Draft v5

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1.0 Introduction

The United Kingdom's withdrawal from the European Union represents one of the most significant institutional and economic changes in recent decades. The Brexit referendum was held in June 2016, and the UK officially left the European Union (EU) on 31 January 2020, marking the end of nearly five decades of membership. EU has long been the UK's largest trading partner, but Brexit introduced new barriers to trade, altered market access conditions, and reshaped the country's external economic relationships.

This project aims to analyse how the UK's trade with EU and non-EU partners has evolved before and after the Brexit referendum, with a particular focus on identifying structural shifts in trade intensity. The analysis is grounded in the CEPII Gravity database of international trade, which provides data for explaining bilateral trade as a function of economic size, distance, and institutional linkages. By examining trade developments between 2010 and 2020, we seek to explore whether Brexit has led to changes in trading patterns.

1.1 Research question

How has the United Kingdom's trading patterns with EU and non-EU partners changed since the Brexit referendum in 2016?

2.0 Data and methods

The data used for this project mainly draw on the CEPII Gravity Database, and contains a targeted selection of bilateral variables between the United Kingdom and its trading partners. When downloading the data, we also downloaded the Gravity documentation file which included information about variables in the data set. Among all available variables, we made a selection of variables that present the main economic, geographic and institutional factors that could reasonably be expected to have influenced trade patterns before and after Brexit.

2.1 AI disclaimer

When making use of AI In this project, we have made efforts to follow the course guidelines for responsible and limited use of AI. Our AI model of choice has been the version of ChatGPT that at any point has been freely available to consumers throughout the fall semester of 2025. To apply AI effectively, it has been necessary to have a solid understanding of basic R concepts. Since our group had different levels of experience with R, we spent time establishing shared knowledge about the essential components of the R workflow. This included how to run commands in the console, how R projects and working directories function, and how scripts, datasets, and rendering processes are connected. Building this foundation ensured that we could correctly interpret technical explanations from AI and verify whether suggested solutions were appropriate for our project setup.

AI was used primarily as a technical support tool. It helped identify and resolve issues that commonly occur in collaborative R work. Examples include file-path conflicts, missing working directories, and render failures when switching between two different computers. In several cases, R attempted to access folders located only on one team member's system, or tried to load packages that were not installed on the other member's machine. By providing AI with screenshots or detailed descriptions of error messages, we were able to isolate the cause of these problems efficiently. All fixes proposed by AI were reviewed and implemented manually to maintain full control over the workflow. We also used AI to improve the quality of our written text by checking grammar, suggesting clearer wording, and helping us express our explanations in a more precise and understandable way.

AI was also used to clarify basic functionality in R, such as how certain commands operate and how to structure an R project correctly. This was particularly useful during the early phase of the project, when we needed to establish routines for handling data, loading packages, and ensuring consistent file organisation across devices and operating systems. As our competence increased, the use of AI shifted toward more targeted queries. These included questions about improving the efficiency of existing code, adjusting minor details in plots, or identifying why a specific line of code did not run as intended. In each case, AI served as a technical aid rather than a source of analytical input. Throughout this report, concrete uses AI will be disclaimed where appropriate.

2.2 Packages

```r
# For data collection
library(here)

# For data manipulation
library(dplyr)
library(tidyverse)
```

```
library(countrycode)      # converting country codes to country names

# For making visualisations
library(ggplot2)
library(patchwork)        # helper package for side-by-side plots
library(scales)           # Scale functions for visualisations

# For report generation
library(knitr)

# Global settings
options(scipen = 999)     #makes R write large numbers without scientific notations
```

2.3 Creating the datasets

For this analysis we have mainly depended on data from the CEPII Gravity database, which again bases itself on data collected from a number of different open sources. Further information about data and variables can be found in the Gravity Documentation. We also gathered data about GDP per capita from the World Development Indicators (WDI) by the World Bank. Although the gravity data set already hold data about GDP and population for all countries, these data were imported to demonstrate our ability to read and combine data from several sources. For instance, the gravity data was used to make a filtering join in the WDI data to remove already aggregated observations or other non-state entities. We named our main data set `gravity`, and kept the name `WDI` for the data gathered from the World Bank.

Several AI requests were made in the process of wrangling the WDI data. The data was delivered in a wide format with each year as an individual column, with the 70th and last column holding only empty values. The first AI request questioned the origin of the empty 70th column. The AI suggested that the empty column was the result of the raw data file including a comma at the end of each row. This explanation was possible to validate by inspecting the raw data files, and the empty column could be safely removed.

