

Chapter 1. Food security and trade: an overview Introduction. This chapter seeks to link the concerns of developing countries with respect to trade, food security and economic policy in the context of the Doha Round negotiations.

High in the central Rift Valley, the weather is volatile and unforgiving. He has no irrigation, so if the rains do not fall, his crops will fail. Demissie is 52 years old. He has a wife and eight children, and grows maize, wheat, teff a cereal and white pea beans in a small farm not far from the cradle of the Ethiopian famine of In international development terms, he is what is known as "food insecure. A stable future is all too often within sight, but a drought or a drop in commodity prices could mean dependence on expensive emergency relief just to survive. It only sustains them. The problem is that: The solution to this problem might seem fairly obvious: Connecting smallholders to large, international commodity markets is one way of fighting food insecurity. It allows them, Ferris says, "To smooth their incomes, to buy food when they need it. While this may be appropriate for coffee and cocoa producers, however, it is not practical for white pea bean farmers like Demissie. As the scale and relative homogeneity of the baked bean industry makes securing a guaranteed Fair Trade supply extremely difficult, the project focused instead on establishing direct market linkages. Fifteen thousand smallholders, who depend on the income from the bean crop to feed their families over the difficult autumn months, received training and superior seed strains. They increased their yields and were able to sell their produce for export rather than just to local traders. Significantly, the farmers were involved in the project from the planning stage onwards. In , drought struck in Ethiopia, decimating the bean crop. Buyers in the UK, nervous that the supply might be unreliable and concerned that consumers would not want to buy Ethiopian food at a time of scarcity, cut their orders by 50 percent. Dadi laments the "unwillingness of buyers in developed countries to source beans from smallholders in Ethiopia and other developing countries", but describes himself as optimistic about the future of food security in Ethiopia. As Demissie said, talking about his hopes for the future, "Better prices would make a real difference to our lives.

Chapter 2 : Food security - Wikipedia

The lesson that many took away from this period is the role of food security in national security. What many missed is the role of climate change in food security. Barriers to trade leave us vulnerable to food insecurity.

Paradoxically, of the one billion people classified as food insecure by the United Nations, about 800 million are smallholder farmers in developing economies. Some of these producers are exporting luxuries such as coffee, cocoa, exotic fruits and sugar for consumers in developed economies. This lack of nourishment can lead to stunting, weakened immune systems and more vulnerability to disease and infection. Children are particularly vulnerable, as periods of under-nutrition can hinder both their physical and mental development. Seasonal hunger is a serious problem for many coffee and cocoa farmers. Smallholder coffee farmers in three Central American countries were found to have no guarantee of food security for three to four months every year. Fairtrade certification actively supports producers in developing countries through importing and retailing their products. Moreover, acting as a social movement, fair trade campaigns for changes in the conventional terms and conditions of international trade which disadvantage producers in developing economies. The movement prioritises socioeconomic factors by working to facilitate market access for producers, paying producers a fair minimum price which provides producers a guaranteed price when the world market price falls below this level. The stability of the Fairtrade minimum price means that producer cooperatives may be able to obtain finances and credit services. Cooperatives also gain security from longer-term contracts with exporters through the Fairtrade market. The idea is to make farmers less reliant on one crop for their income and offer ways to use their land to produce food. Sepkazi lives on her farm in Macondo, Colombia, with his wife Alicia, children and grandchildren. For Cantillo, one of the benefits of Fairtrade has been better and more stable prices for his bananas, which has improved his income and the food security of his family. When we began growing bananas, it was tough. There were some days when we only had one meal. Since we joined Fairtrade, everything has changed. We now have all of our daily meals and we have also managed from the extra income from Fairtrade to buy farm animals which provides an extra source of food, and the opportunity to bring in more income by selling the animals. Fairtrade quinoa being harvested in Ecuador. These include setting up a revolving fund that allows farmers to access quick loans to make emergency purchases of food. Another is a programme focusing on child nutrition that encourages farmers to grow food crops such as beans, rice, tomatoes and corn and diversify diets so that they are less reliant on food purchases. Growing network To help tackle the problem of seasonal hunger, the Fairtrade movement has also given birth to some very interesting financial institutions such as Shared Interest, Oikocredit and Cordiad which provide social finance for innovative trade mechanisms for smallholder farmer groups such as pre-finance for individual orders, credits and loans for stock facilities and pre-harvest loans when cash flow is a major problem for producers. Fairtrade works best when it operates as part of a bigger system within a framework of collaboration backed by supportive policy at national and local level and coupled with meaningful commitments from business. There is still much work to be done to continue the positive impact of Fairtrade the movement needs to keep the pressure on both policy makers and business leaders to ensure consumers can choose Fairtrade at the point of purchase. In the UK, Fairtrade companies are having to fight hard to maintain their position on the supermarket shelf and the movement needs to redouble its efforts to communicate with consumers to explain how their purchase of Fairtrade goods can help people like Sepkazi and the Cantillo family keep their heads above water even when times are tough. Read other articles here.

Chapter 3 : USDA ERS - Indonesian Agricultural Growth Leads to Increased Trade and Food Security

While food security is a legitimate policy objective, some stockholding programmes are considered to distort trade when they involve purchases from farmers at prices fixed by the governments, known as "supported" or "administered" prices.

