



The potential contribution of trade in food security

Fousseini TRAORE
International Food Policy Research Institute
Regional Office for West and Central Africa
Dakar, Senegal

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Introduction

- Food security has a lot of dimensions: production, access, utilization...
- For access, trade plays a critical role in linking deficit areas with surplus regions
- More trade is also likely to stabilize domestic markets
- However, the reliance on trade has been questioned in the wake of the 2008 food crisis (restrictions imposed by large food exporters)
- With climate change, major changes are expected in the agricultural sector
 - What are the impacts in terms of food security and welfare?
 - Is there any role for trade?

Outline of the presentation

- Role of trade in stabilizing domestic markets
 - Importance of production correlations
 - Illustration of the stabilization potential with examples from Africa
 - Bottlenecks
- The destabilizing effects of non cooperative trade policies
 - Theoretical aspects
 - Illustration from the 2008 food crisis
- Role of trade in managing food security risks from climate change
 - The likely impact of climate change
 - The role of trade in adaptation to climate change

Role of trade in stabilizing domestic food markets

- Trade can play a significant role in achieving food security
 - By raising the availability of food
 - And the ability of affected people to access food through induced effects on income
 - By stabilizing supply in domestic markets-> low and less volatile prices

- Regional trade is especially relevant
 - Reduced transactions costs, foreign exchange availability, dietary preferences...
 - When regional supply is more stable than domestic supply
 - Greater benefits if weak correlation of national production fluctuations

PRODUCTION INSTABILITY INDEX

- i [j] A COUNTRY
- CV_i COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION IN THE SERIES OF A COUNTRY'S PRODUCTION QUANTITIES OF A COMMODITY OF INTEREST
- $\overline{R_i^2}$ ADJUSTED COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION OF THE LINEAR TREND MODEL FITTED TO THE SERIES
- TCV_i [TCV_j] TREND-CORRECTED COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION IN COUNTRY PRODUCTION QUANTITIES
- n NUMBER OF MEMBER COUNTRIES IN THE REGIONAL GROUPING OF INTEREST
- s_i [s_j] SHARE OF A COUNTRY IN THE REGION'S OVERALL PRODUCTION OF THE COMMODITY UNDER ANALYSIS
- r_{ij} COEFFICIENT OF CORRELATION BETWEEN THE SERIES OF CEREAL PRODUCTION QUANTITIES IN COUNTRIES i AND j

- USE A TREND-CORRECTED COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION AS A MEASURE OF PRODUCTION INSTABILITY AT COUNTRY AND REGIONAL LEVELS
- FIRST, CALCULATE A TREND-CORRECTED COEFFICIENT OF VARIATION IN COUNTRY-LEVEL PRODUCTION

