



**Food and Agriculture Organization
of the United Nations**

Namibia's foreign policy and the role of agriculture in poverty eradication



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Also, this paper benefited from a technical review and guidance of Babagana Ahmadu, FAO Representative to Namibia.

Acronyms

ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific countries
AGOA	African growth and opportunity act
AU	African Union
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
DHS	Demographic Health Survey
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreement
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FTA	Free Trade Agreement
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HPP	Harambee prosperity plan
HS	Harmonized System
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
MDG	Millennium development goal
NAMA11	Coalition of developing countries seeking flexibilities to limit market opening in industrial goods trade
NDPs	National development plans
NAIP	National Agricultural Investment Plan
NPCA	NEPAD Agency for Planning and Coordination
PTA	Preferential Trade Agreement
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SACU	Southern African Custom Union
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
WFP	World Food Programme
WTO	World Trade Organization

1. Introduction

In 2004, Namibia adopted its long term strategy for economic transform dubbed “Vision 2030”. The Vision 2030 sets out very bold and ambitious objectives to transform Namibia into a healthy and food-secure nation, in which all preventable, infectious and parasitic diseases (including HIV/AIDS) are at their minimum, people enjoy high standards of living, a good quality of life and have access to quality education, health and other vital services. Vision 2030 is anchored on the following pillars: 1) Education, Science and Technology; 2) Health and Development; 3) Sustainable Agriculture; 4) Peace and Social Justice; and 5) Gender Equality.

This Vision is expected to be achieved through a series of short-to-medium term national development plans (NDPs) and sector specific strategies that will align the long term strategy to changing national, regional and global environment. The government is currently implementing its 4th NDP referred to as “NDP4” which started in 2012/13 and will be implemented through 2016/17. However, in its bid to accelerate the pace of implementation and complement the long term goal of Vision 2030, the “*Harambee Prosperity Plan: 2016-17 – 2019/20*” (HPP); has been developed to identify goals that can be pursued with vigor in the short- term so as to lay a solid base to attain prosperity in subsequent planning phases. A key objective of the HPP is to significantly reduce poverty, food insecurity and overall inequality for all Namibians.

Thus, within the context of attaining the Vision 2030 through the implementation of the NDPs and HPP, the government of Namibia, through the Ministry of International Relations and Cooperation requested FAO to provide input for a national Conference that will deliberate on the evolution of Namibia’s Foreign Policy, and how changes in the domestic and global environment will impact its future policy stance. More specifically, FAO is expected to provide inputs on how Agriculture, in particular food security, contributes to poverty eradication and the role agriculture can play in shaping a country’s foreign policy. This background paper and presentation have been prepared as FAO’s contribution for the Conference.

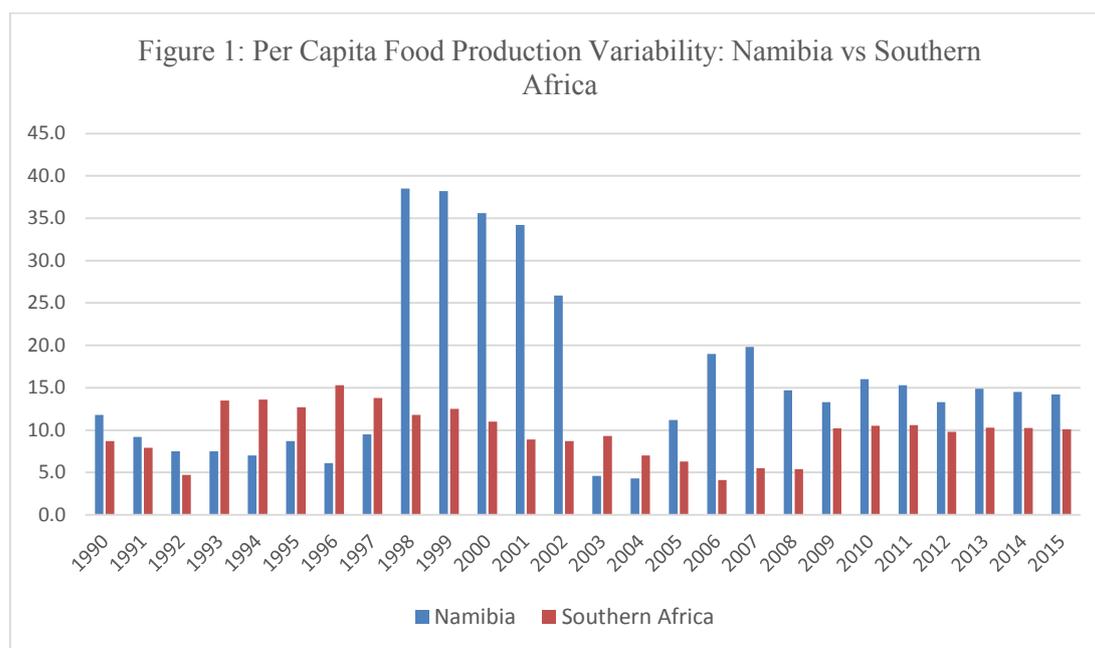
This background paper is organized as follows. The next section will present a brief overview of the agriculture and food security situation in Namibia. This will be followed by an exposé of how agriculture can contribute to poverty eradication drawing on evidence from around the world. The fourth section will examine the role agriculture can play in shaping foreign policy building on Namibia’s experience. The final section will offer some conclusions and way forward.

2. Overview of agriculture, food insecurity and poverty in Namibia

The recent decades have witnessed considerable progress in fighting global hunger and poverty. This is reflected in the fact that 72 out of 129 of the countries monitored by FAO achieved the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of halving the prevalence of undernourishment by 2015, with developing regions as a whole missing the target by a small margin. Meanwhile the share of people in developing countries living in extreme poverty also dropped from 43 percent in 1990 to 17 percent in 2015 (World Bank, 2015)¹. Notwithstanding these impressive results, progress has been uneven among countries and regions. The prevalence of hunger and poverty has fallen substantially in some regions, especially in East Asia and the Pacific as well as Southeast Asia. But in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, progress has been slow overall, despite some country success stories.

¹ World Bank. 2015a. Povcalnet. Online analysis tool for global poverty monitoring (available at: <http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm>.) Last accessed July 2015.

As an arid country, agriculture and food production in Namibia are hampered by highly variable climatic conditions and inherently poor soils. However, despite its marginal contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the agriculture sector supports over 70 percent of the country's population². The sector can be divided into two distinct sub-sectors: the capital intensive, relatively well developed and export oriented commercial sub-sector; and the subsistence-based, high-labour, low-technology communal sub-sector. The main commercial agricultural products include cereals, livestock and marine fish. Figure 1 shows trends food production variability in Namibia compared to the average for Southern Africa³.



Source: FAO (2015) The State of Food Insecurity

For Namibia, although the food and nutrition security situation has improved considerably in the last two decades since independence, it is still a top priority. The prevalence of undernourishment in Namibia (the measure used to assess the MDG 1 target) decline modestly and did not attain the target of halving the proportion of the population who are hungry. According to the Demographic Health Survey⁴ (DHS, 2013), child stunting stands at 24 percent, with some regions recording rates higher than 30 percent. The 2015 State of Food Insecurity in the World report (FAO, 2015)⁵ revealed that 42.8 percent of Namibians are undernourished. Compared to other countries in Southern Africa (Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland), food insecurity in Namibia is at the highest (Figure 2)⁶. The main contributing factors to food insecurity and under-nourishment are the high poverty rate, inequality of the income distribution, and the incidence of HIV/AIDS. Other factors specific to rural areas include: chronic drought and consequent water shortages resulting in death of animals and crop failures, widespread soil erosion and land degradation, insufficient agricultural land and isolation from markets, limited income generating opportunities, restrictions on women to access land and resources, and weak implementation of appropriate policies.