Food security and international trade Share this blog post As the Eleventh WTO Ministerial Conference is in progress at Buenos Aires, this column looks at the role trade plays in ensuring food security through increased enhanced international cooperation on a multilateral scale. Although food security has long been recognized as a universal human right, million people worldwide remained undernourished in In addition, the number of hungry people around the world increased by 38 million between and , marking a reversal in the trend of falling hunger seen over the past 20 years. Historically, international trade has helped reduce food insecurity by connecting regions with limited agricultural potential and large populations to regions with comparative advantages in agriculture. It has also provided consumers access to a more diversified and nutritious food basket. However, for trade to improve food security for the greatest number of people, greater international cooperation is necessary. Such cooperation has twice failed to materialize since These two failures illustrate the need for a new approach to global trade integration that avoids their pitfalls and addresses the long-term problems of trade and food insecurity. The WTO should declare the end of the failed Doha Round so that new multilateral negotiations might begin with a new approach that fully accounts for the current realities of global trade and takes advantage of existing means for extending more manageable agreements to the full conference of parties. The Doha Round also proposed to cover an extensive set of topics, including agriculture, industry, services, and intellectual property. Designing an agreement that satisfies so many countries has proven to be an almost impossible challenge – sixteen years after the start of these negotiations, the Round has still not been completed. However, with the failure of the Round, these benefits have not materialized. The first step to addressing the failure of the Doha Development Agenda, is the revitalization of the multilateral trade negotiations. Regional and bilateral trade negotiations should remain a stepping stone toward multilateral outcomes, not a substitute or a default choice. Such regional agreements may help, but they have serious limitations: These agreements are also unlikely to address key issues, such as domestic subsidies in agriculture. Further, because exporters receive access to key markets under regional trade agreements, their incentives to lobby for a more open trade agenda are removed, or even reversed. For all of these reasons, the multilateral approach remains the best and more inclusive direction for trade integration in the long run. A moratorium on major regional trade deals would be desirable until multilateral talks are redefined and restarted. To move forward with multilateral negotiations though the end of the Doha Round must be declared and a new round begun afresh. A new WTO Round should fully capture the political economy constraints faced by policymakers with limited political capital to spend on trade liberalization issues. The new Round should also favor regular incremental gains and consolidations instead of major breakthroughs once a decade. Such a Round could have one or several of the following features. First, the plurilateral approach could be utilized more often; in this approach, trade concessions are negotiated between a group of countries and are extended to other WTO members due the Most Favored Nation clause. Second, the domain of the negotiations could be extended to allow for concessions in new sectors; for example, rich countries could accept ambitious cuts in agricultural tariffs if the negotiations were expanded to include services. Third, side payments could be implemented to compensate countries that do not benefit from the trade deal and thus gain their approval; for example, Aid for Trade is sometimes seen as a way of compensating the losers from a trade deal. A new Round of negotiations should also take into account the evolving reality of international trade: Price volatility has been another major obstacle to capturing the full benefits of integrated trade for improving food security, most clearly seen during the global food price crisis of Global agricultural markets experienced record growth in some commodity prices during this period. Many different factors contributed to the price surge, which was exacerbated by misguided beggar-thy-neighbor trade policies meant to address domestic food security concerns. New export restrictions, increased export taxes, and decreased import tariffs on agricultural commodities reinforced the initial shocks to global agricultural prices. Beyond trade policy instruments, the

creation of food stocks has also been a common policy response to recent global food crises. However, food stocks often have too many objectives to be truly effective: Furthermore, food stocks are costly to maintain and difficult to distribute effectively and fairly. Poverty-based cash transfers can also compensate for other negative shocks from which poor households, both urban and rural, may suffer. Indeed, cash transfers are the best policy with which to help poor urban and rural households in times of high food prices; [2] thus, transfer policies should be used instead of food stocks, when possible. The WTO currently has limited capacity to address these policy issues. For example, there is no discipline on the use of export taxes by WTO members, and quantitative export restrictions are permitted to prevent food shortages. Several approaches could be used to address this issue. First, agreements on the binding of current export taxes, and perhaps the banning of new ones, can be negotiated on a plurilateral basis. Finally, it could be desirable to consider a Pigovian tax: These fees could go to an international fund to help vulnerable countries pay their food import bill in time of crisis or food shortage. Moving forward, basic WTO rules need to be respected and strengthened. The WTO offers an international public good, particularly through its rules regarding i non-discrimination which give countries an equal chance to compete ; ii national treatment which ensure that commitments to open markets are not negated by behind-the-border measures that penalize foreign suppliers ; iii binding of tariffs which prevent countries from increasing tariffs beyond an agreed-upon level ; and iv transparency which make the trading system more trustworthy and equitable. The WTO also already offers two instruments for protection against systemic risk: These instruments, and the multilateral approach as a whole, provide important advantages for trade liberalization and should continue to be supported. As we move toward the Eleventh WTO Ministerial Conference in Buenos Aires, the role of trade in reducing hunger and ensuring food security must be prioritized. This calls for enhanced international cooperation on a multilateral scale.

The paper concludes that an assessment of the interplay between food security and international trade benefits from evaluation that draws on multiple disciplinary and methodological perspectives, and it is through such an exercise that common ground in the debate is most likely to be.