The second and third AI requests concerning the wrangling of the WDI data regarded the use of pivot_longer() and pivot_wider(), both of which were used to achieve the desired data format. As the data was imported in a wide format, an AI request was made to suggest the most appropriate way to select all year columns for the pivot_longer() function. The syntax `matches("\^(19\|20)")` was suggested, and by running the code and inspecting the changes made it was possible to validate the effect was as wanted. The third inquiry regarded an more detailed explanation of the pivot_wider() documentation.

```
# Read the gravity data
gravity <- readRDS(here("data", "Gravity_V202211.rds")) %>% # Gravity source file location
```

```r
  select(
    year, iso3_o, iso3_d, eu_o, eu_d,
    country_exists_o, country_exists_d,
    distcap, pop_o, pop_d, gdp_o, gdp_d,
    tradeflow_comtrade_o, tradeflow_comtrade_d
  ) %>%
  filter(
    iso3_o == "GBR" | iso3_d == "GBR",          # only include observations with the UK
    country_exists_o == 1 & country_exists_d == 1,  # remove observations with non-existing
    year %in% 2010:2020) %>%                     # focus on 2010-2020
  mutate(partner_eu = if_else(iso3_o == "GBR", eu_d, eu_o)) %>% # EU-status for partnerland
  mutate(country_d = countrycode(iso3_d, "iso3c", "country.name", nomatch = NULL),
         country_o = countrycode(iso3_o, "iso3c", "country.name", nomatch = NULL)) %>% #ANT
  mutate(tradeflow_comtrade_d = tradeflow_comtrade_d * 1000, # tradeflow is reported in thous
         tradeflow_comtrade_o = tradeflow_comtrade_o * 1000)

# Read the WDI data
WDI <- read_csv("WDI_NY.GDP.PCAP.KD.csv", col_names = TRUE, skip = 3) %>%
  select(!starts_with("...70"), # AI disclaimer (mystery column)
         -"Indicator Code") %>%
  pivot_longer(
    cols = matches("^(19|20)"), # AI disclaimer, syntax
    names_to = "year",
    values_to = "value"
  ) %>%
  pivot_wider( # AI disclaimer: explained the documentation
    names_from = "Indicator Name",
    values_from = "value"
  ) %>%
  rename("GDPpc" = "GDP per capita (constant 2015 US$)") %>%
  filter(year %in% 2010:2024) %>%
  mutate(year = as.numeric(year))
```

```
New names:
Rows: 266 Columns: 70
-- Column specification
--------------------------------------------------------- Delimiter: "," chr
(4): Country Name, Country Code, Indicator Name, Indicator Code dbl (65): 1960,
1961, 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970, ... lgl (1): ...70
i Use `spec()` to retrieve the full column specification for this data. i
Specify the column types or set `show_col_types = FALSE` to quiet this message.
* `` -> `...70`
```

```
# Using a filtering join to remove non-state observations from the WDI data (e.g. "Arab World
WDI <- WDI %>%
  semi_join(gravity, join_by(`Country Code` == iso3_d))

# Inspecting the removed observations

# WDI_removed <- WDI %>%
#   anti_join(gravity, join_by(`Country Code` == iso3_d))
#
# check <- WDI_removed %>% count(`Country Name`)
```

Based on our main data set, we also created smaller subsets of data to make subsequent analyses more intuitive. The subsets of data were divided into exports and imports, as well as some filtered by year.

```
# All UK exports 2010-2020
uk_exports <- gravity %>%
  select(!starts_with("country_exists")) %>%
  filter(iso3_o == "GBR")

# All UK imports 2010-2020
uk_imports <- gravity %>%
  select(!starts_with("country_exists")) %>%
  filter(iso3_d == "GBR")

# Exports subsets by year
uk_exports_2010 <- uk_exports %>% filter(year == 2010)
uk_exports_2020 <- uk_exports %>% filter(year == 2020)

# Import subsets by year
uk_imports_2010 <- uk_imports %>% filter(year == 2010)
uk_imports_2020 <- uk_imports %>% filter(year == 2020)
```

2.4 Variables

Variables in the gravity data set include yearly observation for pairs of countries with trading relationship, with variables describing both the exporting and the importing state. For any variable name, the suffixes _o and _d mean that the variable describe either the origin (exporter) or destination (importer) state.

The trade flow variables **tradeflow_comtrade_o** and **tradeflow_comtrade_d** originally captured the value of exports and imports in thousands current US$. During the data wrangling

phase, the values for these variables were multiplied by 1000 to accurately depict monetary value. These variables form the foundation for analysing how trade volumes have evolved over time. To control for differences in market size and economic capacity, the data set includes GDP (gdp_o, gdp_d) and population (pop_o, pop_d) for both the UK and its partners, providing context for the scale and potential intensity of bilateral trade. Geographic distance `distcap` serves as a proxy for trade costs, reflecting how physical separation can constrain trade through higher transport and transaction costs. The EU membership indicators `eu_o` and `eu_d` are central to the analysis, as they allow a distinction between EU-members and non-EU trading partners and thereby facilitate the identification of changes linked to the UK's withdrawal from the EU. Finally, `country_exists_o` and `country_exists_d` ensure that only valid and contemporaneous country pairs are included each year. In total, these core variables were selected from the broader CEPII database to provide a balanced representation of economic scale, spatial frictions, and institutional context, enabling a systematic analysis of how the UK's trade flows may have been affected by Brexit.

3.0 Data analysis

To answer the research question this section will firstly explore the data descriptively. A descriptive analysis of the data is useful because it provides information on the actual content and composition of the data. This is done by producing and inspecting descriptive statistics and creating visualisations in the form of figures and tables. This section will look at descriptive statistics for the UK, followed by a broad comparison of trade relations with EU-members and non-EU states, and lastly a look into selected trading partners for the UK.

The following section will present a few statistical models to better understand the data. While descriptive visualisations provide information of the actual observations, data modelling is used to create representations and predictions of the data. This project will present models based on regression analyses.

3.1 Descriptive data analysis

3.1.1 The United Kindom

Starting off the descriptive analysis of trade relations, the following tables show the UK's main trading partners for imports and exports for the years 2010 and 2020. Each table provide the top ten reported values for tradeflow in the given year, and gives an initial impression of main trading partners.

```
# Top 10 UK import observations in 2010
uk_imports_2010 %>%
  arrange(desc(tradeflow_comtrade_d)) %>% # Reported by the UK (inlcudes cost, freight, insu
  slice(1:10) %>%
```

```
    select("Partner country" = country_o,
           "EU member" = eu_o,
           "UK imports (US$)" = tradeflow_comtrade_d) %>%
  kable(caption = "Top 10 UK import observations in 2010")
```

Table 1: Top 10 UK import observations in 2010

Partner country	EU member	UK imports (US$)
Germany	1	75668009770
China	0	61731379952
United States	0	56071154562
Netherlands	1	42284590441
France	1	37226836824
Norway	0	29759166142
Belgium	1	26542332275
Italy	1	22183948755
Ireland	1	20322916576
Canada	0	18977807949

```
# Top 10 UK import observations in 2020
uk_imports_2020 %>%
  arrange(desc(tradeflow_comtrade_d)) %>% # Reported by the UK (inlcudes cost, freight, insu
  slice(1:10) %>%
  select("Partner country" = country_o,
         "EU member" = eu_o,
         "UK imports (US$)" = tradeflow_comtrade_d) %>%
  kable(caption = "Top 10 UK import observations in 2020")
```

