollar assets, the domestic value of these reserves has declined. Thus, China plans to diversify its reserves away from US bonds (UN 2008; OECD 2007a).

The recent crisis in the subprime mortgage market in the USA and its knock-on effects is a reminder of the fragility of international financial markets. Triggered by the decline in US house prices, subprime mortgage markets experienced significant losses and created the worst credit and liquidity squeeze in world financial markets in a decade. Central banks in the USA, Europe and Japan had to insert short-term liquidity to stabilize money markets. This immediate reaction slowed the fall of stock markets but they have remained very volatile. As mortgages have become more expensive in the USA, more house owners have had to sell their houses, leading to oversupply and a further decrease in prices. The construction sector was also severely affected. Together with the decline in consumer spending, these effects resulted in lower than expected growth rates in the USA and lower demand for imports.

The losses from the subprime mortgage markets also affected the balance sheets of foreign banks, leading to increasing financial nervousness and risk aversion. The recent developments are a sign of imperfections in credit markets as financial innovations spread the risk from mortgage lending to many investors worldwide. Excessive leverage amplified the risks in sub-prime lending and spread them to other segments of the credit market. Supervision of subprime mortgage markets has been insufficient and more transparency in credit markets is needed.

As many emerging economies have accumulated large foreign exchange reserves and current account surpluses and have also made exchange rates more flexible, they are less affected by withdrawal of foreign investors. However, in Europe the banking sector was severely affected. As house prices in some European countries had been increasing extremely fast, the risk of a house price bust also increased (OECD 2007b; UN 2008).

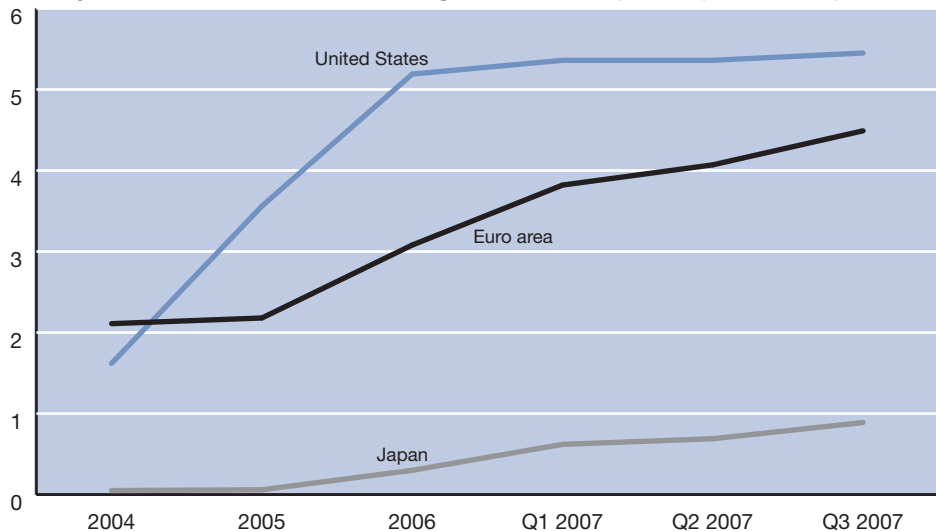
The global financial turmoil that started in mid-2007 has led to monetary easing in the USA and in other major developed economies (figure 1.6). Thus, the monetary

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policy stance remains roughly neutral in most developed economies. Low benchmark interest rates in world capital markets imply that the costs of borrowing for developing countries are favourable.

Figure 1.6

Money market interest rates: average 3-month deposits (2004-2007)



Source: ECB 2007.



Global demand for oil has grown fast, especially driven by China's high performance



1.4 High world prices for African export commodities

In 2007, commodity producers continued to benefit from high prices. Global demand for oil has grown fast due to global growth, especially driven by China's high performance. In addition, conflicts in main oil-producing countries such as Nigeria have contributed to the high level and volatility of oil prices. The global shortage in refining capacity also continues to affect oil prices as investment is more geared towards gas and oil exploration (UN 2008).