We are no longer able to live on without trade. Moreover, trade is indispensable for the supply of inputs such as fertilizer, feed, machinery, and fuel. Without trade, it is impossible to maintain a viable agriculture. Does this mean we should comprehensively eliminate tariffs and regulations in order to further advance international trade of agricultural products? The answer is no. Liberalization without consideration of the diversity within countries will increase the instability of agriculture and food, and put food security in danger. When world food price spiked during and , many countries that export agricultural products unsurprisingly restricted their exports, and made domestic food supply the priority over exports. This caused social instability in some importing countries. It also made us to reacknowledge the risk of depending on food shipments from overseas. Given the ongoing expansion of scale and concentration in agricultural production, we face greater uncertainty especially where a few countries occupy a large portion of the production of a particular commodity. Negotiations on agricultural products have been historically aiming at advancing trade liberalization, while trying to reach balanced results. While exporting countries have been seeking to open markets, importing countries have gradually improved access. Unfortunately growing imports has been one of the causes for weakening the domestic agricultural production base and increased dependence on foreign countries for food. If this tendency goes too far, there are valid concern to national food security. Indeed, there could be unexpected circumstances where exporting countries have no other choice but to limit their export. For example, Japanese livestock and dairy sectors are heavily dependent on imports of feed e. If the import of grains, such as corns and soybeans are limited, it would have a serious impact on domestic production. From the viewpoint of farmers in an importing country, it is hard to avoid thinking that we regrettably have been subjected to unbalanced trade rules driven by exporting countries. In recent years, the instability surrounding food and agriculture has been growing with increased food demands by the expansion of population and economic growth of emerging countries, as well as the influence of climate change on production. There is still a high degree of concern about the mid- and long-term of supply-demand balance of food, and the risk of depending on food imports is growing Table 1. Unlike industrial sectors, agriculture is a sector that is heavily affected by natural and geographical conditions. Since those conditions differ widely from country to country, and from region to region, measures to adjust these differences are necessary. Currently, the only justifiable measure to do so is through tariffs. To ensure coexistence and mutual development of diverse agriculture in each country, tariffs must be set ap appropriately and allow flexibility on each item. Although in some cases trade liberalization itself tends to be regarded as a goal, especially in the food and agricultural sector, trade liberalization should be regarded as a measure to fulfill the increasing demand for foods in each country and be pursued on the premise of mutual coexistence of their agriculture. In reaction to expansion of trade liberalization, it is also increasingly required to establish proper Sanitary and Phytosanitary SPS Measures to prevent invasion of disease and pest. Currently known facts show that the level of liberalization in TPP seems beyond what we have not experienced in the past, and it will force us to compete with huge exporting countries such as the U. At the same time, we need to be committed to strengthening approaches to maintain and expand our agricultural production base to ensure a stable supply of food for our people. While the size of world food market is predicted to expand in the future with a growing population and economy, it has become more important for farmers to seek out foreign markets via trade. Increased exports are expected to be a driving force for further development of agriculture. JA Group will put more effort into expanding exports of high quality Japanese agricultural and livestock products. In the days ahead, with the developments of mega-FTAs such as TPP, the effects of international trade will be much more significant. While trade of agricultural products is expected to continue to grow and it is emphasized agricultural trade contributes to meeting the demands of importing countries, at the same time, it is important to understand that new imports

could have a wide impact on the agriculture base in the importing country, which is directly linked to its national food security. In regard to this point, we would like to emphasize that it is necessary for exporting countries to recognize such consequences.

Chapter 5 : Effect of International Trade on the Global Food Security

The evolving food security agenda offers governments a chance to address some urgent concerns and strengthen the multilateral trade system. The Doha Agenda has been overtaken by time and events. Many of the lessons for food security of the past decade point to the need for new rules. International.

Food security and trade: It defines the changing conceptual basis of food security and presents some indicators and estimates of trends in aggregate food security status. This is followed by a review of approaches to food security at the household level, and of frameworks for investigating the wide range of factors influencing food security status at this level of disaggregation. The second part of the chapter is concerned with the theoretical underpinnings of trade policies and strategies. It reviews the conventional or orthodox approach to trade theory and its predictions, as well as some of the criticisms of this approach and of the supporting evidence. Some of the associated risks for developing countries of further trade liberalization are reviewed. The final section links the two issues of food security and of trade liberalization, highlighting the implications at the national and household levels. At one end of the spectrum food security implies the availability of adequate supplies at a global and national level; at the other end, the concern is with adequate nutrition and well-being. In this section, issues surrounding food security at the national level are investigated first, before a review of approaches to household food security. The question of food security in intra-household relationships will not be pursued here. However, during the s per capita growth of world agricultural production slowed. World cereal output [2] , for example, fell from a peak of kg per person in the mid s to kg per person in , although it has since risen to kg per person in [3]. The results of such statistics are evident in the fact that in , million were estimated by the FAO to be undernourished, with million living in developing countries. In addition, the fall in absolute numbers is too low to achieve the WFS goal of reducing the numbers of undernourished by half by , since this would require an additional reduction of 20 million undernourished individuals each year until that date [4].