² Country Programming Framework for Namibia, 2014-2018. www.fao.org/namibia

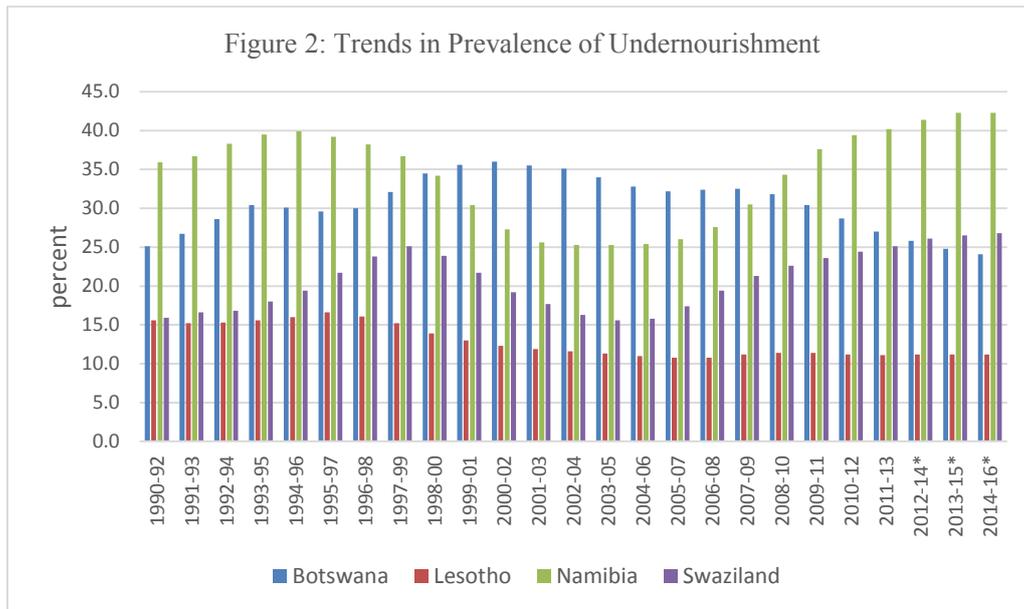
³ Data Source: Food Security Statistics 2016, FAOSTAT

⁴ Namibia Demographic and Health Survey 2013 - <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR298/FR298.pdf>

⁵ State of Food Insecurity in the World. FAO 2015.

⁶ Data Source: Food Security Statistics 2016, FAOSTAT. Dates with asterisk are estimates/projections.

Namibia’s agriculture sector is constrained by a variety of challenges, including limited human and institutional capacity, weak implementation of policy and legal frameworks, poor coordination between government agencies on food and nutrition security issues, poor access to agricultural data by policy makers and farmers, low crop productivity, constraints to sustainable management of water, land, forests and rangelands, inadequate capacity in land use management and land valuation, weak capacity in processing, marketing and quality/safety standards for crop, horticulture and livestock products, vulnerability to different threats and crises (such as droughts, floods, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, transboundary pests and diseases) and issues of gender inequality in agriculture.



Source: FAO (2015) The State of Food Insecurity

According to the “Poverty Dynamics in Namibia” report⁷, which traces poverty trends in Namibia between 1993 and 2010, the incidence of poor and severely poor individuals were estimated (in 2012) at 28.7 and 15.3 percent, respectively. This is 40.5 and 43.6 percentage points fewer than in 1993/1994, continuing a 17-year downward trend. The poverty gap which measures the consumption shortfall relative to the poverty line is estimated at 8.8 percent in 2009/2010, and indicates that on average Namibia has a poverty gap equal to 8.8 percent of the poverty line. The rural areas recorded a dramatic decline in poverty incidence from 81.6 percent to 37.4 percent (a significant decline of about 44 percentage points), while the urban areas showed a decline of about 24.3 percentage points, during the same period. However, poverty varies significantly within the administrative regions of Namibia. Overall, an estimated, 22 percent of Namibia’s population are living on less than US\$1.25 a day. Although this is less than the average for sub-Saharan Africa, it is much higher than the average for low and middle income countries where the average is 17 (Table 1). The Table also shows a strong positive correlation between the poverty ratios and labor force in agriculture⁸.

Widespread hunger and malnutrition in a world of plentiful food implies that extreme poverty is the root cause of undernourishment. It is not always understood, however, that hunger and malnutrition are in turn major causes of poverty. They affect the ability of individuals to escape poverty in several ways through:

⁷ Poverty Dynamics in Namibia: A Comparative study using the 1993/94, 2003/04 and the 2009/10 Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Surveys (NHIES).

⁸ Data for Table 1 are from: State of Food and Agriculture, 2015. FAO.

- Reducing the capacity for physical activity and hence the productive potential of the labour of those who suffer from hunger - and that is usually their only asset.
- Impairing people's ability to develop physically and mentally, retarding child growth, reducing cognitive ability and seriously inhibiting school attendance and performance - thus compromising the effectiveness of investment in education.
- Causing serious long-term damage to health, linked to higher rates of disease and premature death.
- Passing from generation to generation: hungry mothers give birth to underweight children who start life with a handicap.
- Contributing to social and political instability that further undermines government capacity to reduce poverty.

Chronically undernourished people are, therefore, caught in a hunger trap of low productivity, chronic poverty and hunger.

Table1: Linking Poverty and Agriculture

	Poverty headcount ratios and prevalence among children						Agriculture's importance in the economy and labour force, fertilizer use, farm size and women in agriculture								
	Share of population living on		Share of children underweight				Share of value added from agriculture	Share of total labour force in agriculture	Fertilizer use intensity	Share of holdings by farm size class				Share of agricultural labour force that is female	Share of female labour force in agriculture
	less than \$1.25/day	less than \$2/day	By residence		By household income quintile					<1 ha	1-2 ha	2-5ha	>5ha		
	Percentage	Percentage	Rural	Urban	Poorest	Richest	Percentage	kg/ha	Percentage						
<i>World</i>							3.6	38.3	124	72	12.4	9.6	6.1	39.3	40.2
<i>SSA</i>	46.9	68.8					15.7	56.5	14.9	61.8	21.5	12.7	4.1	48.9	60.1
<i>High income countries</i>							1.4	2.7	117.6	32.6	17.5	16	33.9	34.4	2.1
<i>Low and middle income countries</i>	17	36.2					10.1	45.2	126	73.8	12.1	9.3	4.7	40.5	48.1
<i>Lower-middle-income African countries</i>															
Cabo Verde	11.9	31.9					8.1	15						40	14.3
Cameroon	24.9	50.1	20.8	7.5	29.8	3.9	23.2	42.6	8.1					46.6	47
Congo,Rep.	32.8	57.3	15.8	9.1	17.6	4.8	3.9	28.9	4.9					55.2	39.5
Cote d'Ivoire	37.3	61.6	17.7	12.3	20.7	10	22.5	33.8	10.1	42.1	14.2	19.3	24.4	35.6	39.4
Ghana	18	37.3	15.5	10.5	20	6.3	23	53.4	14.2					45.2	48.2
Kenya	38	62	17.6	10.9	24.9	8.8	20.5	78	36.5					48.5	71.1
Lesotho	45.7	63.7	13.6	13.1	17.8	9.2	8.3	37.7		46.8	29.2	20.4	3.5	64.8	48.7
Mauritania	23.5	47.8	29.7	16.4	36.4	9.7	15.7	49.4	22.1					59.7	93.6
Nigeria	40.8	76.1	34.5	24.7	41.9	15.6	22.1	22	4.3					41.2	23.9
Sao Tome and Principe	42.2	72	15.4	13.7	17.8	6.8		54.9						51.3	66.7
Senegal	34.1	60.3	19.1	12.2	20.8	9.6	16.7	68.9	7.8	20.9	16.5	32.5	30	48.5	75
Swaziland	39.8	59.6	6.2	4.2	8.4	3.6		26.2						51.8	27.8
Zambia	73.2		15.7	13	15.7	10.7	10.3	53.7	30.1					51.9	65.1
<i>Upper-middle-income African countries</i>															
Angola	43	67	18	14.1			7.2	68.2	8.3					55.6	79.4
Botswana	10	23.2	11.3	10.1	15.7	3.9	2.9	41.3	53.2					40.1	38.6
Gabon	5.4	19.4	9	6	10.4	1.9	4	23.8	6.7					49	26.7
Mauritius	0.4	1.8					3.5	7.1	199.5					25	4.7
Namibia	22	41.6	19.8	12.8	21.5	6.9	8.7	30.7	5.7	14.4	24.5	48.9	12.2	43.5	28.1
South Africa	9.4	26.2	11.4	11.7			2.5	5.6	56.7					29.5	3.5