$$TCV_i = CV_i \cdot \sqrt{1 - \overline{R_i^2}}$$

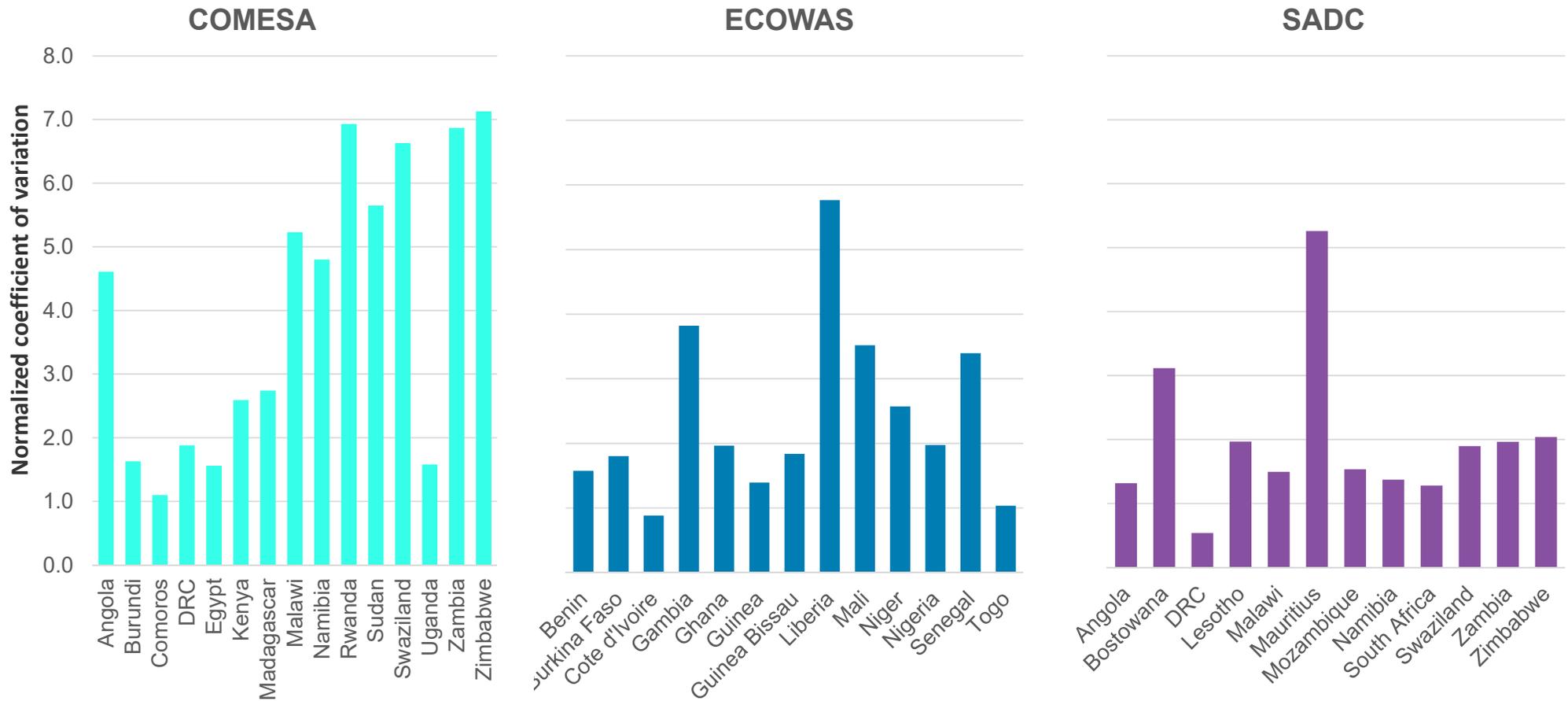
- THEN, DERIVE A REGIONAL INDEX OF PRODUCTION INSTABILITY AS A WEIGHTED AVERAGE OF COUNTRY-LEVEL INSTABILITY MEASURES

$$TCV_{reg}^2 = \sum_i^n s_i^2 \cdot TCV_i^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j}^n \sum_j^n s_i \cdot s_j \cdot r_{ij} \cdot TCV_i \cdot TCV_j$$

- FINALLY, NORMALIZE PRODUCTION INSTABILITY MEASURE AT COUNTRY LEVEL BY DIVIDING IT BY THE INSTABILITY MEASURE AT THE REGIONAL LEVEL

$$Normalized\ TCV_i = \frac{TCV_i}{\sqrt{TCV_{reg}^2}}$$

CEREAL PRODUCTION INSTABILITY, 1980-2010



Source: Badiane et al. (2014)