Food security indicators The Committee on World Food Security, a body set up in by the UN World Food Conference to oversee developments in food security, adopted in the early s the recognition of food security as a tripartite concept, reflecting the criteria of availability, access and stability. Similarly, the OECD suggests that food security has three dimensions: Chapter 2 discusses these concepts in more detail. Attempts to capture trends in variables that are likely to reflect food security [5] , can be broadly categorized into two interrelated sets: The United States Department of Agriculture USDA [6] evaluates two aspects of food security, availability and distribution, both of which capture the extent of the shortfall, and analyse predicted trends through to The most recent study covers 67 countries that have been, or are, potential food aid recipients. Two key indicators are used: The Status Quo indicator provides a safety net criterion, whilst the Nutrition gap indicator gives a comparison of relative well-being. In some regions, the size of food gaps is quite small relative to commercial imports, meaning that if imports grew at a slightly higher rate the projected gaps could close for example in North Africa and in Latin America and the Caribbean. In Asia [8] however, the ratio of the nutrition gap to commercial imports is about 20 percent and in SSA it is projected to be percent. It is highly unlikely that the gap can be filled. Food imports would need to grow by 10 percent per year in SSA and 4. At a more aggregate level, the FAO Committee on Food Security reviews a set of six indicators derived from observations of the global cereals market. Although these indicators see Box 1. Ratio of supplies to requirements in the 5 main exporters Ratio of closing stock in the 5 main exporters to their domestic consumption plus exports Cereal production in the 3 main importers China, India and CIS. A key difficulty in interpreting these indicators is that they make no reference to the ability of a country to meet increased import requirements. For some countries the availability of foreign exchange will be a binding constraint. Financial constraints can, however, limit the role of imports in filling the shortfall between production and consumption in many countries. Low commodity prices, for example, may limit export earning potential. The USDA [9] notes that the ratio of foreign exchange availability to food imports is not one to one, but is higher, meaning that a 1. The second set of food security indicators relates to indicators of changes in world markets, which in turn indicate the potential to meet food shortfalls. Two key primary indicators are

world food price stability and world food price levels. These affect both the ability to finance imports via export earnings and changes in the food import bill, themselves potential indicators of changes in the food security situation. The European Commission, for example, suggests that the instability of world markets is mainly transferred to each country via the import price of cereals [10]. The aggregate impact on a country therefore depends on cereal imports as a share of total imports, the price elasticity of imports and the capacity to finance imports via export earnings. Vanzetti concludes that the linking of domestic and world markets that would occur under a free trade regime with no government stocks would reduce the variability of the world price of grain by one-third. However, he cautions that any analysis of the instability of food consumption needs to distinguish between instability due to fluctuations in national production and instability of unit import costs, i. The authors find that this indicator is relatively large for small Island Developing Countries 0. However, the ratio is much smaller for larger economies such as India 0. In contrast to the above, Paarlberg [13] argues against using primary indicators of changes in international grain markets as indicators of food security, because most food insecure countries still depend only lightly on imports of grain from the world market. Paarlberg states that importing countries often do better overall when world grain prices are high, because prices often rise under conditions of rapid international growth. Indeed, in most countries per capita cereal consumption was steady or even expanded. By contrast, the s that were characterized by low world market prices and severe food crises were also marked by global recession. However, Paarlberg does acknowledge that some poor countries have come to rely on food imports to a greater extent during the last three decades. In the light of this discussion, it is apparent that potential indicators should reflect changes in the food import requirements of developing countries, and in their ability to finance any increase in the import bill see also Chapter 4. They should also be able to capture the effect of the gap between an increase in the import bill and any increase in domestic production and potentially exports as a result of a world price increase. Two indicators may prove useful in distinguishing the impact of a weak supply response in agriculture in some developing countries: In economies where the agriculture sector is less flexible than in other sectors facing improved incentives, one would expect the first indicator to increase at a greater rate than the second. In assessing the potential for increased export earnings from agriculture, it is also important to determine changes not only in the total value of agricultural and merchandise trade, but in their shares of total exports and in the diversification of the export portfolio. This brief review of potential indicators points to the fact that those capturing the ability to finance import requirements, by for example export earnings, are likely to be more robust indicators of food security than either those based on the primary indicators of price levels or price instability, or those based upon trends in stocks and flows in global cereal markets. Household food security The ability to ensure adequate food security hinges on the ability to identify vulnerable households. Chapter 2 reviews many of the links between food availability and nutrition. Here we focus on the broad picture. Vulnerability refers to the full range of factors that place people at risk of becoming food insecure. The degree of vulnerability of an individual, household or group of persons is determined by their exposure to the risk factors and their ability to cope with or withstand stressful situations. Generally, vulnerable households will constitute three groups: A significant increase in the consumer price of staple foods might be an example. It can be assumed that the first two categories will be relatively poor both in terms of income and assets, and it is also likely that the third category will have a fragile resource base and other characteristics which make its income sources uncertain. Having defined who the poor are, the second step is to identify their household characteristics: A frequent problem in delineating those sections of the population most vulnerable, or at risk from changes in policy direction, is the lack of baseline data regarding household income and consumption patterns. The principal concern of this volume is the way that trade liberalization impinges on food consumption through food availability, food access, and the stability of food supplies. The notion of household entitlement to food, derived from the work of Amartya Sen [14] , is now widely used to investigate issues related to both food security and nutrition. Chapter 2 refers to this approach, while Chapter 5 elaborates the concepts as they relate to policy variables. A number of these activities may be pursued by the same member of each household, or by different members. In addition, transfers from sources external to the household, i. It presupposes the availability of food, since for demand to be effective it must be capable of