Table 2: Top 10 UK import observations in 2020

Partner country	EU member	UK imports (US$)
China	0	75387585801
Germany	1	73106644098
Netherlands	1	46242605112
United States	0	45015971784
France	1	30097924575
Belgium	1	28795052781
Italy	1	23461005557
Spain	1	17782562269

Partner country	EU member	UK imports (US$)
Ireland	1	17347578650
Poland	1	13926793946

The above two tables show the top ten origin countries for imports to the UK in 2010 and 2020. Both years are spaced from the referendum, with 2010 being well before and 2020 being the year the UK formally left the union. With this in mind, what is notable about the two tables is that there are notably more EU members in the top ten import observations for 2020 than for 2010. Only China and the United states remain of the list, while both Norway and Canada are replaced by other EU-member states. While China replaces Germany as the top origin country for imports to the UK, the US falls on the ranking by both value and position, with the Netherlands climbing upwards. Otherwise, all EU members on the 2010 ranking are still present in 2020.

```
# Top 10 UK export observations in 2010
uk_exports_2010 %>%
  arrange(desc(tradeflow_comtrade_o)) %>%
  slice(1:10) %>%
  select("Partner country" = country_d,
         "EU member" = eu_d,
         "UK exports (US$)" = tradeflow_comtrade_o) %>%
  kable(caption = "Top 10 UK export observations in 2010")
```

Table 3: Top 10 UK export observations in 2010

Partner country	EU member	UK exports (US$)
United States	0	58549442646
Germany	1	44636263455
Netherlands	1	32130229568
France	1	31618613633
Ireland	1	25674226794
Belgium	1	20185973554
Spain	1	15039389368
Switzerland	0	15003904259
Italy	1	13650847335
China	0	11169271226

```
# Top 10 UK export observations in 2020
uk_exports_2020 %>%
  arrange(desc(tradeflow_comtrade_o)) %>%
```

```
  slice(1:10) %>%
  select("Partner country" = country_d,
         "EU member" = eu_d,
         "UK exports (US$)" = tradeflow_comtrade_o) %>%
kable(caption = "Top 10 UK export observations in 2020")
```

Table 4: Top 10 UK export observations in 2020

Partner country	EU member	UK exports (US$)
United States	0	54559252906
Germany	1	39408894992
Ireland	1	27811794760
Netherlands	1	25302032234
France	1	23844116834
China	0	18029536096
Belgium	1	13645336705
Italy	1	10924072236
Spain	1	10592967561
Hong Kong SAR China	0	9379486980

Similar suggestions provided by the import tables can be found in the corresponding tables for destination countries for UK exports. From these tables, one can observe that the main destinations for UK exports remained fairly stable from 2010 to 2020. Among the top ten export destinations for the UK, nine out of ten countries are the same for 2010 and 2020. Only Switzerland fell out of the top ten observations, and was replaced by Hong Kong. It is notable from these data that the majority of top trading partners for the UK are European states (and EU-members), although the US and China help counter this image. However, these are only the very top observations for each year. The total number of trading partners is considerable higher. To get a better understanding of the bigger picture provided by the data, further analyses are in place.

```
# Get UK GDP per capita (constant 2015 USD)
uk_gdp <- WDI %>%
  filter(`Country Code` == "GBR")

# Plot
ggplot(uk_gdp, aes(x = year, y = GDPpc )) +
  geom_line(color = "#003399", linewidth = 1.1) +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2016, linetype = "dashed", color = "red") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2021, linetype = "dashed", color = "darkred") +
```

```
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 15) +
  scale_y_continuous(limits = c(35000, 50000), labels = scales::label_dollar(big.mark = " ")
  labs(
    title = "UK GDP per capita (constant 2015 US$)",
    subtitle = "Dashed lines: 2016 Brexit referendum and 2021 Trade and Cooperation Agreement
    x = "Year",
    y = NULL
  ) +
  theme_minimal(base_size = 13)
```
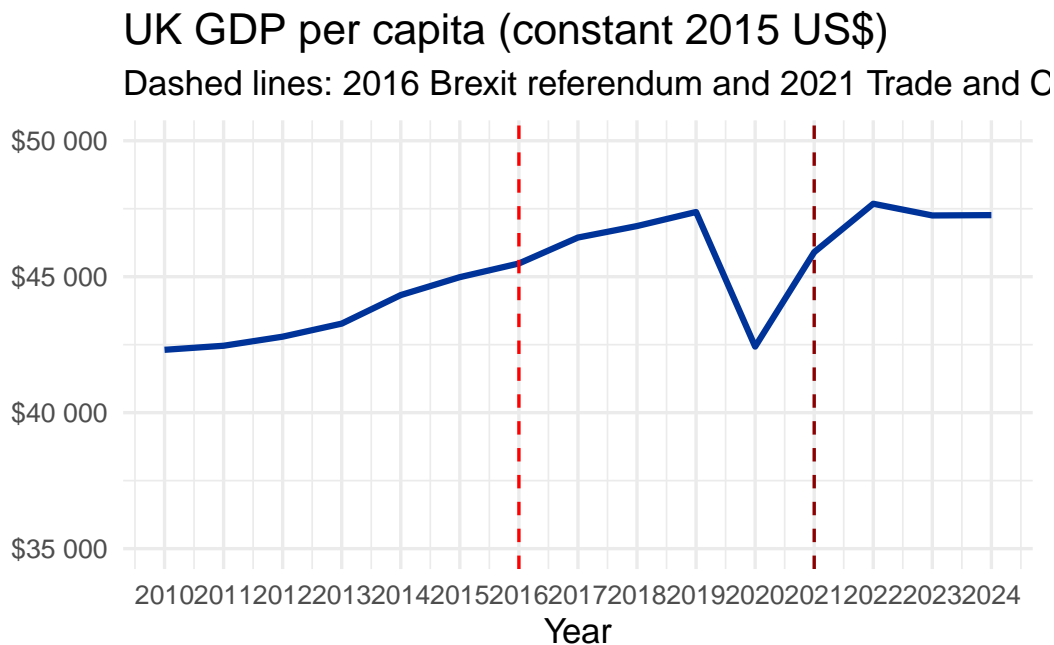

Figure 1: UK GDP per capita (constant 2015 US$), with 2016 referendum and 2021 Trade and Cooperation Agreement marked by dashed lines.