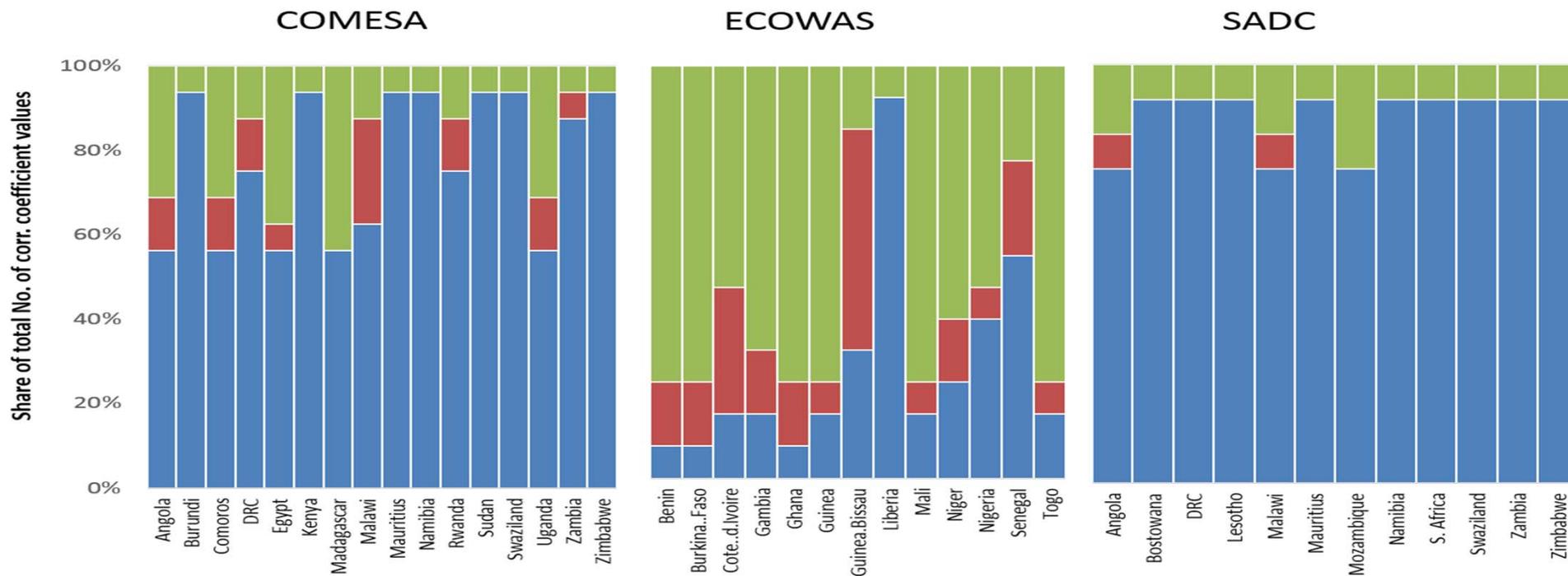
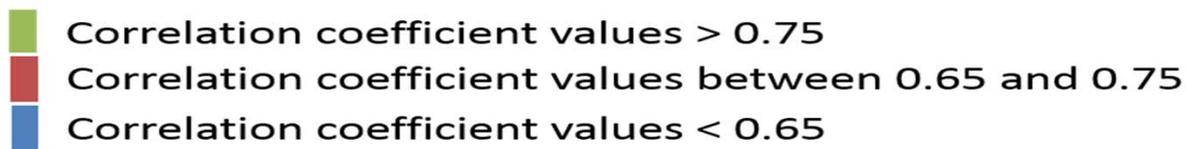
CEREAL PRODUCTION INSTABILITY, 1980-2010 (CONT'D)

- For the vast majority of countries, national production volatility is considerably larger than regional level volatility.
 - Exceptions : DRC (SADC), Côte d'Ivoire (ECOWAS), but none in COMESA.
- A relatively low volatility subgroup comprising countries with $TCV_i < 2 * TCV_{reg}$: Burundi, Comoros, DRC, Egypt, and Uganda
- A high volatility subgroup including countries with $TCV_i > 5 * TCV_{reg}$: Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Sudan, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.
- A moderate volatility subgroup including countries with volatility levels between the above two thresholds: Kenya and Madagascar (in COMESA), Botswana and Mauritius (in SADC), and Gambia, Liberia, Mali, and Senegal (in ECOWAS).

DISTRIBUTION OF CROSS-COUNTRY PRODUCTION CORRELATION COEFFICIENT VALUES

- Pearson's correlation coefficient r_{ij} between the series of production quantities of a country i and that of each of its neighbors j in the region
- For each country i , compute the share of r_{ij} values that falls in the following intervals
 - $r_{ij} < 0.65$ (Weakly correlated production fluctuations in i and j)
 - $0.65 \leq r_{ij} < 0.75$ (Moderately correlated production fluctuations in i and j)
 - $r_{ij} \geq 0.75$ (Strongly correlated production fluctuations in i and j)
- Identify countries with highest concentration of weak production correlation coefficient values.

ILLUSTRATION #2: DISTRIBUTION OF CEREAL PRODUCTION CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS, 1980-2010.