being transformed into consumption. This applies as much to food grown for household consumption as to that purchased with income generated through other activities or from transfers. The former entails a decision to retain part or the whole of the output of productive activity, as opposed to selling it and purchasing food or non-food commodities. Demand is expressed in these decisions. Household activity or transfers do not directly result in access to food, for there are a number of intervening stages that mediate the process. Both governments and agencies concerned to augment household food security intervene in order to mediate between potential and reality. In the first place, the resource endowment of the household will determine its capacity to produce or to trade. If what might have appeared as a transitory problem is not to become chronic, the replenishment of productive capability should be a necessary part of programmes aimed at reversing this process. Physical resources by themselves, however, may be inadequate, and the upgrading or changing of the range of skills possessed by household members may be a necessary component of any programme. Consequently, training in new agricultural techniques, or in the necessary skills required by local industries or trades, can form an integral component of food security interventions. For many poor households, particularly those whose resource base has been eroded by drought, additional resources are the primary requisite if their productive base is to be restored. Recognition of this is apparent in the increasing emphasis on development programmes by governments, agencies and donors alike. For other households, both rural and urban, access to productive resources may be less relevant. These will seek, according to their location and particular skills, to generate entitlement to food through trade or direct employment. The promotion of income-generating activities, both local employment opportunities and self-employment particularly those associated with the rural informal sector, forms a second essential approach to food security. Moreover, in circumstances where both the outcome of productive activity is always uncertain and the purchasing power of cash-generating activities is subject to sudden and dramatic shifts, it is both probable and desirable that households will seek to diversify their occupations. This may be either through the principal income earner undertaking a variety of activities, or through different household members generating income or produce from a variety of tasks. Here again, policies designed to promote food security might also simultaneously address resource and skill constraints. Apart from the choice insofar as one exists between producing food or non-food crops, farm households also make decisions about whether to retain or sell the food they produce. To some extent, these decisions are dictated by the existence, non-and efficiency of marketing infrastructures and of household storage facilities. Where either of these is inadequate, inopportune selling in unfavourable markets can have a detrimental effect on food security. Inadequate storage facilities will, in most circumstances, lead to heavy storage losses, significantly affecting the seasonal availability of food. The provision of marketing infrastructures is essential not only for traded income, derived through both farm and non-farm activity, and food and non-food production. Its absence in rural areas will also impede the transfer of essential food and non-food commodities, and so reduce the incentive for household economic activity. Finally, transfers from the state or individuals can augment entitlement to food. Typically, these latter sources of entitlement take the form of cash payments or gifts, although in-kind payments and remittances are also a common occurrence. In the latter case, the household is faced with the previously discussed choice of sale or retention. In both cases there is likely to be a basket of essential cash purchases that households will wish to undertake, and cash remaining can be used to purchase food. The actual mix of food and non-food essentials that are purchased will be determined by both availability and price, with both absolute and relative consumer prices being a crucial determinant of household food security. It is important to recognize, however, that access to food through any of these entitlement endowments contributes only to the availability of food to the household.

Chapter 6 : Trade and food security are linked " and both are in danger | GreenBiz

The West African economy is an informal economy. So trade facilitation is about working with informal trade." So stated Laurent Bossard, Director of the Sahel and West Africa Club (SWAC) at the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the Hague last week.

Trade and food security in West Africa Byiers, B. Trade and food security in West Africa. The West African economy is an informal economy. So trade facilitation is about working with informal trade. SWAC was joined by various Netherlands-based thinkers on regional trade, markets and agriculture to discuss issues that might inform a new multi-donor programme for trade facilitation in West Africa being prepared by the Dutch along with the European Union and the United States. This programme could be one of the first things the new Dutch government will work on. Though anyone working on the region is acutely aware of the need to take account of informal and unrecorded trade, for governments and external partners to take informal economic activity as a starting point rather than wishing it away is an important, positive development. But it is only one step forward, given the challenge then faced in actually designing and implementing suitable support programmes. But taking the informal sector as a starting point presents a paradox: Indeed, some people make their living from price differences for the same good across borders, and others from payments to navigate border bureaucracy. Furthermore, border agents who boost their salary through bribes can also resist efficiency-boosting reforms, making an indomitable coalition against change. So, while accepting informality as a core characteristic is important, promoting trade needs to find a balance between allowing for informality and helping to protect those engaged, while also seeking efficiency gains to improve trade flows across and around borders. Bridging top-down and bottom-up The SWAC report potentially offers some entry points as well as beautiful maps. It uses social network analysis to map out information-sharing networks between people working on cross-border policy, allowing one to see who is talking to whom on cross-border policy issues. Such analysis shows, for example, the centrality of certain ECOWAS staff in parts of the network, as one might expect for a regional economic commission, as well as some donor figures " such as the German development agency GIZ. Perhaps more importantly, the study seems to show the links between top-down, institutional, regional integration, and policy actors engaged in the day-to-day work of cross-border trade. In doing so it highlights the links between regional and local actors, which is crucial for regional decisions to take account of local realities, such as informal trade, and understand implementation challenges. The report presents the fascinating statistic that more than half of the local authorities in member countries of the West African Economic and Monetary Union UEMOA are in border areas and so are, by definition, engaged in regional policies with local practice. However, there is one potential problem if informality is as important as it seems. Since SWAC-related researchers have done previous work on informal cross-border trade networks , maybe the real interest is in where these two sets of networks meet. Integrating the food economy? Finally, the SWAC team also presented some findings on the food economy. Of course, there are some sectors where imports are higher than others, with rice as an example, but this suggests high potential gains from a more integrated regional market. That points to the need to look at the nature of specific sectors since different value chains are subject to very different underlying political economy dynamics. Whereas rice is often seen as a national concern with the result that state-business relations around rice are quite murky, with traders often closely aligned to political actors, other value chains such as livestock, while also extremely complex, have an underlying cross-border value chain logic, with cattle generally reared in the Sahelian region, and consumption markets along the coast. This brings the discussion back to trade facilitation and informality much of the livestock market is informal, building on pastoral forms of production, etc. If regional development aspirations need to build on trade and regional value chains, and processors and consumers require at least a degree of safety in products consumed, standards will be key. Informal standards So, what to make of all that? Starting from accepting informality may nonetheless simply imply a need to create jobs in other sectors, with support to small-scale producers and traders to meet realistic standards. Mauritania-Senegal border in Diama.