The prices of most other commodities have further increased in 2006 but are expected to moderate with increased volatility. Mineral, ore and metal prices have increased by 178 per cent between 2000 and 2006. The price increase was highest for copper at 261 per cent but it was also considerable for other important export commodities such as aluminum and gold. The increase in metal prices continued in 2007 but is expected to reverse in 2008 (see table 1.1; UNCTAD 2007a; UN 2008).

Table 1.1*Indices of selected primary commodity prices, 2001-2006 (2000 = 100)*

Commodity	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
ALL COMMODITIES	96.4	97.2	105.1	125.5	140.8	183.6		
Crude petroleum	86.7	88.4	102.4	133.8	189.1	227.8		
Food and tropical beverages	100.4	100.8	103.1	116.7	127.0	149.6		
Maize	101.2	111.7	118.9	124.9	109.9	136.8	184.7	195.8
Rice	84.7	94.1	97.9	120.6	141.2	149.0	157.9	165.8
Sugar	105.6	84.2	86.7	87.6	120.9	180.6	121.0	117.4
Coffee	70.2	71.8	80.6	92.3	131.8	144.8	149.1	137.8
Cocoa	122.7	200.3	197.7	174.5	173.3	179.4	211.7	205.3
Palm oil	92.1	125.8	142.9	151.9	136.1	154.2	237.5	261.2
Agricultural raw materials	96.1	93.8	112.4	123.5	132.3	152.2		
Cotton	81.0	78.1	107.1	103.6	91.5	97.0	101.4	111.5
Tropical logs	106.4	95.2	114.3	136.3	136.7	130.2	152.3	156.9
Rubber	85.9	114.3	162.0	194.9	224.4	315.2	334.1	317.4
Minerals, ores and metals	89.2	86.8	97.6	137.3	173.2	277.7		
Aluminum	93.2	87.1	92.4	110.8	122.5	165.9	174.2	165.5
Copper	87.0	85.8	96.6	152.8	198.4	361.2	382.9	344.6
Gold	97.1	111.1	130.3	146.6	159.4	216.6		

Source: UNCTAD 2007a; Estimates for 2007 and forecasts for 2008 based on UN 2008.

The prices of agricultural commodities have been diverging, with the prices of maize and sugar increasing remarkably in 2006, while the prices of other commodities, such as coffee, cocoa, cotton and tropical logs, remained stable or even declined. The increase continued for some agricultural products in 2007 but is expected to reach a plateau in 2008. So far, traditional causes such as weather-related shocks and changes in global stocks are mainly responsible for the price developments. Growth in rice consumption is expected to be in line with population growth as per capita consumption in most developing countries is stable. However, rice stocks worldwide have declined and the global rice trade has expanded (see table 1.1; UN 2008; OECD and FAO 2007).

The recent promotion of the use of bio-fuels has already led to a price increase for some agricultural commodities and is expected to change market structures. The price of maize is growing despite an increase in production. Political support for bio-fuels in EU and the USA is mainly driven by concerns about future energy supply and the environment. In the USA, maize production for ethanol production is expected to double between 2006 and 2016. In EU, both bio-diesel and ethanol

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production are expected to increase to reach the target of 5.75 per cent share in total transport fuel consumption.