Source: FAO (2015) The State of Food Insecurity

3. How does agriculture contribute to poverty eradication?

Although it is general accepted that growth in agriculture is highly beneficial for poverty reduction, its importance diminishes as economies grow and become more diversified. The importance of agriculture in poverty reduction derives from two basic circumstances: (a) the incidence of poverty is disproportionately high in developing countries, which still rely heavily on agriculture for output and employment and (b) as the poorest households also have few assets with minimal skills, they typically rely more on agriculture and generally face many obstacles in connecting with the non-agricultural economy for income and employment. Social and economic exclusion further reduce alternative opportunities that may be open to certain groups, including women, youth, ethnic minorities and indigenous people. Thus, by providing a greater share in employment for the poor and the unskilled workforce, agriculture plays a crucial role in making economic growth more pro-poor.

There is strong evidence that growth in agriculture reduces poverty through several transmission mechanisms. These are: i) a direct and relatively immediate effect of improved agricultural performance on rural incomes; ii) the benefit of cheaper food for both urban and rural poor; iii) agriculture's contribution to growth and the generation of economic opportunity in the non-farm sector; and iv) agriculture's fundamental role in stimulating and sustaining economic transition, as countries shift away from being primarily agricultural towards a broader base of manufacturing and services. The practical impact on poverty resulting from a given rate of growth in agriculture in a country depends upon several factors, including the concentration of population close to the country's poverty line, its system of land ownership, agricultural wages, etc. As these conditions differ across countries, so too does the precise impact of agricultural growth on poverty. Warr (2002)⁹ suggested that, in addition to providing employment to unskilled workers, the agriculture sector also contributes to poverty reduction by stimulating growth in the secondary and the tertiary sectors. For example, increased commercial agricultural activities may lead to the expansion of small food-processing industries, thereby increasing, in turn, labour mobility from rural to urban areas. In a similar vein, Pack (2009)¹⁰, noted that in China, Korea and Taiwan, a dramatic increase in agricultural productivity had supported the growth of the small and medium enterprise (SME) that sells products to farms. Ravallion and Chen (2007)¹¹ found that, in China over the period 1980–2001, the impact of the primary sector on headcount poverty reduction was 3.5 times higher than the impact of either the secondary or tertiary sector.

Many countries that have witnessed substantial reductions in poverty have also experienced relatively high agricultural growth rates. For example, China's rapid growth in agriculture due mainly to its household responsibility system, market liberalization, and rapid technological change—was initially responsible for the rapid decline in rural poverty from 53 percent in 1981 to 8 percent in 2001. Agriculture was also the key to India's slower but still substantial long-term decline of poverty. Also, Ghana achieved a 24 percentage reduction in rural poverty over 15 years, in part because of recent strong agricultural performance. However, success in agriculture does not always reduce poverty. In Bolivia, where agricultural growth has been concentrated in a dynamic export-oriented sector of large capital-intensive farms, agricultural employment declined and shifted to higher-skilled, higher-wage workers, with little poverty reduction effects (World Development Report, 2008)¹².

⁹ Warr P. 2002. Poverty reduction and sectoral growth: evidence from Southeast Asia. Draft Paper, Economics Division, Research School of Pacific and Asian Studies. Australian National University: Canberra.

¹⁰ Pack H. 2009. Should South Asia emulate East Asian tigers? Pp. 75–80 in 'Accelerating growth and job creation in South Asia', ed. by E. Ghani and S. Ahmed. Oxford University Press, for the World Bank: New Delhi.

¹¹ Ravallion M. and Chen S. 2007. China's (uneven) progress against poverty. *Journal of Development Economics* 82(1), 1–42.

¹² World Bank 2007. World development report 2008: agriculture for development. World Bank: Washington, DC.

Direct and indirect contribution of agriculture in poverty eradication

Agricultural growth can reduce poverty directly, by raising farm incomes, and indirectly, through labor markets and by reducing food prices. The poverty-reducing effect of increasing farm incomes depends on the participation of poor smallholders in the growth process. Agricultural growth also reduces poverty to the extent that it creates employment opportunities for the poor. Increasing productivity of those staple foods that are non-tradable reduces food prices to poor consumers. In addition to the urban poor, more than half of poor rural households are typically net food buyers benefiting from lower prices.

Enabling policy environment and effective support systems

A policy environment conducive to faster agricultural growth is necessary for poverty reduction. But for agricultural growth to reduce poverty substantially, smallholder farming must be competitive and sustainable. The poverty-reducing effects of growth also depend on a buoyant rural nonfarm economy, often linked to agriculture.

Access to land, water, and human capital critically determine the ability of households to participate in agricultural markets, secure livelihoods in subsistence farming, compete as entrepreneurs in the rural nonfarm economy, and find employment in skilled occupations. Yet the rural poor have few of these assets, and their limited asset base is often further eroded by population growth, environmental degradation, expropriation by dominant interests, and social biases in public expenditures. Enhancing assets requires significant public investments in irrigation, health, and education. Increasing assets may also call for affirmative action to equalize chances for disadvantaged or excluded groups, such as women and ethnic minorities.

Connecting smallholders to new dynamic markets for high-value products provides an opportunity for more rapid reduction of poverty but also poses a challenge. It requires investing in market infrastructure and upgrading farmers' technical capacity to meet demanding standards. Producer organizations are essential for smallholders to achieve competitiveness, to realize economies of scale in market transactions, and to gain market power.

Beyond investments in infrastructure, promising innovations include commodity exchanges, market information systems based on appropriate mix of technologies and farming systems, and market-based risk management tools. Market liberalization that reduces food prices can be pro-poor because many of the poor, including smallholders, are net food buyers.

Advances in science and technology offer potentially large benefits not only to poor producers but also to poor consumers through lower food prices and more nutritional foods. Sharply increased public investment in research and development is needed to ensure design of such pro-poor technologies. Better technologies for soil, water, and livestock management and more sustainable and resilient agricultural systems, including varieties more tolerant of pests, diseases, and drought, are also especially important for subsistence-oriented farmers. Development and adoption of those technologies usually require more decentralized and participatory approaches, combined with collective action by farmers and communities.