The figure shows the evolution of UK real GDP per capita (constant 2015 US$) from 2010 to 2024. The dashed vertical lines mark two key Brexit-related events: the 2016 referendum and the 2021 Trade and Cooperation Agreement (TCA). GDP per capita is a very broad and useful economic measurement that can provide general information on how an ecoonomy is developing. The plot reveals that the UK did not experience any immediate fall in GDP per capita in the first years after the Brexit referendum. It does however show a significant drop in 2020, which coincidentally was the year the UK formally left the union. This could suggest an economic shock from leaving the EU before a new trade agreement was reached, as the TCA was only implemented a year after the UK had left the union. However, the downturn

in GDP per capita in 2020 may very well be explained by other developments, such as the covid-19 pandemic. On its own, the UK series gives a sense of the country's long-run income trajectory, but can not provide information on causality. It does not tell us whether Brexit had an effect on the British economy, because we cannot see how the UK would have evolved in the absence of these shocks. For that, we need a comparison group.

To see how UK economy have developed over time, another area of exploration are the total of values of imports and exports made over time. The following figure provide this information, while grouping trade with EU-member states.

```r
# Total imports

df <- uk_imports %>%
  group_by(year, eu_o) %>%
  summarise(total_imports = sum(tradeflow_comtrade_o, na.rm = TRUE), .groups = "drop")

a <- ggplot(df, aes(year, total_imports, fill = factor(eu_o))) +
  geom_col() +
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 7) +
  scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_dollar(big.mark = " ")) +
  labs(#title = "Total UK imports in US$ (2010-2020)",
       x = NULL,
       y = NULL) +
  scale_fill_manual(
    name = "EU member \nstatus",
    labels = c("0" = "Non-members", "1" = "Members"),
    values = c("0" = "#FFCC00", "1" = "#003399")) +
  theme_minimal()

# Total exports
df <- uk_exports %>%
  group_by(year, eu_d) %>%
  summarise(total_exports = sum(tradeflow_comtrade_d, na.rm = TRUE), .groups = "drop")

b <- ggplot(df, aes(year, total_exports, fill = factor(eu_d))) +
  geom_col() +
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 7) +
  scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_dollar(big.mark = " "),
                     limits = c(0, 600000000000)) +
  labs(#title = "Total UK exports in US$ (2010-2020)",
       x = NULL,
       y = NULL) +
  scale_fill_manual(
```

```
    name = "EU member \nstatus",
    labels = c("0" = "Non-members", "1" = "Members"),
    values = c("0" = "#FFCC00", "1" = "#003399")) +
  theme_minimal()

(a + labs(subtitle = "Imports")) / (b + labs(subtitle = "Exports")) +
  plot_annotation(title = "Total UK imports and exports in US$ (2010-2020)") +
  plot_layout(guides = "collect")
```
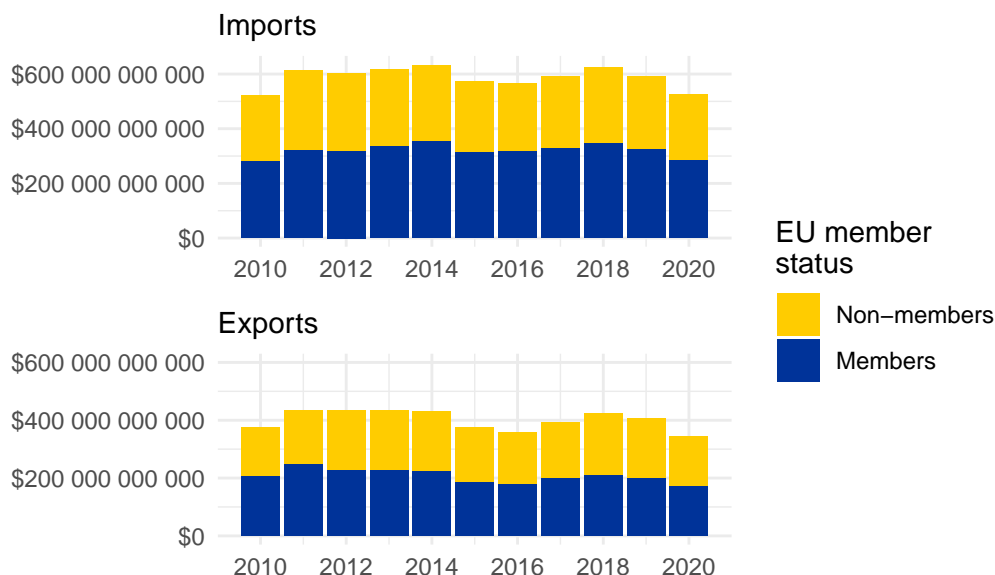

Figure 2: Total of UK imports and exports (2010-2020)

The above plots provide more information about the UK's trading relationship towards the EU member states in the period after the Brexit referendum. For both imports and exports it is possible to observe that the reported tradeflow with EU members actually increased for the first couple of years after the referendum, before sinking in the years after 2018. This also seems to be the case for tradeflows with states that are not members of the EU, although this is harder to deduce from these plots. To see whether the increase or decrease in tradeflow at any point was greater or lesser for EU-members than others requires new analyses.