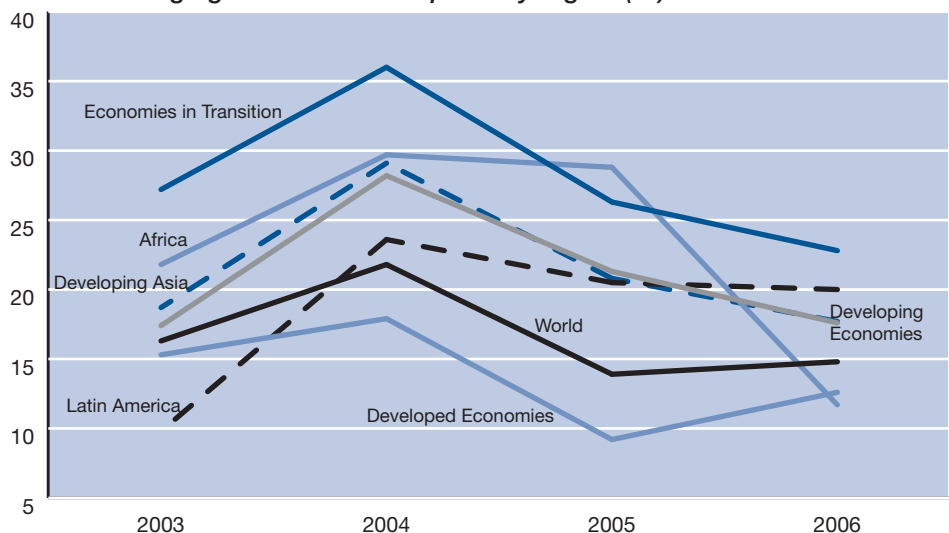
China is also expected to more than double its ethanol production, mainly based on maize, whereas ethanol production in Brazil is based on sugar. The production of oilseeds for bio-fuel is also increasing in Latin America. As bio-fuels will replace other crops in most industrial countries, it is expected that new land will be cultivated in many developing countries. Investment in processing capacity is expected to be particularly strong in India and China (OECD and FAO 2007).

Income growth is also driving the fast growth in demand for vegetable oils. It is expected that the prices for rice, oilseeds, vegetable oils, sugar and dairy products will increase further in the coming decade. While this has great potential to benefit African farmers, it might pose problems for net-food importers, especially the urban poor (OECD and FAO 2007; UN 2007).

1.5 Globalization trends and implications for Africa

The high growth of world exports that reached 14.8 per cent in 2006 is moderating in 2007, due to a decline in import demand in the USA. In 2006, export growth in developed countries was relatively high, at 12.6 per cent (see figure 1.7).

Figure 1.7
Annual average growth rates of exports by region (%)



Source: UNCTAD 2007a.

EU exports benefited particularly from increasing sales to oil-exporting countries in West Asia and in CIS. The USA also registered the highest export growth since 2000 in 2006, at 10 per cent, partly due to the depreciation of the dollar.

However, export growth was higher in developing countries at 17.6 per cent and even higher in transition economies at 22.8 per cent. Exports of Latin American and Caribbean countries grew fastest of all developing regions in 2006, at 20 per cent, followed by Asia at 17.7 per cent. This was largely driven by China (27.2 per cent) and India (21.5 per cent). Export growth in Africa slowed from around 30 per cent in 2004 and 2005 to 11.7 per cent in 2006 (UNCTAD 2007a and 2007b). Trends in African trade, especially inter-African trade, are discussed in chapter 3)

Global FDI flows have once more increased substantially, by 38 per cent in 2006, after an increase by 27 per cent in 2005. All major regions except Latin America have benefited from this large increase in net FDI inflows (figure 1.8). The EU share in world FDI inflows remained high at 43 per cent in 2006. Inward FDI to the USA recovered from its recent decline and grew by 73 per cent in 2006. The share of Asia declined slightly in 2006 for the first time since 2000. Net inward FDI to China also declined for the first time by 4 per cent in 2006, due to a large increase in outflows. FDI to Africa increased by 20 per cent in 2006, which is in line with the increase for developing countries on average, leaving its share in world investment almost unchanged. (The role of FDI in financing for development is discussed in Part II of this report.)

A recent development with important implications for Africa is the large increase in FDI originating from the South, which increased from just 5 per cent of world outward flows in 1990 to 17 per cent of the total in 2005. For example, China's outflows of FDI amounted to \$16.1 billion in 2006 (up by 32 per cent over the previous year), resulting in a stock of FDI (excluding the financial sector) of \$73 billion. This is partly a result of the "going abroad" strategy that was launched in 2000 by the Chinese Government (WAIPA 2007).