Chapter 7 : Food security: how Fairtrade helps level the playing field for small producers

Further, the implementation plan for the U.S. Global Food Security Strategy, which was submitted to Congress in October, emphasizes the need to address the entire agricultural and food system, including trade, and underscores the importance of facilitating change in the enabling environment to strengthen markets.

The prevalence of under-weight, stunting, and wasting in children under 5 years of age is also very high. Food security in Mexico Food insecurity has distressed Mexico throughout its history and continues to do so in the present. Food availability is not the issue; rather, severe deficiencies in the accessibility of food contributes to the insecurity. Between and , the total Mexican food supply was well above the sufficient to meet the requirements of the Mexican population, averaging 3, kilocalories per daily capita, higher than the minimum requirements of 1, kilocalories per daily capita. However, at least 10 percent of the population in every Mexican state suffers from inadequate food access. In nine states, 25–35 percent live in food-insecure households. More than 10 percent of the populations of seven Mexican states fall into the category of Serious Food Insecurity. Hunger in the United States The United States Department of Agriculture defines food insecurity as "limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways. This continuum has four categories: The prevalence of food insecurity has been relatively in the United States since the economic recession Both children and adults were food insecure in 8. Democratic Republic of Congo[edit] The Democratic Republic of Congo is the second largest country in Africa; the country is dealing with food insecurity. Although they have an abundance of natural resources, they lack accessibility of essential foods makes it difficult for the Congolese people in their daily lives. Malnutrition is high among children affects their ability, and children who live in a rural area are affected more than children who are live in an urban area. A study showed the correlation of food insecurity negatively affecting at-risk HIV adults in the Democratic Republic of Congo. In grain prices increased and the people in the Democratic Republic of the Congo went to civil unrest, there were riots and protest. Hunger is frequent in this country, but sometimes it is to the extreme that many families cannot afford to eat every day. Bushmeat trade was used to measure the trend of food security. The trend signifies the amount of consumption in urban and rural areas. Urban areas mainly consume bushmeat because they cannot afford other types of meat. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations FAO called the summit in response to widespread under-nutrition and growing concern about the capacity of agriculture to meet future food needs. The Plan of Action set a number of targets for government and non-governmental organizations for achieving food security, at the individual, household, national, regional and global levels. Heads of state and government attended this summit. Pillars of food security[edit] Growth in food production has been greater than population growth. Food per person increased since Food and Agriculture Organization. Food distribution involves the storage, processing, transport, packaging, and marketing of food. This creates the need for a bartering, exchange, or cash economy to acquire food. Food access refers to the affordability and allocation of food, as well as the preferences of individuals and households. In order to achieve food security, the food ingested must be safe and must be enough to meet the physiological requirements of each individual. Food insecurity can be transitory, seasonal, or chronic. Civil conflicts can also decrease access to food. Other factors that can temporarily cause food insecurity are loss of employment or productivity, which can be caused by illness. Seasonal food insecurity can result from the regular pattern of growing seasons in food production. Chronic and transitory food insecurity are linked, since the reoccurrence of transitory food security can make households more vulnerable to chronic food insecurity. Chronic food insecurity translates into a high degree of vulnerability to famine and hunger; ensuring food security presupposes elimination of that vulnerability. Malnutrition Children with symptoms of low calorie and protein intake and a nurse attendant at a Nigerian orphanage in the late s Many countries experience ongoing food shortages and distribution problems. These result in chronic and often widespread hunger amongst significant numbers of people. Human populations can respond to chronic hunger and malnutrition by decreasing body size, known in medical terms as stunting or stunted growth. It leads to higher infant and

child mortality, but at rates far lower than during famines. Stunting itself can be viewed as a coping mechanism, bringing body size into alignment with the calories available during adulthood in the location where the child is born. Challenges to achieving food security[edit] Global water crisis[edit] See also: Water resource policy Irrigation canals have opened dry desert areas of Egypt to agriculture. Water deficits , which are already spurring heavy grain imports in numerous smaller countries, [55] may soon do the same in larger countries, such as China or India. Other countries affected include Pakistan, Afghanistan, and Iran. This will eventually lead to water scarcity and cutbacks in grain harvest. Even with the overpumping of its aquifers , China is developing a grain deficit. Most of the 3 billion people projected to be born worldwide by mid-century will be born in countries already experiencing water shortages. After China and India, there is a second tier of smaller countries with large water deficits â€” Afghanistan, Algeria, Egypt, Iran, Mexico, and Pakistan. Four of these already import a large share of their grain. Only Pakistan remains self-sufficient. But with a population expanding by 4 million a year, it will likely soon turn to the world market for grain. Multimillion-dollar investments beginning in the s by the World Bank have reclaimed desert and turned the Ica Valley in Peru, one of the driest places on earth, into the largest supplier of asparagus in the world. However, the constant irrigation has caused a rapid drop in the water table, in some places as much as eight meters per year, one of the fastest rates of aquifer depletion in the world. The wells of small farmers and local people are beginning to run dry and the water supply for the main city in the valley is under threat. As a cash crop, asparagus has provided jobs for local people, but most of the money goes to the buyers, mainly the British. A report concluded that the industry is not sustainable and accuses investors, including the World Bank, of failing to take proper responsibility for the effect of their decisions on the water resources of poorer countries. Land degradation and Desertification Intensive farming often leads to a vicious cycle of exhaustion of soil fertility and decline of agricultural yields. Climate change and agriculture Extreme events, such as droughts and floods, are forecast to increase as climate change and global warming takes hold. Lessons from the IPCC SREX Report, the effects will include changing productivity and livelihood patterns, economic losses, and effects on infrastructure, markets and food security. Food security in future will be linked to our ability to adapt agricultural systems to extreme events. An example of a shifting weather pattern would be a rise in temperatures. As temperatures rise due to climate change there is a risk of a diminished food supply due to heat damage. From this the price of grain will rise, along with the developing nations trying to grow the grain. Due to this, every 2â€”2. The timing and length of the growing seasons, when farmers plant their crops, are going to be changing dramatically, per the USDA, due to unknown changes in soil temperature and moisture conditions. His approach is to explore the vulnerability of food systems to climate change and he defines vulnerability to climate change as situations that occur when relatively minor environmental problems cause major effects on food security. Examples of this include the Irish Potato Famine [76] [dubious â€” discuss], which was caused by a rainy year that created ideal conditions for the fungal blight to spread in potato fields, or the Ethiopian Famine in the early s. In , the hungry population could range from million to million with climate change Chen et al. By the year , Cereal crops will decrease from 15 to 19 percent, temperatures are estimated to rise from 1 degrees Celsius to 2. In prediction farming countries will be the worst sectors hit, hot countries and drought countries will reach even higher temperatures and richer countries will be hit the least as they have more access to more resources Devereux et al. From a food security perspective, climate change is the dominant rationale to the increase in recent years and predicted years to come. Agricultural diseases[edit] Diseases affecting livestock or crops can have devastating effects on food availability especially if there are no contingency plans in place. In their centers of origin wild wheat plants are screened for resistance to rust, then their genetic information is studied and finally wild plants and modern varieties are crossed through means of modern plant breeding in order to transfer the resistance genes from the wild plants to the modern varieties. Food versus fuel Farmland and other agricultural resources have long been used to produce non-food crops including industrial materials such as cotton , flax , and rubber; drug crops such as tobacco and opium , and biofuels such as firewood , etc. In the 21st century the production of fuel crops has increased, adding to this diversion. However technologies are also developed to commercially produce food from energy such as natural gas and electrical energy with tiny water and land foot print.