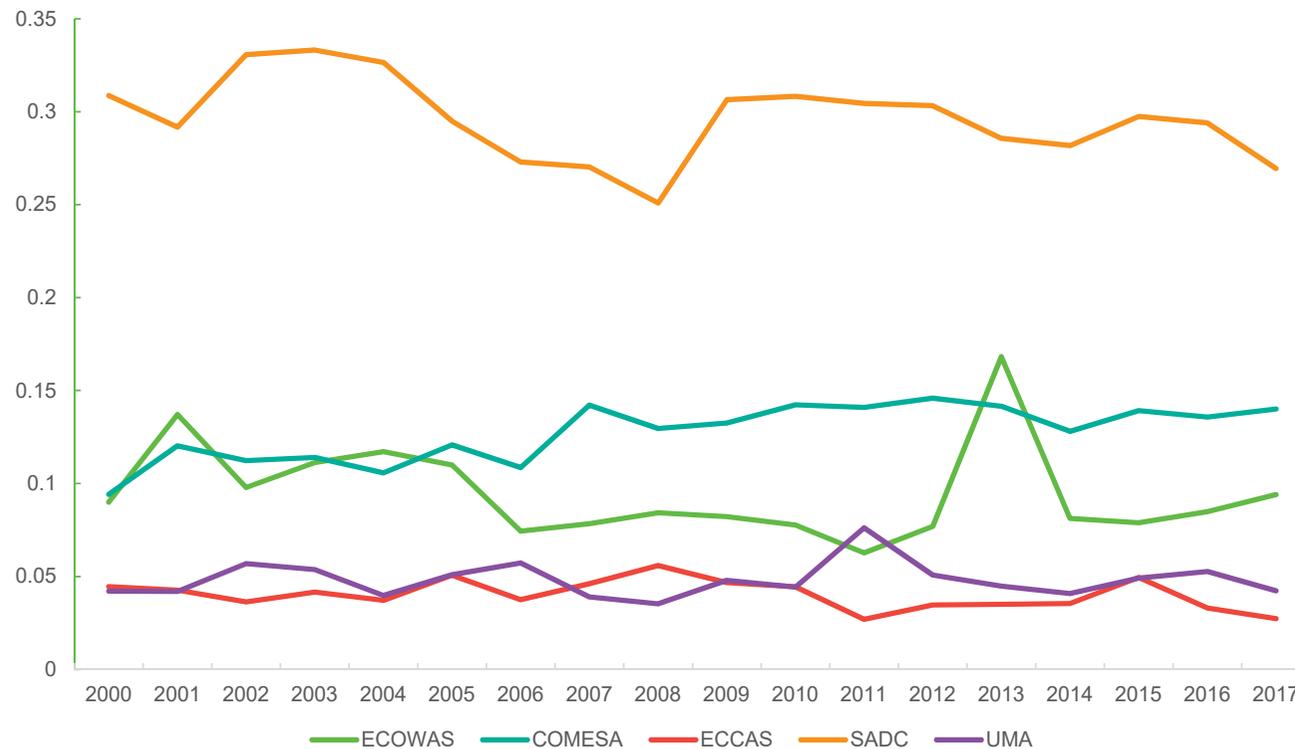


DISTRIBUTION OF CEREAL PRODUCTION CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS, 1980-2010 (CONT'D)

- SADC countries have the highest concentration of weakly correlated country production levels. Only three countries have less than 80 % share of correlation coefficients below 0.65.
- COMESA countries follow with at least 60 % of the correlation coefficients for any given country below 0.65.
- ECOWAS countries tend to fluctuate more together than the other two regions, as shown by the high share of coefficients above 0.75.
- Countries with moderate to high volatility and weak correlation would benefit the most from increased regional trade in terms of greater stability of domestic supplies.
 - Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Sudan, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (COMESA)
 - Botswana and Mauritius (SADC)
 - Gambia, Liberia, Mali, and Senegal (ECOWAS).

Yet intra-African trade of ag. products is low

Share of intra-regional trade



Source: COMTRADE and author's calculations

Why?

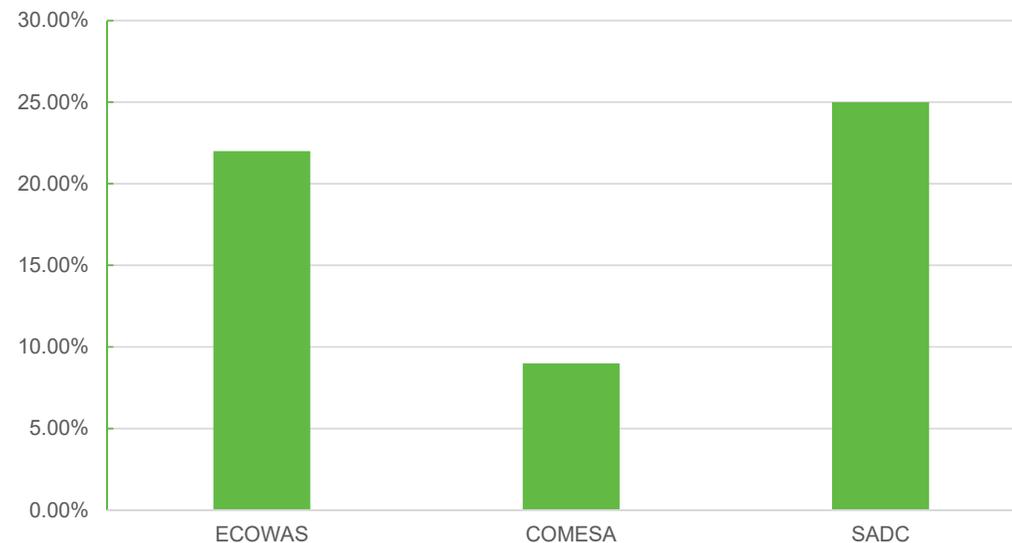
- Many barriers exist (Bouet et al, 2018)
 - Intra-African tariffs -> highest in the world (8.62%)
 - Intra-continental tariffs on ag products: -> 2nd highest in the world (15.23%)
- Even in RECs with official liberalization, barriers are present
- Example in ECOWAS