In addition, firms from oil-rich West Asian countries are investing in the services sector in Africa, especially in telecommunications, construction and port and terminal operations. For example, Investcom from United Arab Emirates (UAE) operates GSM mobile networks in Benin, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia and Sudan (UNCTAD 2006). Investors from the Gulf States have also signed large agreements with North African countries in real estate development, tourism and telecommunications. For Tunisia alone, these agreements amount to more than \$20 billion in the coming years (EIU 2007).

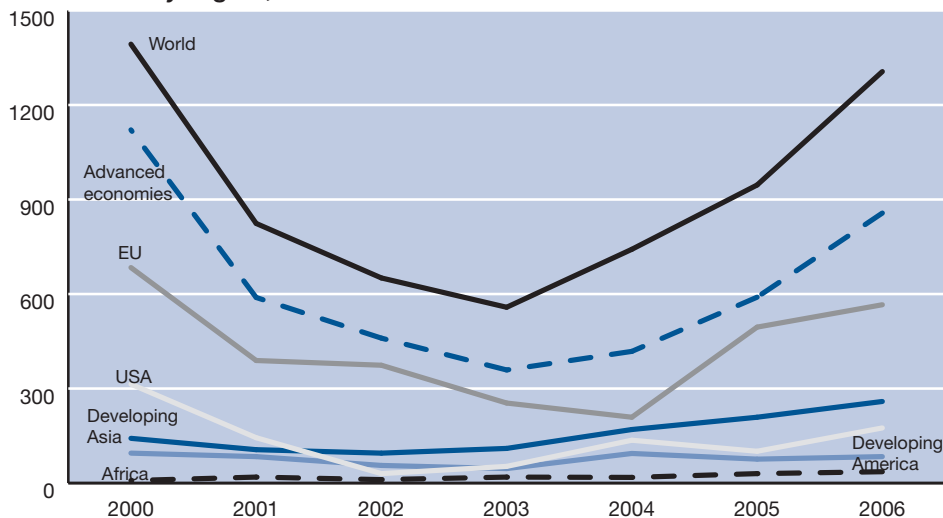
At the same time, FDI flows within Africa increased substantially in 2006, mainly originating from South and Northern Africa. These FDI flows are mostly in the

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natural resource and services sectors. In North Africa, Egypt has the largest outward investment. In 2004, ten South African firms were among the world’s top 100 non-financial transnational companies from developing countries. Their operations range from mining to chemicals, metals and paper to retail, telecoms, media and transportation. The expansion of South African state-owned enterprises such as Eskom and Transnet reflects the Government’s effort to improve infrastructure in Southern Africa in the context of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) (UNCTAD 2006; 2007).

Figure 1.8
FDI inflows by region, 2000-2006



Source: UNCTAD 2007b.

1.6 Asia - Africa exchange relations: benefits and challenges

The links between Asia and Africa have deepened significantly over the past decade in the areas of trade, investment and aid. China has stepped up its aid mostly in the form of technical assistance, including training of Africans in Chinese institutions. It also provides loans with an interest subsidy. As of 2006, existing loans and credit lines were estimated to be about \$19 billion. However, this aid is concentrated in a small number of oil and mineral exporters, namely Angola, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Republic of Congo, and Nigeria.³ In addition, China cancelled an estimated \$260 million in debt for the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia,

³ China does not provide details about the level and terms of its aid to other countries.

Mali, Senegal, Togo, Rwanda, Guinea, and Uganda. It plans to double aid to Africa by 2009. The assistance is largely in infrastructure, such as energy, telecommunications and transportation, and construction. Most of the aid is provided in kind by Chinese companies, using Chinese inputs, including labour (Jacoby 2007).

India also offers some aid to Africa, mostly in the form of technical assistance, notably in the information technology (IT) and health sector. It set up a \$50 million grant in 2005 for the establishment of a pan-African satellite/fibre optic network to establish effective communications and connectivity with all African countries. India is also making great strides in extending its economic influence to Africa's health sector and in pharmaceuticals by providing low-cost retrovirals, particularly to South Africa. In addition, it is supporting many African countries in developing their agricultural capacities, with improved seeds, soil nutrition methods and irrigation facilities (Singh 2007).