Largest UK export and import flows

```
largest_export <- uk_exports %>%
  filter(!is.na(tradeflow_comtrade_o)) %>%
  slice_max(tradeflow_comtrade_o, n = 1) %>%
  select(year, iso3_d, tradeflow_comtrade_o)

largest_import <- uk_imports %>%
  filter(!is.na(tradeflow_comtrade_d)) %>%
  slice_max(tradeflow_comtrade_d, n = 1) %>%
  select(year, iso3_o, tradeflow_comtrade_d)

kable(largest_export, caption = "Largest UK export flow (2010-2020)")
```

Table 5: Largest UK export flow (2010–2020)

year	iso3_d	tradeflow_comtrade_o
2019	USA	71233628586

```
kable(largest_import, caption = "Largest UK import flow (2010-2020)")
```

Table 6: Largest UK import flow (2010–2020)

year	iso3_o	tradeflow_comtrade_d
2014	DEU	99822005227

```
summary(uk_exports$tradeflow_comtrade_o)
```

```
    Min.    1st Qu.     Median       Mean    3rd Qu.       Max.
    1796   12201120   70774128   1970471803   659921290  71233628586
    NA's
     144
```

The first table shows which country the UK exported the most to in any single year between 2010 and 2020, and the size of that export flow. The second table shows the country from which the UK imported the most in any single year over the same period. These peak flows highlight the UK's strongest bilateral trade relationships, typically reflecting major EU partners such as Germany or the Netherlands for imports, and large markets like the United States or Germany for exports

3.1.2 EU and non-EU trading partners

This section will look at the development of trading patterns between the UK and EU and non-EU partners

```
# Preparing data: UK trade with EU and non-EU partners
uk_trade_eu <- gravity %>%
  group_by(year, partner_eu) %>%
  summarise(exports = sum(tradeflow_comtrade_o, na.rm = TRUE),
            imports = sum(tradeflow_comtrade_d, na.rm = TRUE),
            .groups = "drop")
```

```
# Create plot: UK exports to EU vs non-EU
ggplot(uk_trade_eu, aes(x = year, y = exports, color = factor(partner_eu))) +
  geom_line(linewidth = 1.2) +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2016, linetype = "dashed") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2020, linetype = "dashed") +
  labs(title = "UK Exports to EU and Non-EU Partners (2010-2020)",
       x = "Year",
       y = NULL,
       color = "EU partner") +
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 11) +
  scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_dollar(big.mark = " ")) +
  theme_minimal()
```
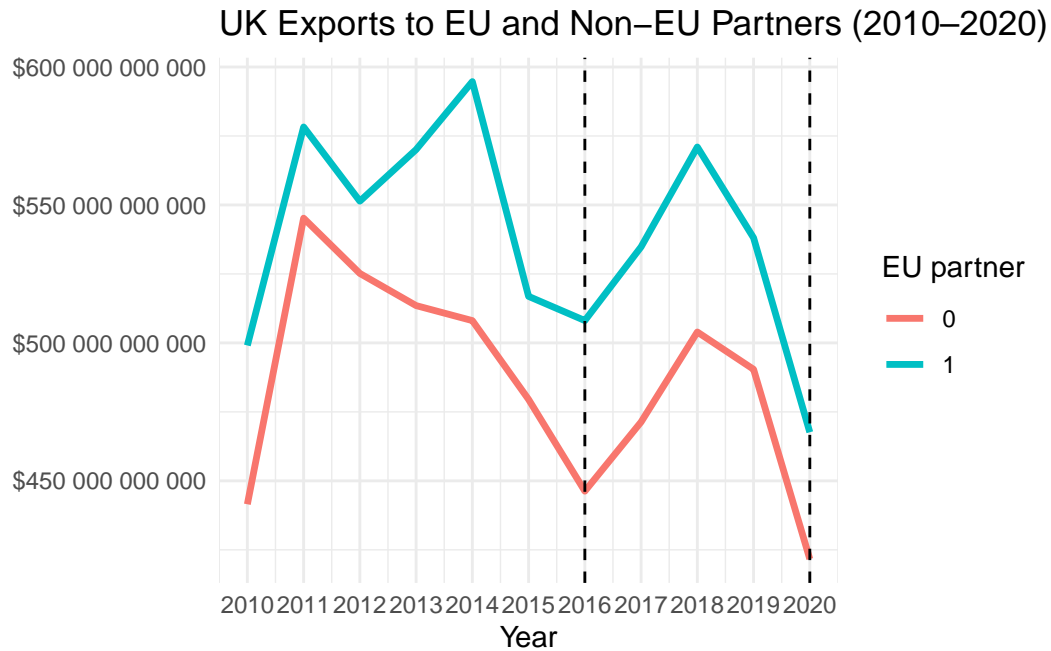
Figure 3: UK exports to EU vs non-EU

```r
# Create plot: UK imports from EU vs non-EU
ggplot(uk_trade_eu, aes(x = year, y = imports, color = factor(partner_eu, labels = c("Non-EU"
)) +
  geom_line(linewidth = 1.2) +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2016, linetype = "dashed") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2020, linetype = "dashed") +
  labs(
    title = "UK Imports from EU and Non-EU Partners (2010-2020)",
    x = "Year",
    y = NULL,
    color = "Partner type"
  ) +
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 11) +
  scale_y_continuous(labels = scales::label_dollar(big.mark = " ")) +
  theme_minimal()
```
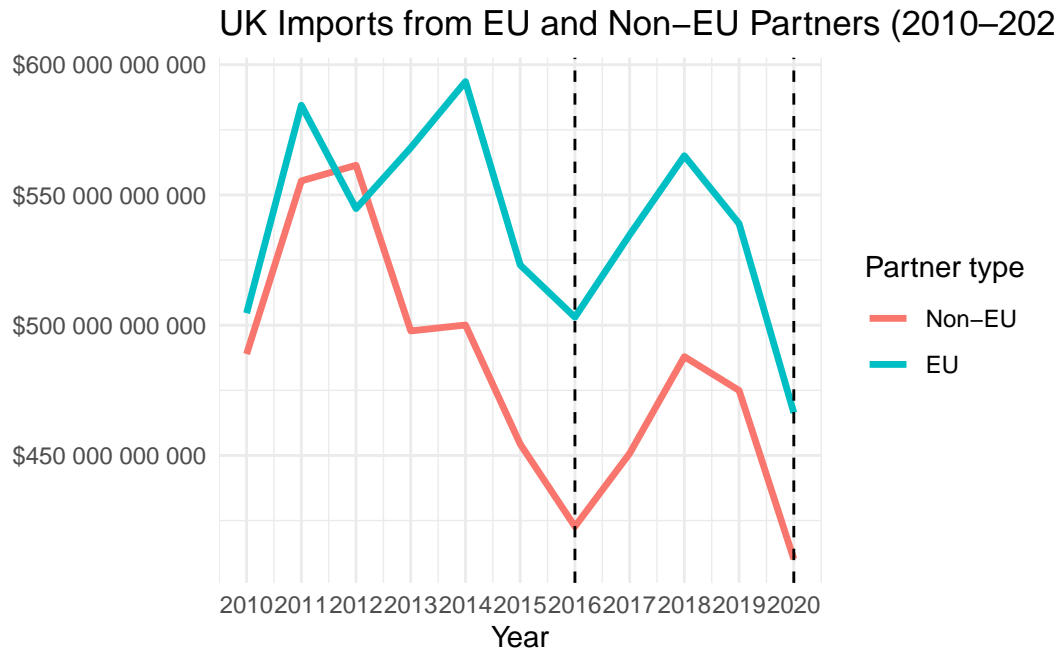
Figure 4: UK imports from EU vs non-EU