Commodity	Corridor	Countries	Distance (km)	Checkpoints (per 100 km)	Illegal payments (USD/100 km)
Maize	Bouake-Niamey	CIV-NER	1,371	3	18
Livestock	Ouaga-Accra	BFA-MLI	1,004	5	18
Rice	Bamako-Kouri	MALI-BFA	165	6	115
Millet/Sorghum	Koutiala-Dakar	MLI-SEN	1,722	4	41
Livestock	Kati-Dakar	MLI-SEN	1,350	4	26
Colanuts	Abidjan-Lagos	CIV-NGA	1,043	9	384

Source: CILSS (2018)

What is the impact of these barriers?

- Using a multimarket model (EMM), Badiane and Odjo (2014) found that a removal of all cross-border trade barriers in Africa would yield an increase in intra-regional trade of agricultural products by:



Source: Badiane and Odjo, 2014

Caveats

- Informal/non recorded flows are important

Intra-ECOWAS maize exports in 2016 in 1,000USD

	Burkina	Ghana	Mali	Niger
CILSS (1)	7579.98	1079.85	5038.72	13746.43
COMTRADE (2)	59.68	848.16	36.61	3029.63
Ratio (1)/(2)	127	1.27	138	4.54

Source: COMTRADE and CILSS

- Indicators such as intra-regional trade shares suffer from biases (Lapadre & Luchetti, 2009; Bouet et al, 2018; Traore et al., 2019)
 - Lack of benchmark
 - Absence of theoretical framework
 - Influenced by size of countries and geographic fragmentation

Negative impacts of Non cooperative trade policies

- Trade can contribute to reducing food insecurity by increasing food availability
 - But also increases countries' exposure to global shocks
 - With significant negative impacts on world prices
- 2008 food crisis
 - Large food suppliers implemented export restrictions, not to manipulate terms of trade per se, but to protect domestic consumers (to guarantee availability and low and stable prices)
 - Examples: Wheat in Russia, Rice in India...
 - Combined with reduction of import tariffs in large importing countries -> increasing world prices
 - Small net importing countries are the most affected: no terms of trade gain and cost in terms of public revenue