Important progress has been made in providing the rural population with improved access to savings facilities, credit, and support to financial transactions, especially through mobile smart phones. Exposure to uninsured risks—the result of natural disasters, health shocks, demographic changes, price volatility, and policy changes—has high efficiency and welfare costs for poor rural households. Institutional innovations such as index-based insurance for drought risk, which is now being scaled up by private initiatives in many countries, can reduce risks to borrowers and lenders and unlock agricultural finance. Yet many of the innovations are still at an early stage of testing.

Addressing climate change and the environment

Many of the rural poor live in less-favored areas that suffer from deforestation, soil erosion, desertification, and degradation of pastures and watersheds. Poor people in these areas are also most vulnerable to climate change. Community-based approaches to natural resource management offer significant promise, but they critically depend on the quality of local governance. But the effects of climate change cannot be addressed through community-based approaches alone, and it is urgent that the international community scale up its support to climate-proof the farming systems of the poor.

The need to respond to climate change is also an opportunity to drive the economic transformation that Africa needs: climate-resilient, low-carbon development that boosts growth, bridges the energy deficit and reduces poverty. Climate change gives greater urgency to sound, growth-stimulating policies irrespective of the climate threat. Growth that supports poverty reduction, environmental protection, resource efficiency and economic growth in an integrated way, sometimes called Green Growth, is an attractive opportunity for countries in Africa. Green growth strategies can generate policies and programs that deliver these goals simultaneously. They can accelerate investment in resource-efficient technologies and new industries, while managing costs and risks to taxpayers, businesses and communities. Making the transition to green growth protects livelihoods; improves water, energy and food security; promotes the sustainable use of natural resources; and spurs innovation, job creation and economic development.

Climate change is already undermining Africa's development achievements. The ongoing El Niño weather phenomenon in various parts of Africa is a testimony to effects of climate change. Ongoing initiatives under the COP21 and the Africa Climate Smart Agriculture Alliance launched in Malabo by African Heads of State in 2014 with the aim to develop a road map to stimulate the uptake of climate smart agriculture practices, with a focus on the most vulnerable rural communities are steps in the right direction to address the issues posed by climate change.

The evolving role of social protection

A growing body of evidence from African countries shows that social protection directly reduces chronic poverty and vulnerability, as these programs enable poor households to meet their basic consumption needs, protect their assets, and achieve better health, nutrition, and education outcomes. These programs also build households' productive assets and expand their income-earning opportunities by building their labour market skills and enabling them to engage in higher risk, higher return activities. Social protection contributes to local economic development by improving labour market functioning, stimulating local markets through cash transfers, and creating community infrastructure, and to broad economic growth by boosting aggregate demand and facilitating difficult economic reforms.

Social protection (SP) is now regarded among policymakers in Africa as a key component of poverty reduction strategies in the region, and dialogue and debate on social protection have continued to expand. In 2009, Member States of the African Union (AU) endorsed the Social Policy Framework for Africa. Governments in the region are investing in SP programs that are proving to be effective, and lessons from the design and implementation of these programs are now informing the expansion of social protection across the continent. As a result of the experience of the 2008 food, fuel, and financial crisis and the 2011 drought in the Horn of Africa, the focus has turned to establishing SP programs that can be scaled up quickly in response to shocks. This emphasis is reflected in the growing number of regional organizations and development agencies that are supporting social protection.

Agricultural trade and trade liberalization

Trade has an important role to play in improving food security and fostering agriculture. The potential gains from freer trade in agriculture dwarfs current aid flows. But the actual progress made in the ongoing WTO negotiations has been limited so far and the benefits remained modest. And even if further liberalization occurred, the lion's share of the additional gains might be reaped by developed countries, particularly if reforms focus too narrowly on a removal of OECD subsidies. More important for developing countries are: a specific removal of trade barriers for products where they have a comparative advantage; a reduction or reversal of tariff escalation for processed tropical commodities; a further reduction of the bias against agriculture in their own countries; more and deeper preferential access for the poorest of the least developed countries; open borders for long-term foreign direct investments (FDI); and improved quality and food safety levels that enable developing countries to compete more efficiently in local, regional and markets abroad.

With such companion policies in place, a freer trading environment can also play an important role in fighting poverty and undernourishment. But if left alone, trade liberalization is unlikely to bring about a massive reduction in poverty and the benefits, if any, could remain in the hands of a few. Support is required to strengthen the supply response of developing countries. Lower export subsidies from or trade barriers to developed countries alone will not generate the investments (in roads, irrigation, research and skills) needed in developing countries to boost agricultural production and to improve competitiveness in international markets. Nor will it bring quality standards up to the level needed to make significant inroads into industrial markets. And even where exports increase and farmers in developing countries benefit, safety nets may be needed for those who face higher food prices.

Governance and mutual accountability

During the last decade, the development environment has changed in many ways. On the one hand, at national and international level a wide range of stakeholders, including the private sector, civil society, NGOs and foundations are increasingly recognized as having a legitimate voice in deliberations. New mechanisms are being put in place to involve their representatives in decision-making processes, as well as in the implementation of jointly developed activities. It is further recognized that in order to achieve global, regional and national development goals, not least to achieve food and nutrition security and reduce poverty, the participation of actors well beyond the agricultural sector is required, further broadening the range of stakeholders and competing views and interests.

The commitment to good governance and mutual accountability are well ground as one of the key commitments in the 2014 African Union's Malabo Declaration. A heightened focus on cross-cutting issues, such as gender and the environment adds further complexity calling for better and stronger governance and on building effective, efficient and accountable institutions fostering participation, equity, transparency and evidence based information and decision making. A second important change is the general recognition that successful development processes must be driven and owned by countries themselves, and that this requires coherent country strategies and programs.

A more focused rural development strategy is needed that should deliver increased reliability to power supply, provision of transportation and storage equipment, better access to roads, investment in skills development, better coordination of information and marketing of produce. Overall, reforms and capacity-building initiatives are needed in the developing world to encourage markets to provide the agriculture sector with better access to finance and promote land use so that it can support rural poverty alleviation.

4. Agriculture and foreign policy in Namibia

The channel by which agriculture and food security can benefit from a country's foreign policy is either directly through international trade and investment or indirectly through participation in bilateral, regional, continental and international undertakings like the SADC, The African Union, WTO, UN processes, etc.

Namibia's trade policy and strategy

Namibia does not currently have a comprehensive trade policy document. The country's trade regime is derived from the context of SACU Agreement of 2002 and SADC Protocol on Trade and other bilateral and multilateral arrangements including WTO. Namibia's Industrial Policy, which is aligned to its Vision 2030 outlines broad areas for interventions relating to trade and investment - supporting value addition, upgrading and diversification for sustained growth; securing market access at home and abroad; and improving the investment climate and conditions. The Investment Act and the Export Processing Zone Act outlines strategies for attracting investments into the country and incentives aimed at attracting investment in export oriented manufacturing and value addition activities.

The Namibia Board of Trade provides support for the administration and management of international trade in Namibia as follows:

- Control of import and export of goods and amendment of customs duties, rebates, refunds and duty drawbacks within the context of the SACU Agreement;
- Provide support for the investigation, evaluation and determination of certain matters pertaining to trade;
- Establishment of infant industry and unfair trade practices; and to provide for the designation of industries.

However, these functions of the Board of Trade were enacted under the International Trade Management Bill, which will only be ratified after the approval of the National Trade Policy which is expected to be finalized by December 2016 as the Bill has to give effect to the policy.

Namibia has embarked upon the establishment of a National Single Window with the aim to enable parties involved in trade and transport to lodge standardized electronic information and documents with a single entry point to fulfill all import, export and transit related regulatory requirements. This will ensure that individual data elements will only be submitted once, thus reducing the cost of doing business and clearance time at entry points.