Political corruption Nobel Prize winning economist Amartya Sen observed that "there is no such thing as an apolitical food problem. Governments sometimes have a narrow base of support, built upon cronyism and patronage. Fred Cuny pointed out in that under these conditions: Governments in most countries give priority to urban areas, since that is where the most influential and powerful families and enterprises are usually located. The government often neglects subsistence farmers and rural areas in general. The more remote and underdeveloped the area the less likely the government will be to effectively meet its needs. Many agrarian policies, especially the pricing of agricultural commodities, discriminate against rural areas. Governments often keep prices of basic grains at such artificially low levels that subsistence producers cannot accumulate enough capital to make investments to improve their production. Thus, they are effectively prevented from getting out of their precarious situation. Under such conditions food becomes a currency with which to buy support and famine becomes an effective weapon against opposition. When government monopolizes trade, farmers may find that they are free to grow cash crops for export, but under penalty of law only able to sell their crops to government buyers at prices far below the world market price. When the rule of law is absent, or private property is non-existent, farmers have little incentive to improve their productivity. Rather than risk being noticed and possibly losing their land, farmers may be content with the perceived safety of mediocrity. It contends that multinational corporations have the financial resources available to buy up the agricultural resources of impoverished nations, particularly in the tropics. They also have the political clout to convert these resources to the exclusive production of cash crops for sale to industrialized nations outside of the tropics, and in the process to squeeze the poor off of the more productive lands. Likewise, food sovereignty holds it to be true that communities should be able to define their own means of production and that food is a basic human right. With several multinational corporations now pushing agricultural technologies on developing countries, technologies that include improved seeds, chemical fertilizers, and pesticides, crop production has become an increasingly analyzed and debated issue. Many communities calling for food sovereignty are protesting the imposition of Western technologies on to their indigenous systems and agency.

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The definition of food security also calls for physical and economic access to be available "at all times;" therefore, the fifth and final channel considers the possibility that trade and trade policies may help or harm the global and domestic stability of food availability, food prices, and household incomes.

Shutterstock GreenBiz Collage has been a tough year in agriculture. Heat, drought, wildfires and poor wheat crops in Russia, China and Ukraine reduced exports and in-country stocks and contributed to soaring prices. In countries such as Egypt, which imports more wheat than any other country, bread prices skyrocketed. Tensions boiled over in the Middle East as people added hunger to their long list of grievances. The lesson that many took away from this period is the role of food security in national security. What many missed is the role of climate change in food security. As climate change continues to disrupt food production, we need to foster more trade to absorb the inevitable shocks that will come with greater frequency in the decades to come. Erecting barriers to trade, which many in the world seem intent on doing, will only leave us more vulnerable to food insecurity and, with it, political and economic instability and population displacement. Erecting barriers to trade While climate skepticism still drives U. We can see telltale signs in the production of fresh fruits and vegetables in places such as California, but also in global breadbaskets such as the American Midwest, Brazil, Australia, India, China and Southeast Asia. Regardless whether one accepts the need to mitigate climate change, we should all be able to agree that adaptation is critical. How do we go forward? First, we should recognize that some countries have comparative agricultural advantages that are not only to the advantage of their people, but also to the advantage of the planet. We need to produce food where we can and with the fewest impacts possible and then ship it to where it is needed. We need trade to fill the gaps in a global food system where production increasingly will be variable and where the gaps are likely to get bigger over time. Second, we need to keep innovating. In a world of increasing weather variability, we need Brazil, China, India, and other agricultural powerhouses to do more. This is not about competition. This is about precompetitive approaches to food security in high-growth markets in Africa and Asia. Transition agriculture As average temperatures rise, crops are migrating toward the poles. Cotton is growing where soy was dominant, with Kansas doubling cotton production from to American corn and soy are chasing wheat toward the Canadian border " and pests are migrating, too, creating new risks for producers. We need to respond to these trends more quickly. We need to take advantage of the information technology the U. As climate change challenges us to produce food under more variable conditions, we need more innovation, not less. WTO needs to factor in climate change Third, we need more consistent and uniform global standards for safe, sustainable food. Food standards and regulatory frameworks in emerging countries are inconsistent, and the rule of law in some countries " or lack thereof " creates uncertainty and enables illegal production to undercut producers that raise food sustainably and legally. Multilateral trade agreements can help address these challenges and set a level playing field for responsible actors. International trade agreements should anticipate climate change and International trade agreements should anticipate climate change and foster greater resilience. These agreements should allow for unimpeded short-term movement of food to fill gaps created by weather and yield variability and should include controls on export restrictions. The World Trade Organization, specifically, should incorporate climate change adaptation and resilience into its work program on food security. But, we need to get real: No single group can. Trade is one tool, albeit an important one. It has brought our world closer together and made it more prosperous and peaceful. It also can provide a unifying framework for governments, businesses, producers and consumers to work together to weather the challenges ahead of us. This piece is the final part of a weeklong series examining the challenge of carbon reduction in business surrounding the Global Climate Action Summit in September in San Francisco, California. This story first appeared on:

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Since the Second World War, and especially in the last three decades, the global trade of goods has rapidly increased. Food is no exception to this, and with over \$ trillion of agricultural trade today, the global food system has become highly complex and interconnected.

It directly contributes to access to food, impacts availability of technology, and helps generate more diverse income streams. Agricultural trade is increasingly subject to formal rules at multiple levels: The debate around agricultural trade is often focused at the World Trade Organization. The policies and regulations that impact the agricultural market most are shaped at the national and local levels. Globalization has significantly changed agricultural trade, and markets are more connected and capable of delivering economic opportunity and food security now than ever before. While the market itself is the physical representation of trade, the rules governing the market are a key factor in productivity, investment, and overall food security. In most cases individual countries cannot meet their own food security needs and must import food and inputs such as seed, fertilizer, and agrochemicals from elsewhere. However, as food moves across borders, the rules become even more complex and can sometimes halt trade in food entirely. Just as the nature of markets has changed, so has the system of rules governing the market. Informal systems, with unwritten understandings of how to conduct trade, have turned into more structured regulatory systems within and between countries. Agricultural trade is increasingly subject to formal rules at multiple levels: This includes the disciplines through the World Trade Organization WTO on which the debate around agricultural trade is often focused. Yet, the policies and regulations that perhaps impact the market most are shaped at the national and even local levels. As the rules surrounding agricultural value chains and trade in food have become more comprehensive and precise, the connection between the enabling environment and the actual people it is meant to serve has become more tenuous. Issues such as traceability, technology, transport, and food loss are all governed by an increasingly complex system of policies and regulations that spans the globe; it is often difficult to bridge the needs at the farm with the requirements of international markets. The stakeholders involved in global food security have also diversified. Developed country trading partners, such as the United States, play a prominent role in international agricultural markets through private enterprise and foreign aid. It is important that the transfer of capacity and innovation is built into food security approaches in a way that fuels two-way development going forward. How should trade and market rules be approached in the context of food security? In contrast to top-down policy discussions, the study takes a bottom-up approach that follows the opportunities and challenges facing different stakeholders—farmers, consumers, innovators, traders, and developed and developing countries—that are part of the global system for trade in food. To highlight connections in the market from production through export, the study focuses on several value chains that illustrate more diverse opportunities and challenges for food security and trade, both from a market and a policy perspective: It also showcases innovations, best practices, and areas for further emphasis. A team from New Markets Lab NML, a law and development center, and the Center for Strategic and International Studies CSIS Global Food Security Project traveled to Kenya and India over a two-week period in the summer of and met with farmers, donor programs, government and private-sector leaders, and other stakeholders to gather insight on the issues impacting trade and food security from the farmer up through international markets. These consultations combined with research conducted by NML resulted in broad recommendations for U. These recommendations come at a critical time, as each of the 12 Feed the Future focus countries, including Kenya, is currently developing strategic plans under the new phase of the global hunger and food security initiative. India is considered an aligned country. Further, the implementation plan for the U. Place income generation and market diversification at the core of food security efforts. Efforts to diversify could also address changing consumer preferences and nutrition needs and provide opportunities for trading partners such as the United States. Focus on the practical aspects of making regional trade work, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. In particular, implementation of regional rules and standards needs to be strengthened in areas important to food security and trade, such as regional standards and rules on inputs seed and fertilizer,

transport, storage, and crossborder trade. Implement market and regulatory approaches that can leapfrog gaps in agricultural markets and food security systems. These include farmer aggregation models, contract farming approaches, food traceability systems, pest and disease management, and agricultural financing approaches. Strengthen exchange of technology and know-how through both trade and donor assistance. This could include expanding the reach of technological solutions to address market and productivity challenges, and increasing focus on the corresponding regulatory environment at both the enterprise and institutional levels. Support new models for improving market-based regulation that put the needs of farmers, consumers, and market innovators first. These stakeholders tend to be left out of the policymaking process, and policy measures and legal approaches which could incorporate technological solutions could be prioritized to ensure that their needs are incorporated into the system. This article is an extract from a larger report.