The figure compares the UK's imports from EU and non-EU partners between 2010 and 2020. Imports from EU partners are consistently higher than imports from non-EU countries throughout the period, reflecting the UK's strong integration with the EU single market before Brexit. Both series show a dip around 2020 due to the COVID shock. There is no immediate visible drop following the 2016 referendum, but the flat or slightly declining trend after 2016 suggests that import growth from EU partners slowed relative to the pre-Brexit period.

The data wrangling undergone for the next plot included another AI inquiry. The original code for the eu_share object included a duplicate observation for every year with missing values. A request was made to an AI model to tidy the existing code, and the following code chunk is a restructuring of the faulty original code. As the eu_share object only holds 11 observations it was easy to compare to the faulty version, which again made it possible to verify that the restructured code indeed had only removed the duplicate observations.

```
# Prepare data: EU share of UK trade
# Had AI rewrite this code as the previous version gave duplicate NAs that in turn made one
eu_share <- uk_trade_eu %>%
  group_by(year) %>%
  summarise(
    total_exports = sum(exports, na.rm = TRUE),
    total_imports = sum(imports, na.rm = TRUE),
```

```
    eu_exports = sum(exports[partner_eu == 1], na.rm = TRUE),
    eu_imports = sum(imports[partner_eu == 1], na.rm = TRUE),
    .groups = "drop"
  ) %>%
  mutate(
    eu_share_exports = eu_exports / total_exports,
    eu_share_imports = eu_imports / total_imports
  ) %>%
  select(year, eu_share_exports, eu_share_imports)
```

```
# Create plot: EU share of UK trade
ggplot(eu_share, aes(x = year)) +
  geom_line(aes(y = eu_share_exports, color = "Exports"), size = 1.2) +
  geom_line(aes(y = eu_share_imports, color = "Imports"), size = 1.2) +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2016, linetype = "dashed") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2020, linetype = "dashed") +
  scale_x_continuous(n.breaks = 11) +
  scale_y_continuous(labels = percent_format()) +
  labs(title = "EU Share of UK Exports and Imports",
       x = "Year",
       y = NULL,
       color = "Flow"
       ) +
  theme_minimal()
```

```
Warning: Using `size` aesthetic for lines was deprecated in ggplot2 3.4.0.
i Please use `linewidth` instead.
```
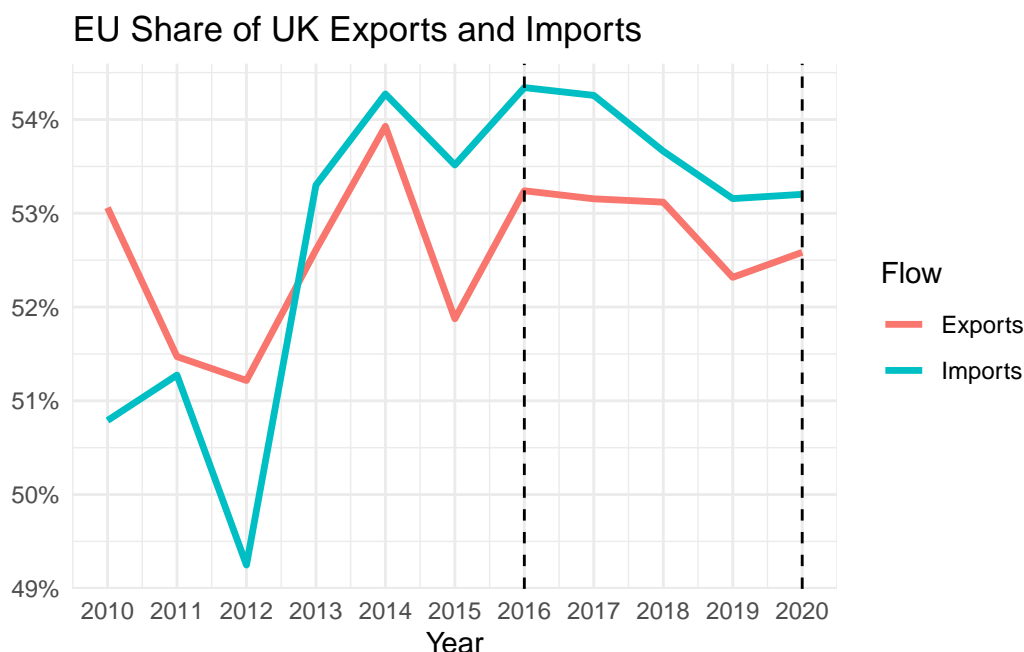
Figure 5: EU share of UK trade

The graph displays the EU's share of UK exports and imports from 2010 to 2020. Both export and import shares remain slightly above 50% across the period, indicating that the EU consistently accounts for a little over half of the UK's trade. The lines fluctuate from year to year, and a small dip appears around 2012. This may be related to broader economic conditions in Europe at the time, such as weaker demand in several EU economies, although the graph alone cannot confirm the cause. After the 2016 referendum, there is a modest downward movement, especially for imports, but the shares stabilise again in the following years. Toward 2020, both series remain close to earlier levels. The graph shows moderate fluctuations but no clear or dramatic shift in the UK's relative trade dependence on the EU during this period.