With regards to agricultural trade, the Agro-Marketing and Trade Agency was created in 2015 as a specialized Agency of the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF), to coordinate and manage the marketing and trading of Agricultural Produce in Namibia. Furthermore, the Namibian Agriculture Policy adopted in December 2015 outlined key priority areas for action with regards to trade. Some of the key areas are: promote intra-SADC as well as continental trade; pro-actively implement SPS agreements for viable markets identified, advocate for the maintenance and improvement of the provisions of regional, bilateral and multilateral trade agreements that grant special and differential treatment to developing countries.

The agricultural trade profile of Namibia as revealed by its export performance in 2015 (Table 2) provides some very interesting insights. In 2015, only 9 product groups at HS 2 digit level recorded export revenues in excess of US\$10 million. These range from a low of US\$10.6 million (Residues, waste of food industry, animal fodder – HS23) to a high of US\$592.2 million (Fish, crustaceans, molluscs, aquatic invertebrates, *nes* HS03). Although Namibia exhibits very strong comparative

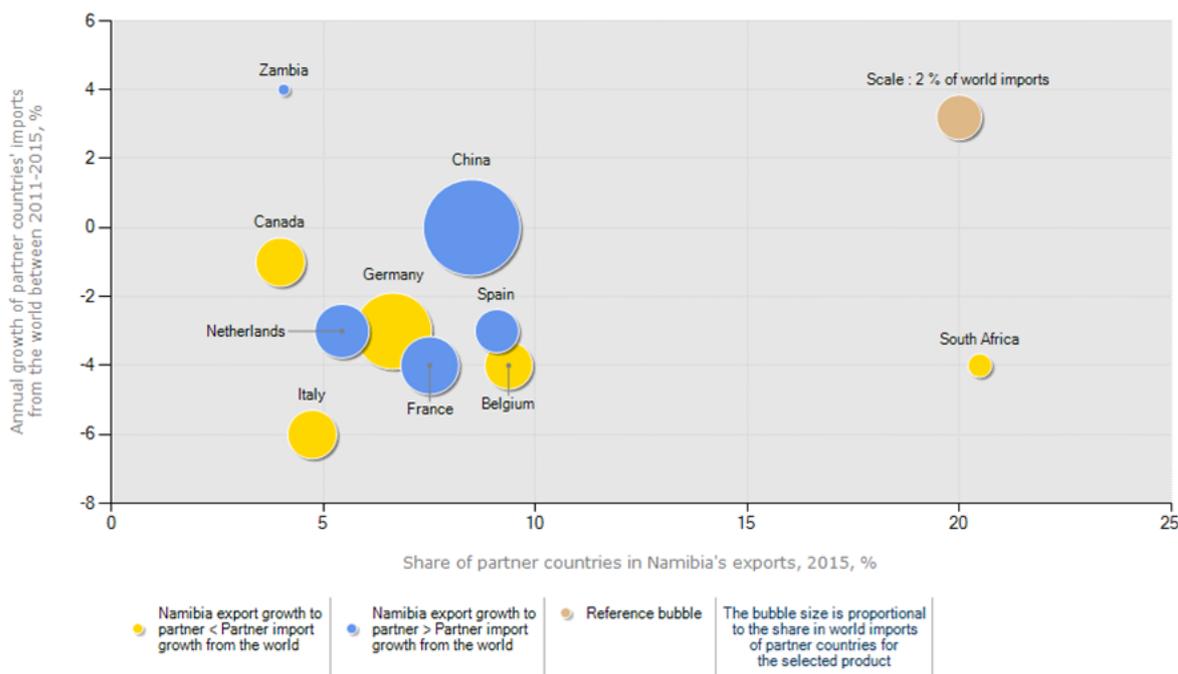
advantage in the exports of all of these 9 products, the export share shares for 6 of them shows marked decline. It is only in the export of raw hides skins and leather (HS41) that a World export share growth was maintain at 6 percent. In the case of food preparations involving meat and fish (HS16) and edible fruits and nuts (HS08) export shares were at 1 percent.

Table2: Namibia's export performance in agriculture (Crops, Livestock, Forestry and Fishery Product) 2015