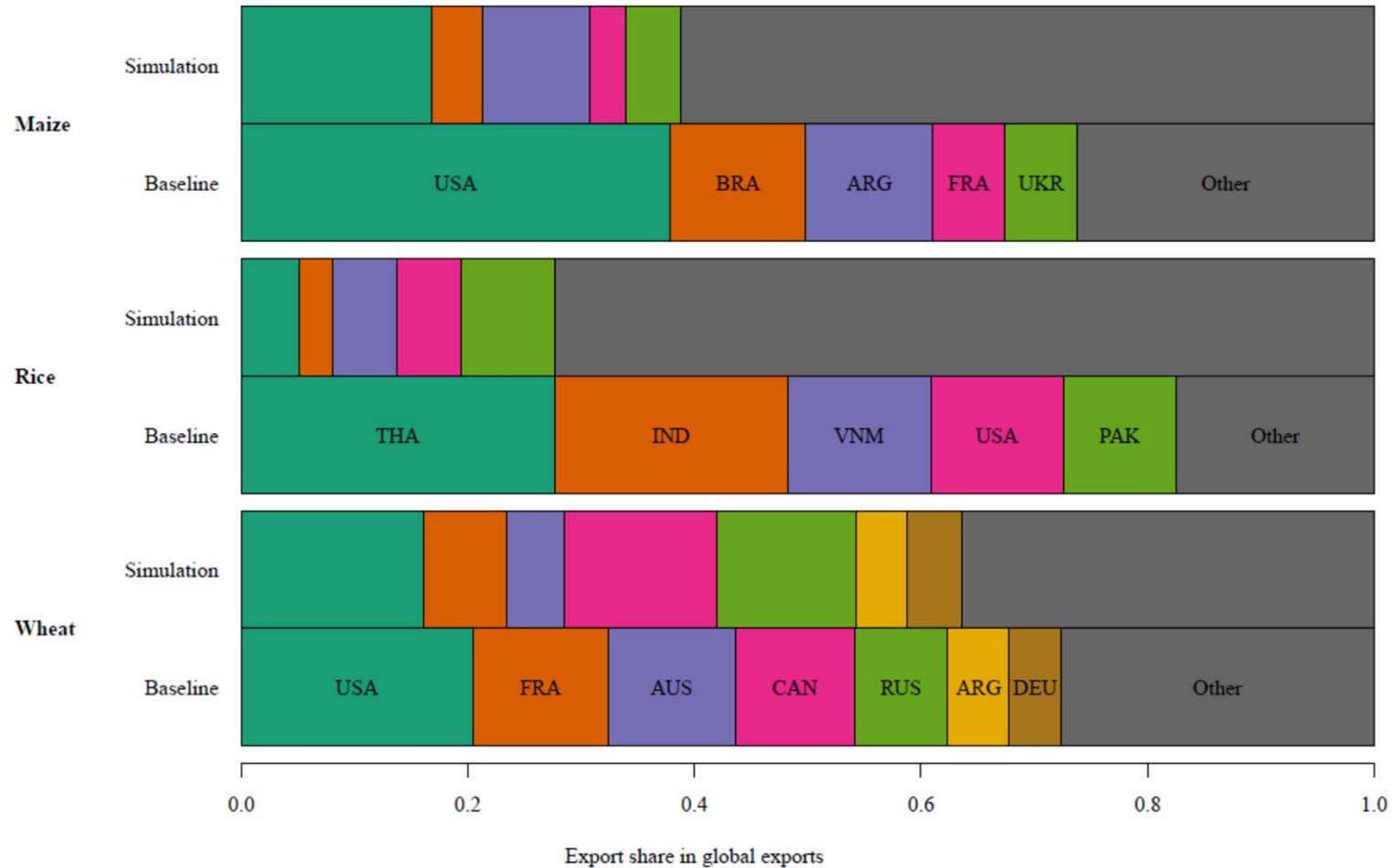
Illustration with the MIRAGE model (Bouet & Laborde, 2012)

- Global dynamic CGE model with 24 countries/regions and 23 sectors (13 ag. sectors)
- Includes net exporters and net importers of ag products
- Simulate a demand shock -> 10% increase in (world) wheat price (Base)
- Two scenarios implemented
 - S1: export taxes by net wheat exporters, such that the real domestic price of wheat is constant (S1)
 - S2: S1 + reduction in import duties in net importing countries
- World price of wheat increase by (base is reference) 17% under S1 and 41% under S2
- Welfare in West Africa decrease by -0.10% under S1 and -0.20% under S2

The impact of climate change (CC)

- CC is expected to impact food insecurity around the world (Parry et al., 2004; Nelson et al., 2009; Baldos & Hertel, 2015)
- Changes in temperature and precipitation -> yield changes -> comparative advantage and production changes with price increases and more volatility
- Redistribution of exports shares with changing comparative advantages
- CC will also cause more extreme events

Changes in export shares with CC (yields changes)



Source: Gouel & Laborde (2018)

What role for trade in adaptation to climate change (CC)?

- Trade has a potential to dampen the negative impact -> delivering goods to areas with declining productivity and reduce price volatility
- Baldos & Hertel (2015): the impact of CC on malnutrition in SSA could be reduced by **25%** if world markets are fully integrated
- Gouel & Laborde (2018) challenging Costinot et al (2016): world welfare (Equivalent variation) is reduced by **1.36%** without trade adjustment and by **0.58%** with trade adjustment (resp. **-16.35%** and **-0.63%** for Sub-Saharan Africa).

Conclusion

- Trade is a double-edge sword for food security:
 - It increases the availability and diversity of food items
 - It can increase the resilience of domestic food markets to supply and price shocks
 - But non cooperative trade policies in periods of food crisis exacerbate the negative impacts for small net importing countries
 - Need more cooperation at the global level
- Climate change will induce major changes in the agricultural sector
- Uncertainties remain about the food security impacts
- However, consensus on the fact that more trade integration is needed to mitigate the negative outcomes