3.1.3 Selected partners

Countries were chosen because they are among the UK's trade partners, and they are all included in standard gravity datasets such as CEPII and UN Comtrade. They represent both nearby European economies and major global markets. Most have long-standing trade or historical ties with the UK, making them suitable for comparative analysis. Their inclusion ensures that it is possible to analyse bilateral trade composition and flows within a consistent gravity-model framework.

```r
trade_partners <- data.frame(
  Country = c(
    "Germany",
    "Netherlands",
    "France",
    "Italy",
    "Spain",
    "Belgium",
    "United States",
    "Switzerland",
    "Canada"
  ),
  `Key trade features` = c(
    "UK's largest EU trade partner, major machinery and automotive trade.",
    "Logistics hub (Rotterdam effect), re-exports dominate goods flows.",
    "Long-standing partner; key for manufacturing, transport, and defence industries.",
    "High-value goods, industrial machinery, and consumer products.",
    "Growing services and tourism linkages.",
    "Chemicals, pharmaceuticals, and transport equipment.",
    "The UK's largest single-country trading partner, with strong links in finance, technolog
    "Significant financial and pharmaceutical trade, with high-value exports and close invest
    "Expanding trade in energy, technology, and services, supported by the UK-Canada trade co
  )
)

kable(trade_partners, caption = "Overview: Key UK trade relationships by country included in
```

Table 7: Overview: Key UK trade relationships by country included in the analysis

Country	Key.trade.features
Germany	UK's largest EU trade partner, major machinery and automotive trade.
Netherlands	Logistics hub (Rotterdam effect), re-exports dominate goods flows.
France	Long-standing partner; key for manufacturing, transport, and defence industries.
Italy	High-value goods, industrial machinery, and consumer products.
Spain	Growing services and tourism linkages.
Belgium	Chemicals, pharmaceuticals, and transport equipment.
United States	The UK's largest single-country trading partner, with strong links in finance, technology, and services.
Switzerland	Significant financial and pharmaceutical trade, with high-value exports and close investment ties.

Country	Key.trade.features
Canada	Expanding trade in energy, technology, and services, supported by the UK–Canada trade continuity agreement.

The second figure therefore plots the cumulative change in real GDP per capita since 2010 for a set of advanced economies: Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, and the UK. Using 2010 as a common baseline highlights how the UK's growth path compares with peers over the same period. The same dashed lines indicate the 2016 referendum and the 2021 TCA.

```
# Get GDP per capita (constant 2015 USD) for selected countries
dat <- WDI %>%
  filter(`Country Code` %in% c("GBR", "DEU", "FRA", "ITA", "ESP", "NLD", "BEL", "CHE", "CAN")
  rename(country = `Country Code`)

# Calculate cumulative percent change since 2010
dat_growth <- dat %>%
  group_by(country) %>%
  mutate(
    base_2010 = GDPpc[year == 2010],
    pct_change = ((GDPpc / base_2010) - 1) * 100
  ) %>%
  ungroup()

# Plot with bold UK line
ggplot(dat_growth, aes(x = year, y = pct_change, group = country)) +
  geom_line(aes(color = country), alpha = 0.4, size = 1) +
  geom_line(
    data = filter(dat_growth, country == "GBR"),
    aes(x = year, y = pct_change, color = country),
    size = 1.8
  ) +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2016, linetype = "dashed", color = "red") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 2021, linetype = "dashed", color = "darkred") +
  labs(
    title = "Cumulative change in real GDP per capita since 2010",
    subtitle = "Dashed lines: 2016 Brexit referendum and 2021 Trade and Cooperation Agreement
    x = "Year",
    y = "Percent change since 2010",
    color = "Country",
    caption = "Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators (accessed 2025-11-01)"
```
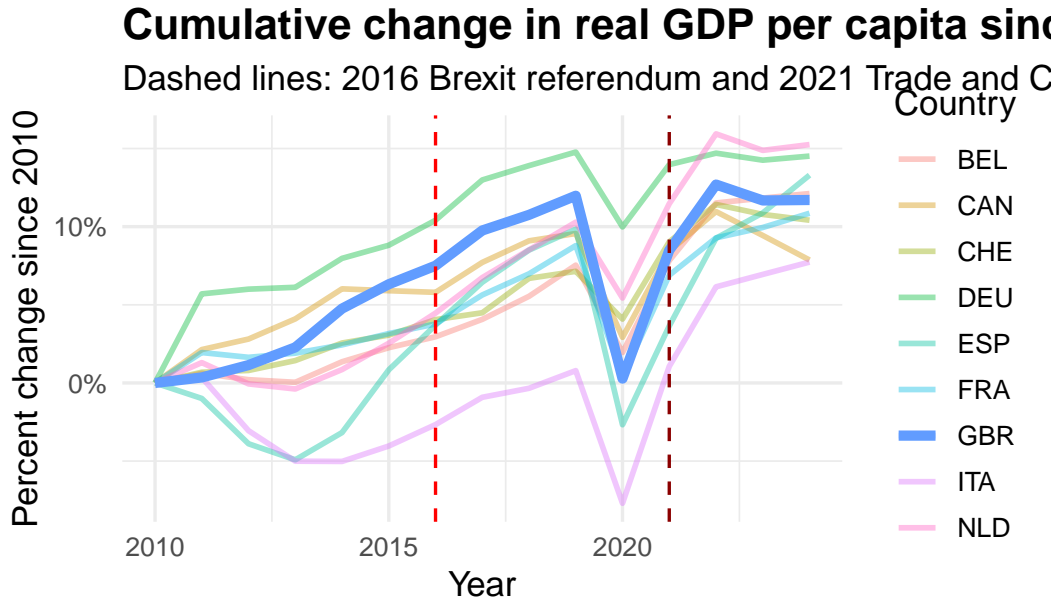
```
) +
scale_y_continuous(labels = percent_format(scale = 1)) +
theme_minimal(base_size = 13) +
theme(
  plot.title = element_text(face = "bold"),
  plot.caption = element_text(hjust = 0.5, size = 10)
)
```

Cumulative change in real GDP per capita sinc

Dashed lines: 2016 Brexit referendum and 2021 Trade and C

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators (accessed 2025–11–01)

Figure 6: Figure: Cumulative change in real GDP per capita since 2010. Dashed lines mark the 2016 Brexit referendum and 2021 Trade and Cooperation Agreement.