Industry	Exports in value	Exports as a share of total exports (%)	Exports as a share of world exports (%)	Growth of exports in value (% p.a.)	Growth of exports in volume (% p.a.)	Growth of world exports in value (% p.a.)	Growth of world exports in volume (% p.a.)	Growth of share in world exports (% p.a.)	Number of exported products	Share of top 3 exported products (%)	Share of top 3 export markets (%)	Net trade	Specialisation (Balassa Index / RCA Index)	Specialisation (Lairy Index)
00 All industries	4,060,109	100	0.02	4	-5				1,458	43.4	48.5	3,482,727		
03 Fish, crustaceans, molluscs, aquatic invertebrates nes	592,208	14.59	0.53	8	6	8	2	-1	49	73.8	62.9	563,214	24.7	6
02 Meat and edible meat offal	145,556	3.59	0.11	-6	-8	8	3	-14	27	80.9	87	104,686	5.2	1
08 Edible fruit, nuts, peel of citrus fruit, melons	103,105	2.54	0.1	9	6	9	3	1	18	99.3	85.1	78,463	4.6	1
22 Beverages, spirits and vinegar	98,778	2.43	0.09	-8	-9	7	4	-15	17	98.9	93.9	-54,373	4.1	0
01 Live animals	55,451	1.37	0.24	-10	-13	7	3	-17	8	95.3	99.8	43,116	11.4	1
16 Meat, fish and seafood food preparations nes	54,712	1.35	0.11	9	11	7	3	1	16	92.6	96.7	31,233	5.2	0
44 Wood and articles of wood, wood charcoal	31,565	0.78	0.02	2	3	8	5	-5	28	94.5	82.2	-27,309	1.1	0
41 Raw hides and skins (other than furskins) and leather	25,899	0.64	0.07	13	6	7	-2	6	22	68.4	94.6	23,321	3.4	0
23 Residues, wastes of food industry, animal fodder	21,524	0.53	0.03	-5	-3	10	2	-16	5	99.9	81.2	-24,750	1.2	0
99 Commodities not elsewhere specified	10,647	0.26	0	-4		-1	-32	-4	1	100	77.7	-152,439	0.1	-1
43 Furskins and artificial fur, manufactures thereof	8,355	0.21	0.07	1	-2	11	2	-9	6	98	97	8,209	3	0
12 Oil seed, oleagic fruits, grain, seed, fruit, etc. nes	6,716	0.17	0.01	21	16	10	4	11	8	89.7	88.1	1,566	0.3	0
07 Edible vegetables and certain roots and tubers	5,638	0.14	0.01	-3		4	4	-7	18	86.7	97.8	-25,001	0.4	0
19 Cereal, flour, starch, milk preparations and products	5,544	0.14	0.01	153		9	5	143	9	86.2	99.4	-36,282	0.4	0
15 Animal,vegetable fats and oils, cleavage products, etc	4,438	0.11	0	21		5	3	17	7	91.8	78.2	-32,205	0.2	0
05 Products of animal origin, nes	1,800	0.04	0.02	25		11	2	14	7	83.6	62.7	-1,104	0.7	0
47 Pulp of wood, fibrous cellulosic material, waste etc	1,493	0.04	0	-5	7	1	2	-6	4	99.8	100	1,163	0.2	0
94 Furniture, lighting, signs, prefabricated buildings	1,184	0.03	0	3		10	1	-7	28	43.5	63.4	-185,471	0	-1
04 Dairy products, eggs, honey, edible animal product nes	1,150	0.03	0	-7		9	4	-16	8	92.2	83.5	-46,587	0.1	0
31 Fertilizers	1,034	0.03	0	5		5	2	0	7	93	69.6	-28,588	0.1	0
40 Rubber and articles thereof	858	0.02	0	6		4	3	2	26	56.6	88.6	-101,328	0	-1
63 Other made textile articles, sets, worn clothing etc	726	0.02	0	20		8	1	13	27	59.4	94.6	-114,577	0.1	-1
11 Milling products, malt, starches, inulin, wheat gluten	386	0.01	0	91		9	3	82	4	98.7	100	-28,755	0.1	0
33 Essential oils, perfumes, cosmetics, toileteries	294	0.01	0	-4		7	4	-11	13	69.7	82.7	-88,873	0	-1
17 Sugars and sugar confectionery	282	0.01	0	-25		2	1	-27	5	98.2	98.9	-86,702	0	-1
06 Live trees, plants, bulbs, roots, cut flowers etc	274	0.01	0	52		6	5	46	5	98.2	96.7	-3,137	0.1	0
51 Wool, animal hair, horsehair yarn and fabric thereof	257	0.01	0	57		3	-3	54	5	97.7	100	71	0.1	0
24 Tobacco and manufactured tobacco substitutes	219	0.01	0	30		5	1	25	1	100	99.5	-61,867	0	0
42 Articles of leather, animal gut, harness, travel goods	212	0.01	0	-20		10	1	-30	13	57.1	69.8	-24,699	0	0
09 Coffee, tea, mate and spices	181	0	0	8		8	3	1	4	97.8	96.7	-24,153	0	0
32 Tanning, dyeing extracts, tannins, derivs,pigments etc	130	0	0	-22		5	1	-26	10	56.2	88.5	-50,068	0	0
35 Albuminoids, modified starches, glues, enzymes	64	0	0	23		8	3	15	3	98.4	95.3	-6,327	0	0
18 Cocoa and cocoa preparations	63	0	0	-61		6	4	-67	2	100	100	-12,685	0	0
21 Miscellaneous edible preparations	59	0	0	11		9	6	2	6	86.4	91.5	-51,484	0	0
20 Vegetable, fruit, nut, etc food preparations	39	0	0	-24		7	1	-31	8	46.2	84.6	-58,995	0	0
54 Manmade filaments	25	0	0	12		5	-1	6	3	96	100	-3,889	0	0
14 Vegetable plaiting materials, vegetable products nes	23	0	0			2	-1		1	100	100	-38	0	0
53 Vegetable textile fibres nes, paper yarn, woven fabric	21	0	0			7	0		2	100	100	-1	0	0
13 Lac, gums, resins, vegetable saps and extracts nes	14	0	0	24		13		11	2	100	100	-1,486	0	0
55 Manmade staple fibres	13	0	0	60		6	1	54	2	100	100	-2,990	0	0
52 Cotton	12	0	0	-21		3	-5	-24	1	100	100	-4,728	0	0
50 Silk	5	0	0	26		-3	-13	29	1	100	100	-633	0	0
67 Bird skin, feathers, artificial flowers, human hair	3	0	0	-19		17	-2	-36	1	100	100	-17,257	0	0
10 Cereals	1	0	0	-54		9	2	-63	0	100	100	-74,715	0	0
58 Special woven or tufted fabric, lace, tapestry etc	1	0	0	-62		4	-1	-67	0	100	100	-3,345	0	0
45 Cork and articles of cork	0	0	0			3	2		0	0	0	-17	0	0

Furthermore, within these 9 product groups, 3 products command shares of between 68 to 99 percent, which were exported to no more than 3 export destinations. This points to need for Namibia to diversify its product base and take advantage of opportunities elsewhere through a revived foreign policy vision. Figure 3 shed some further clarity to the narrow base of Namibia’s export markets.

Figure3: Namibia’s exports destinations in 2015(All product category)



Source: Trade Map, ITC 2016

Namibia’s regional, bilateral and multilateral arrangements¹³

The sustainable development goals (SDGs)

As a UN member State, Namibia is committed to the overarching drive toward attaining the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030. Adopted by the UN’s 193 Member States on 25 September 2015, the SDGs are new global goals that have succeeded the Millennium Development Goals in 2016. The SDGs will shape national development policies for the next 15 years. Food and agriculture is at the heart of the 17 SDGs, beginning with SDG1, End poverty, and SDG2, End hunger. Food security and its link to natural resources and rural development features are in virtually every goal of the 2030 Agenda¹⁴. These are also consistent with Namibia’s long term objectives as articulated in its Vision 2030.

¹³ Namibia has signed Trade and Economic Cooperation Agreements with the following countries: Angola, China, DR Congo, Cuba, Ghana, India, Malaysia, Russia, Tunisia and Zimbabwe.

¹⁴ <http://www.fao.org/sustainable-development-goals/home/en/>

The SDG1 tackles poverty in all its forms everywhere, addressing both absolute and relative poverty (SDG Target 1.1 and SDG Target 1.2). To achieve this, it will be dependent on growth in agriculture since this sector is the single sector which employs the largest number of people in Namibia. Through focusing on rural development, where the majority of the world's extreme poor are living, establishing social protection systems, building rural-urban linkages and focusing on boosting the incomes of the critical agents of change – smallholder family and communal farmers, foresters, fisher folk, rural women and youth – is key to achieving inclusive and equitable growth while tackling the root causes of poverty.

The SDG2 calls for ending hunger, achieving food security and improving nutrition while promoting sustainable agriculture, which have comprehensive approaches focusing on fostering political commitment and accountability, improving capacities and mobilizing resources at all levels to meet Zero Hunger by 2030. In these approaches, strengthening the contribution of agriculture and food systems to improved nutrition is also prioritized.

One of the greatest challenges of the future is to increase food production using less water. This is a key preoccupation in Namibia. The SDG6 focuses on clean water and sanitation. By 2030, if the status quo is not improved, 1.8 billion people are projected to be faced with absolute water scarcity.

Affordable and clean energy will also play a key enabling role in achieving food and nutrition security. Food systems, which currently consume 30 percent of the world's energy, will gradually need to decouple from fossil fuel dependence and SDG7 looks at affordable and clean energy for all.

Africa continues to largely depend on unsustainable harvested traditional biomass energy as cooking fuel and income generating activity in rural areas. SDG12 is promoting responsible sustainable consumption and production which on itself will contribute to SDG2.

Climate change remains one of the key challenges of our times and recently in Paris an agreement was reached to set out a global action plan to put the world on track to avoid dangerous climate change by limiting global warming. SDG13 looks at promoting global climate action.

SDG14 underlines the importance of the sustainable management of our ocean ecosystems. Worldwide nearly 3 billion people receive 20 percent of their daily animal protein intake from fish, while almost 29 percent of commercially important marine fish stocks are overfished and 61 percent fully fished.

SDG15 will promote the sustainable management of terrestrial ecosystems, forests, mountains, land, soils and biodiversity. Through the achievements of both SDG14 and SDG15, important leeway can be made towards SDG1 and 2 as well.

African Union – The CAADP, Agenda 2063 and the Malabo Declaration

As a member of the African Union, Namibia is party to the AU's strategy and long term vision of the creation of an African Economic Community as enshrined in the Abuja Treaty of 1991. The Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Program or CAADP is the framework for the African agriculture to contribute towards the aspirations of an African Economic Community by 2025.