Trade between Africa and Asia has been growing very fast since 2000, both in terms of exports and imports. African exports to China have more than quadrupled between 2000 and 2005 to \$19.5 billion. African imports from China have risen a bit slower to \$14.9 billion in 2005. Thus, China accounts for 7 per cent of Africa's exports and 6 per cent of its imports. It accounted for about one fifth of total African export growth between 2000 and 2005 and has become Africa's third largest trading partner (27%), after the US (32%) and EU (29%) (UNCTAD 2007a).

So far, African exports to China and India have consisted mostly of raw materials, corresponding with the investment focus. For example, Nigeria is India's biggest African trading partner, with 96 per cent of imports from Nigeria being oil. Exports of agricultural commodities are also significant. Chinese cotton imports contributed to 41 per cent of the growth of cotton exports of all cotton-producing countries in Africa. These exports contributed to 1.1 per cent of the GDP growth of these countries. China has also announced its intention to boost trade access for most least developed African countries by raising the number of their export items that receive zero-tariff treatment from 190 to 440, thus improving the prospects for diversification of exports (for more details on trade preferences see chapter 3; Jacoby 2007; ECOWAS-SWAC/OECD 2006).

In contrast, African imports from Asia consist mainly of manufactured products. India exports mainly pharmaceutical products, manufactured goods, rice and cereals. China's exports of cheap manufactured goods such as electronics and household items have increased competition for domestically manufactured goods. Asian-sourced imports, particularly in the clothing and furniture sectors, have had a detrimental impact on local industries. For example, more than ten clothing factories have shut down in Swaziland, causing a loss of up to 12,000 jobs (ECOWAS-SWAC/OECD 2006; Jacoby 2007; Singh 2007).

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The biggest opportunities and challenges appear to be in the area of Asian investment in Africa. The volume of FDI from India is much larger than that from China, with about four times the stock in 2002. Moreover, Indian investment in Africa is more diversified and focused on the domestic market. Chinese state-owned companies often enter into joint ventures with African firms to secure sources of commodities. More than 700 Chinese enterprises are now operating in Africa, mainly in resource sectors.

Closer relations with Asia could also provide new opportunities for African economies. Given the increasing population with a higher disposable income in many Asian countries, tourism is expected to grow. China has already identified 16 African nations as tourist destinations and this resulted in travel to Africa by 110,000 Chinese tourists in 2005, an upsurge of 100 per cent from 2004. This inflow of tourism is further facilitated by the expansion of air transportation between African and Asian cities (Shinn 2006).

African firms could benefit from cooperation with Asian counterparts through technology transfer. Transfer of technology and management should be easier from Asian firms than those from the industrial countries. In addition, Asian firms have successfully entered western markets, through meeting technical and quality standards from which African firms could learn. However, to maximize these benefits, the impact of Asian investment on employment of local labour needs to increase. Thus, African countries also need to invest in education and skills acquisition to meet the induced labour demand (Jacoby 2007; Singh 2007).

1.7 Conclusions

Whereas the international environment for growth in Africa is still favourable, risks from global imbalances, especially the subprime mortgage crisis in the USA, have increased. International policy coordination is critical to avoid disorderly adjustment and the spread of financial crisis.

Continuing high oil and mineral prices have increased revenues for many African countries. In the medium term, price expectations for a number of agricultural commodities are high due to increasing demand from Asia and the increasing use of bio-fuels. This has the potential to increase the income of the rural population in many African countries.

The intensification of ties with Asia in terms of aid, trade and FDI holds both benefits and challenges for Africa. Through these channels, Asian growth provides African governments with increased revenues through exports and thus, the possibil-

ity to spend more on achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It also improves opportunities for direct employment and better conditions for local firms.

However, African manufacturing firms risk losing local markets if they are not able to compete with imports from Asia. African countries need to improve their business environment and increase investment in skills development to be able to benefit more from the relations with Asia. In turn, Asian companies should employ more local people, allowing for more learning by doing to take place.

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