To make the UK line appear bolder in the figure, the code first plots all countries using geom line () with lower opacity, alpha (0,4) and a moderate size. Then, added a second geom line layer that specifically filters the data for the United Kingdom (data = filter(dat_growth, country == "United Kingdom"), and plots it again with a thicker line, for a contrast effect.

From this comparative view, it becomes easier to evaluate relative performance. We can see whether the UK's cumulative growth accelerates or decelerates around the Brexit milestones compared with countries that were not directly exposed to Brexit-related trade shocks. While all countries experience a sharp dip around 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

The row represents the single largest UK import flow in your dataset between 2010 and 2020. The variable iso3_o shows the origin country (DEU, meaning Germany) and iso3_d shows

the destination country (GBR, the United Kingdom). The year variable indicates when this trade flow occurred. The import value itself is recorded in tradeflow_comtrade_d, which is the Comtrade-reported trade flow from Germany to the UK in that specific year. The variables pop_o and pop_d give the populations of the origin and destination countries, while gdp_o and gdp_d refer to their GDP levels. The variable distcap represents the distance between the countries' capital cities, and eu_o and eu_d indicate whether the origin and destination countries were members of the EU. All of these variables together describe the economic and geographic context of this specific trade flow, allowing you to analyse not only its value but also the conditions under which it occurred.

3.2 Data modelling (regression analyses)

```
# Prepare data
regdata <- gravity %>%
  mutate(
    ln_exports = log(tradeflow_comtrade_o + 1),
    post2016 = if_else(year >= 2016, 1, 0)
  )

# Run model
model <- lm(ln_exports ~ partner_eu * post2016, data = regdata)

# Show regression results in the knitted report
summary(model)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = ln_exports ~ partner_eu * post2016, data = regdata)

Residuals:
    Min      1Q   Median      3Q      Max
-14.3234  -1.6609   0.0447   2.1930   7.3175

Coefficients:
                    Estimate Std. Error t value         Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)         17.72818    0.06925 256.008 <0.0000000000000002 ***
partner_eu           4.09955    0.18693  21.931 <0.0000000000000002 ***
post2016            -0.03746    0.10381  -0.361            0.718
partner_eu:post2016 -0.02923    0.27626  -0.106            0.916
---
```

```
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 3.091 on 4174 degrees of freedom
  (981 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared:  0.1743,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.1737
F-statistic: 293.8 on 3 and 4174 DF,  p-value: < 0.00000000000000022
```

```r
reg_data <- uk_imports %>%
  mutate(tradeflow_comtrade_d = tradeflow_comtrade_d/1000000)

m1 <- lm(tradeflow_comtrade_d ~ eu_o, data = reg_data)

m2 <- lm(tradeflow_comtrade_d ~ distcap + eu_o, data = reg_data)


summary(m2)
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = tradeflow_comtrade_d ~ distcap + eu_o, data = reg_data)

Residuals:
   Min     1Q Median     3Q    Max
-12047  -1866  -1441   -377  87584

Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value          Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 2633.34248  428.54398   6.145     0.000000000933 ***
distcap       -0.15335    0.05123  -2.993            0.00279 **
eu_o        9747.82289  639.94665  15.232 < 0.0000000000000002 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Residual standard error: 9121 on 2420 degrees of freedom
  (162 observations deleted due to missingness)
Multiple R-squared:  0.1337,    Adjusted R-squared:  0.133
F-statistic: 186.7 on 2 and 2420 DF,  p-value: < 0.00000000000000022
```

4.0 Conclusion

The research question asked how the United Kingdom's trading patterns with EU and non-EU partners have changed since the 2016 referendum. The descriptive evidence shows that the

EU remained the UK's main trading partner throughout 2010–2020, consistently accounting for slightly more than half of exports and imports. At the same time, the figures indicate some gradual shifts. Both export and import shares to the EU decline modestly after 2016, especially on the import side, suggesting that trade with non-EU partners grew somewhat faster in relative terms. These adjustments are small and do not reflect any sharp break, but they point to a slow rebalancing rather than a complete change in trade structure.

At the same timw, the overall movement of the EU and non-EU series also suggests that broader global conditions influenced UK trade during this period. The dip around 2012 aligns with economic weakness in parts of Europe, while the fluctuations in 2020 correspond to the worldwide COVID-19 shock also visible in the GDP per capita comparison. Because these external factors overlap with the post-referendum years, the descriptive patterns cannot isolate the specific effect of Brexit. Within these constraints, the results indicate relatively stable UK–EU trade levels, with indications of a modest shift toward non-EU partners after 2016.

5.0 Limitations

The analysis is subject to several limitations linked to the scope of the data and the period covered. The gravity dataset used in the project did not include observations after 2021, which limits the ability to assess UK–EU trade developments in the most recent years. This also means that the period following the full implementation of the Trade and Cooperation Agreement cannot be analysed in detail. In addition, the years around 2020–2021 were strongly affected by the global COVID-19 pandemic, which caused large and widespread disruptions in international trade. These shocks make it difficult to separate changes related to Brexit from changes driven by global supply-chain disruptions and demand fluctuations during the pandemic. These disruptions make it difficult to separate Brexit-related changes from broader global shocks in this part of the dataset. Finally, the descriptive patterns presented in the graphs cannot on their own establish causal effects. While the figures help illustrate broad developments in trade shares and trade volumes, they do not isolate the impact of any single event or policy change. Taken together, these limitations imply that the results should be interpreted as descriptive patterns within the available time frame rather than definitive evidence of Brexit-induced changes.

6.0 Bibliography

Conte, M., P. Cotterlaz and T. Mayer (2022), "The CEPII Gravity database". CEPII Working Paper N°2022-05, July 2022.

World Bank. (2024). World Development Indicators. Retrieved from https://data.worldbank.org/source/world-development-indicators