In January 2015, the African Union adopted Agenda 2063 – a shared strategic continental framework for inclusive growth and sustainable development. A first Ten Year Plan (2014-2023) was developed and adopted in June 2015 to ensure effective implementation. Seven African Aspirations and their corresponding priority areas are fully aligned to the targets of the SDGs. These seven aspirations were adopted earlier in June 2014 and are dubbed the *Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods*.

The Malabo Declaration and its Implementation Strategy and Roadmap represents very bold commitments, with specific targets linked to the SDGs but with a very ambitious time frame of 2025 to attain the following: i) commitments to the principles and values of the CAADP process (SDG1, 2); ii) to enhancing investment finance in agriculture (SDG2); iii) to ending hunger in Africa by 2025 (SDG2); iv) to halving poverty by 2025 through inclusive agricultural growth and transformation (SDG1); v) to boosting intra-African trade in agricultural commodities and services (SDG2); vi) to enhancing resilience of livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other related risks (SDG13); and; vii) mutual accountability to actions and results which will assist countries reaching the targets under the respective SDGs. Targets iii and iv of the Malabo Declaration, which are directly linked with SDG2 and SDG1, respectively are critical for Namibia as outlined in its *Harambee Prosperity Plan*.

Namibia did not participate effectively in the CAADP process, i.e. it did not institute a CAADP Compact nor did it develop a National Agricultural Investment Plan (NAIP), which are necessary building blocks to take full advantage of the benefits inherent in the African Integration Agenda. It is also not clear if the country has conducted any Agricultural Joint Sector Reviews which are the principal instrument for mutual accountability and reporting on the agreed action of the Malabo Implementation Strategy and Roadmap.

As this process is gaining momentum, the government of Namibia has taken step to promote dialogue with a view to developing its strategy for attaining the Zero Hunger challenge posed by both the SDGs and the Malabo Declaration and to take advantage of the opportunities inherent in the continental framework. Thus, the political will exist to fully integrate Namibia into the AU/continental process as expounded in the Malabo Declaration. Namibia therefore needs to strengthen its engagement with the African Union and the NEPAD Agency for Planning and Coordination (NPCA) along with partners like FAO, WFP, IFAD, the World Bank and relevant bilateral partners to ensure that, using its existing frameworks, synergies can be developed to align its strategies for achieving zero hunger and eradicate poverty. However, as the outcome of a national dialogue on Zero Hunger are still on the drawing board, further discussions on this issues will await the outcome of the national consultative process.

Finally, Namibian diplomats need to ensure that synergies are developed between the SDGs and the Malabo framework so to avoid duplication which would ultimately undermine the attainment of the country's Vision 2030.

The African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA)

The AGOA was endorsed into law in May 2000, as a component of the Trade and Development Act that seeks to enhance trade and investment between the United States and Africa by providing a non-reciprocal trade preference for over 6,400 products originating from 37 eligible Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries. Notably, these include items such as apparel and footwear, wine, certain motor vehicle components, a variety of agricultural products, chemicals, steel and so forth.

Namibia became AGOA beneficiary country in 2001 and qualified for the 'special rule' provision on apparel articles which allows the country to be classified as less developed in order to use third country inputs in the manufacture of AGOA eligible clothing.

Namibia's exports to the USA in 2010 were valued at over N\$ 1.9 billion and increased to over N\$2.9 billion in 2011. In 2012 and 2013 Namibia exports to the US amounted to more than N\$1.6 billion and N\$2 billion respectively.

The positive trade balance for Namibia against the US as described above can mostly be ascribed to the value of exported minerals consisting of Uranium ores and concentrates, non-industrial diamonds as well as refined copper. Namibia also exported fisheries products to the US such as frozen fillets blocks etc.

Namibia's strategy on AGOA is not documented in a policy format, however, interests for securing AGOA market access for products such as meat, grape and fish are well articulated. For the last couple of years, the efforts have focused on ensuring that products of Namibia exports interest i.e. beef, grape and fish, obtain market access to the USA under AGOA.

With respect to beef the process of obtaining market access for Namibia meat products to the US under AGOA is at advanced stage. Namibia is currently engaged with the United States Department of Agriculture-Food Safety Inspection Services (USDA-FSIS) in an FSIS equivalence process for the export of beef to the US.

Namibia obtained equivalency certificate to export grapes to the US back in 2009. The requirements set forth stipulates that Namibian grapes must be fumigated with methyl bromide. Other additional requirement is that upon arrival in the USA, grapes which are normally transported at temperature of – 0.55 Centigrade need to be rapidly brought to a room temperature of 15-20 centigrade to see if any fruit flies hatch out, before they can be released into the retail market.

Currently, there are some Namibian fishing companies that export hake to the US market; however, problems are being experienced with regard to logistics. There is a need to look into the entire logistics system, especially the transportation and clearance, jointly with the US authorities. The Namibian Government believes that technical and administrative hiccups affecting access of the Namibian exports to the US should be mutually addressed by the two governments hence the focus is to engage the USA administration so that this issues is resolved.

As a result of intense consultations between Namibian and US official, the importance of AGOA to SACU has been reiterated, with continued inclusion of all SACU Member States except Swaziland in the programme and thus the cooperation agreement has been extended for another 10 years.

COMESA-EAC-SADC Tripartite-FTA Negotiations

The COMESA-EAC-SADC Free Trade Area was launched in June 2015. A number of countries, including Namibia, signed the Agreement. As a member of SADC, Namibia is expected to access a Tripartite Free Trade Area market of around 600 million consumers with a combined GDP of US\$1.3 trillion. This initiative would serve as an opportunity for businesses and exporters of goods to access a free African market with opportunities for growth and employment creation. Lot of efforts would have to be put in place in order to benefit from these economic integration efforts. The need to expand Namibia's industrial base now more than ever, should become an important policy output hinging on the Public Private Partnership relationship taking into account the Vision 2030.

SACU-EFTA¹⁵ FTA

The Agreement entered into force on 1 May 2008. EFTA granted the SACU Member Countries free trade in all goods from the entry into force, whereas SACU Member Countries dismantle their tariffs progressively until 2014 on almost all industrial products.

The EFTA market has been providing market access for Namibia's beef export products namely frozen boneless bovine meat to Norway. Namibia imports pharmaceutical products, machinery and mechanical appliances from EFTA, which are used in health care and other industries.

¹⁵ The European Free Trade Association (EFTA) is an intergovernmental organization set up for the promotion of free trade and economic integration to the benefit of its four Member States: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

Namibia and other SACU Member States are benefiting from capacity building provided by EFTA in a number of areas such as mutual administrative assistance in customs matters and rules of origin. The Agreement provides for liberal rules of origin and allows the use of up to 60 percent of non-originating input in the production of certain products.

SACU – India PTA negotiation

SACU and India agreed to negotiate and conclude a Preferential Trade Agreement (PTA). However, there has been little progress in the negotiations. India has on several occasions proposed that SACU agree to an average margin of preference of 70 percent. SACU's consolidated response resulted in 10 percent average, very below the proposal.

The SACU-India PTA is still under negotiations. It is anticipated that the Agreement will provide additional secured market access for Namibia goods, giving special treatment in favor of goods exported from Namibia. India is an industrialized country making it a good country that will support process of industrialization in Namibia through the provision of technology and inputs that could be imported from India.

SADC EPA

The final negotiation meeting on the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) between the SADC EPA Group and the European Union (EU) was held on 15–17 July 2014 in South Africa. The parties concluded the negotiations and initialed the final EPA Text and its annexes pending some minor legal issues thereof. The initialing of the EPA Text was done to allow the EU to implement certain internal measures to avoid disruption of market access for Botswana, Namibia and Swaziland on 1 October 2014.

The benefit of signing the EPA is that the current preferential market access for beef, grapes and fish is maintained. However, the potential improvement of Namibia's beef exports to the EU depends largely on the domestic supply capacity as well as the lifting of restrictions on bone-in exports for lamb. Given the current Duty-Free-Quota-Free (DFQF) market access and the fact that Namibia has been unable to fill the Cotonou beef quota, it is unlikely that there will be an improvement in Namibia's beef exports to the EU as a result of signing the EPA. Similarly, export for the grapes sector is maintained. This may however increase if the savings from the tariffs are re-invested in increasing the supply capacity of the sector.

SADC FTA

The SADC Protocol on Trade (2005), as amended, envisages the establishment of a Free Trade Area in the SADC Region by 2008 and its objectives are to further liberalize intra-regional trade in goods and services; ensure efficient production; contribute towards the improvement of the climate for domestic, cross-border and foreign investment; and enhance economic development, diversification and industrialization of the region.

Freeing trade in the region will create larger market, releasing the potential for trade, economic growth and employment creation. The SADC Free Trade Area seeks to meet the following needs of the private sector and other regional stakeholders: increased domestic production; greater business opportunities; higher regional imports and exports; access to cheaper inputs and consumer goods; greater employment opportunities; more foreign direct investment and joint ventures; creation of regional value chains.

Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA)

In line with the January 2015 African Union (AU) Summit Decision, The AU Summit held in June 2015 in Johannesburg, launched the Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) negotiations. The Summit also requested the CFTA (CFTA Negotiating Forum to organize its inaugural Meeting in 2015 and to work towards concluding the negotiations by 2017.

The main objectives of the CFTA are to create a single continental market for goods and services, with free movement of business persons and investments, and thus pave the way for accelerating the establishment of the Customs Union and untimely the African Economic Community as envisage under the Abuja Treaty of 1991. It will also expand intra-African trade through better harmonization and coordination of trade liberalization and facilitation and instruments across the RECs and across Africa in general. The CFTA is also expected to boost intra-African trade through overcoming dependence on exportation of primary products and promotion of social and economic transformation for inclusive growth industrialization and sustainable development in line with the AU Agenda 2063.

World Trade Organization (WTO)

Namibia has been a WTO Member since its inception in 1995; hence its trade policy is heavily influenced by this membership. A key variable why Namibia supports the multilateral Trading system is its inherent belief that trade can spur economic growth and development which could help to eradicate poverty. Namibia as a net food-import developing country has the objective of ensuring food security for its citizens.

Namibia continues to engage in the Doha Development Agenda (DDA) Negotiations which were launched in 2001 in Doha with developmental promises. It is understood that, the DDA negotiations if successfully concluded can help countries reduce poverty.

As stipulated in the national development plans and vision 2030 policy documents, Namibia has an aspiration to become an industrialized country by 2030. Industrialization in this context implies that Namibia's income per capita base would have to grow to the equivalent of the upper income economies, resulting in a change in status from an upper middle income country to a high income country. Manufacturing and service sector should constitute about 80 percent of the country's gross domestic product etc. These important policy documents serve as catalyst to inform the national position when engaging in the multilateral trading system.

The multilateral trade negotiations have now become more complex, with many issues being covered and with close to 161 countries participating in the negotiations. The trade policymaking process is therefore critical to the identification of trade opportunities and challenges within the context of overall national economic policy objectives, so that a negotiating position can be formulated and promoted.

In this regard, Namibia's has been pursuing its trade and economic interests on DDA as part of alliances and coalitions of other WTO members, including NAMA 11, the African Union and the ACP Group of countries, G33, W52¹⁶ and G90.

¹⁶ Sponsors of TN/C/W/52, a proposal for “modalities” in negotiations on geographical indications. The list includes as groups: the EU, ACP and African Group. * Dominican Rep. is in the ACP and South Africa is in the African Group, but they are sponsors of TN/IP/W/10/Rev.2 on geographical indications

5. Conclusions and way forward

Growth in agriculture is beneficial for poverty reduction and the potential to make contribution to poverty reduction is connected to exploiting the linkages and the composition of, and growth in related sub-sectors. In Namibia, agriculture plays either directly or indirectly an important role in making economic growth more pro-poor to raise the income levels of those employed in the sector. The growth in agricultural incomes not only increases households' purchasing power to enhance livelihood in basic food items, but also feeds into higher growth in other agriculture and non-agriculture related sectors such as expenditure on tractors, tube wells, fertilizers and pesticides, and on services including education and health care.

While the internationalization of production and supply chain has given rise to complex cross-border flows of goods, know-how, investment and services and movement of people, referred to as supply-chain trade, Namibia is given new opportunities to integrate into the global economy by participating in international production networks rather than having to build its own from scratch.

Participating in international value chains means being linked to activities such as production inputs, research and development, manufacturing, marketing, distribution or post-sale services. Namibia's foreign policy can be tailored to build such linkages and networks with its neighbors in SACU, SADC, and Tripartite and Continental level. This allows specialization in "tasks" and economies of scale to enhance both productive and efficient capacities.

Given the often huge financial outlays need for broad based participation in the regional and multilateral Agenda, Namibia's foreign policy would have to be targeted and refocused so that its foreign interventions can yield maximum benefits at minimal cost. In this regard, and with the objective of enhancing agriculture and food security, the country should consider to strengthen its participation among the 3 Rome-Based-Agencies (RBAs) of FAO, IFAD and WFP. With FAO and its Rome Based partner Agencies very important deliberations and decisions are made that can have significant impact on countries like Namibia. For instance, the *Codex Alimentarius Commission*, the International Plant Protection Convention (IPPC) are housed in FAO where decision on food safety standards, sanitary or phytosanitary measures on international standards, guidelines or recommendations are taking place. This strategy should also consider enhancing participation at the World Animal Health Organization (OIE) as it aims to improve knowledge on animal health – something Namibia can both share its expertise and benefit from.

Furthermore, important consensus are derived from FAO Committees of Fisheries (COFI), Forestry (COFO), Commodity Problems (CCP), World Food Security (CFS), etc. that are important for Namibia. In this regard, and as recent reports of illegal fishing activities are been reported for Southern Africa including Namibia, the country should accelerate its efforts to tackle the problem of Illegal Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) fishing by signing and implementing the recently completed Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing¹⁷. The main purpose of the Agreement is to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing through the implementation of robust port State measures. The Agreement envisages that parties, in their capacities as port States, will apply the Agreement in an effective manner to foreign vessels when seeking entry to ports or while they are in port. Enhanced port State measures have an important role in combating IUU fishing, principally because they complement the efforts of flag States in fulfilling their responsibilities under international law.

¹⁷ <http://www.fao.org/port-state-measures/en/>

Furthermore, as Namibia has taken step to promote dialogue with a view to developing its strategy for attaining the Zero Hunger challenge posed by both the SDGs and the Malabo Declaration and to take advantage of the opportunities inherent in the AU continental framework. The political will exist to fully integrate Namibia into the AU/continental process as expounded in the Malabo Declaration. Namibia therefore needs to strengthen its engagement with the African Union and the NEPAD Agency for Planning and Coordination (NPCA) along with partners like FAO, WFP, IFAD, the World Bank and relevant bilateral partners to ensure that, using it existing frameworks, synergies can be developed to align its strategies for achieving zero hunger and eradicate poverty.

Finally, Namibian diplomats need to ensure that synergies are developed between the all agencies involved with the SDGs and the Malabo framework so to avoid duplication which would ultimately undermine the attainment of the country's Vision 2030.

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