

More Aid for African Agriculture

Policy implications for small-scale farmers

Annexes

(to be read in conjunction with the reports available at:
www.ukfg.org.uk/docs/More_Aid_for_African_Agriculture_MAIN_REPORT.pdf
www.ukfg.org.uk/docs/More_Aid_for_African_Agriculture_EVIDENCE.pdf)

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Annex 31: Aid to Agriculture in 1980, 1990 and 2000: volumes and shares

Table 1: Bilateral assistance

Table 3: Bilateral assistance to agriculture in 1980, 1990 and 2000: volumes and shares

Country	Average annual ODA to agriculture in constant 2002 prices (US\$ million)			Average annual share of ODA to agriculture in total ODA (%)		
	1979-81	1989-91	1999-01	1979-81	1989-91	1999-01
Australia	13.8	27.3	46.9	2.7	8.5	7.2
Austria	n.a.	n.a.	4.0	n.a.	n.a.	0.9
Belgium	n.a.	0.3	68.1	n.a.	0.3	6.3
Canada	80.9	80.4	18.3	21.6	5.2	1.1
Denmark	53.8	38.2	57.6	15.9	9.4	6.8
Finland	n.a.	60.5	3.0	n.a.	15.4	1.0
France	131.2	247.9	141.7	7.9	10.5	3.6
Germany	373.5	145.0	134.1	7.9	3.8	2.9
Italy	10.6	150.7	27.6	21.5	10.5	2.2
Japan	661.4	736.5	481.1	10.1	7.7	7.3
Netherlands	223.1	130.7	96.2	19.5	11.4	2.2
Norway	37.2	23.4	43.6	14.9	4.4	4.0
Sweden	12.9	244.2	28.7	2.6	13.1	2.7
Switzerland	38.6	68.9	62.5	26.6	12.2	7.9
United Kingdom	75.9	102.4	107.2	4.7	8.5	2.9
United States	1042.1	549.2	383.2	12.5	6.6	3.1
All bilaterals	2755.0	2605.6	1703.8	13.0	8.0	3.9

Source: OECD (2004)

Note: The 'all bilaterals' row for agriculture's share in ODA is an unweighted average, rather than agriculture's share in global ODA volume as reported in Table 2.

Table 2: Multilateral assistance

Table 4: Multilateral assistance to agriculture in 1980, 1990 and 2000: volumes and shares

Multilateral	Average annual ODA to agriculture in constant 2002 prices (million US\$)			Average annual share of ODA to agriculture in total ODA (%)		
	1979-81	1989-91	1999-01	1979-81	1989-91	1999-01
African Development Fund	118.2	287.2	92.3	27.9	28.6	10.5
Asian Development Fund	215.9	492.3	76.8	28.2	36.6	6.5
European Community	460.5	81.6	132.5	25.2	5.9	3.8
Int. Devpt. Assistance	1551.3	1253.8	634.9	31.6	19.7	10.3
Int. Devpt. Bank Special Fund	352.8	63.4	n.a.	27.8	16.1	n.a.
Int. Fund for Agr. Devpt.	372.1	110.2	177.9	61.6	55.6	48.6
All multilaterals	3070.8	2288.5	1114.4	33.7	27.1	15.9

Source: OECD (2004)

Note: Volumes are computed as three-year annual averages. The 'all multilaterals' row for agriculture's share in ODA is an unweighted average, rather than agriculture's share of global ODA volume as reported in Table 1.

Source: Source: DFID (2004). Official development assistance to agriculture. Agriculture and Natural Resources Team of the UK DFID, p10.

Annex 32: ODA to Africa by sector since 1990

Table1: ODA to Africa by sector since 1990
As a percentage of total ODA to Africa, 3-year average commitments

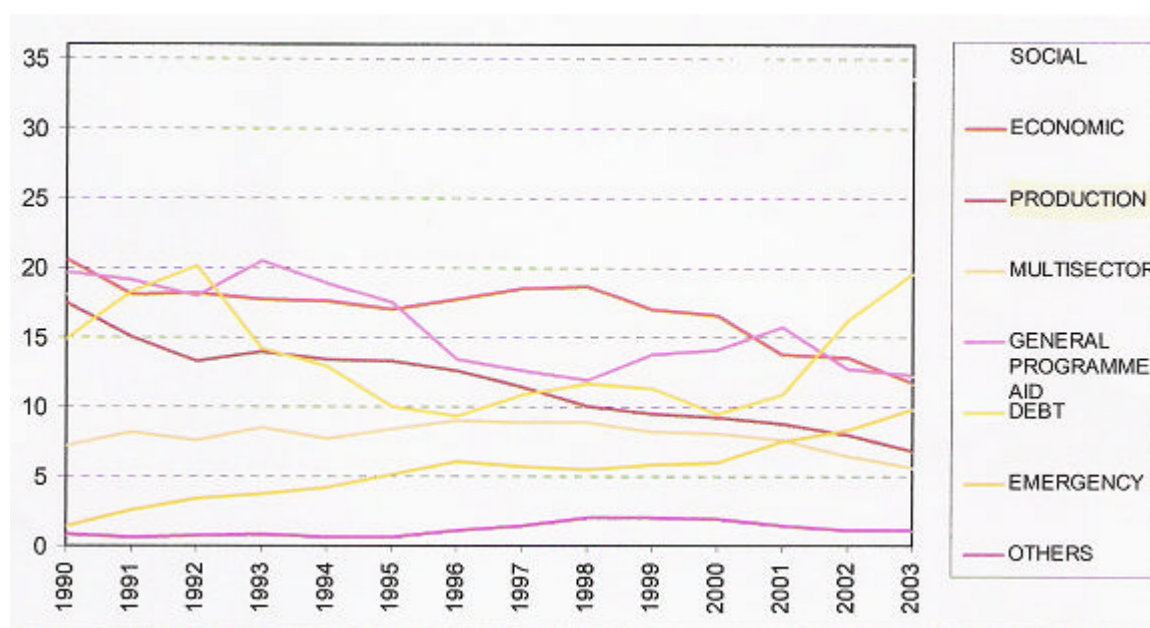
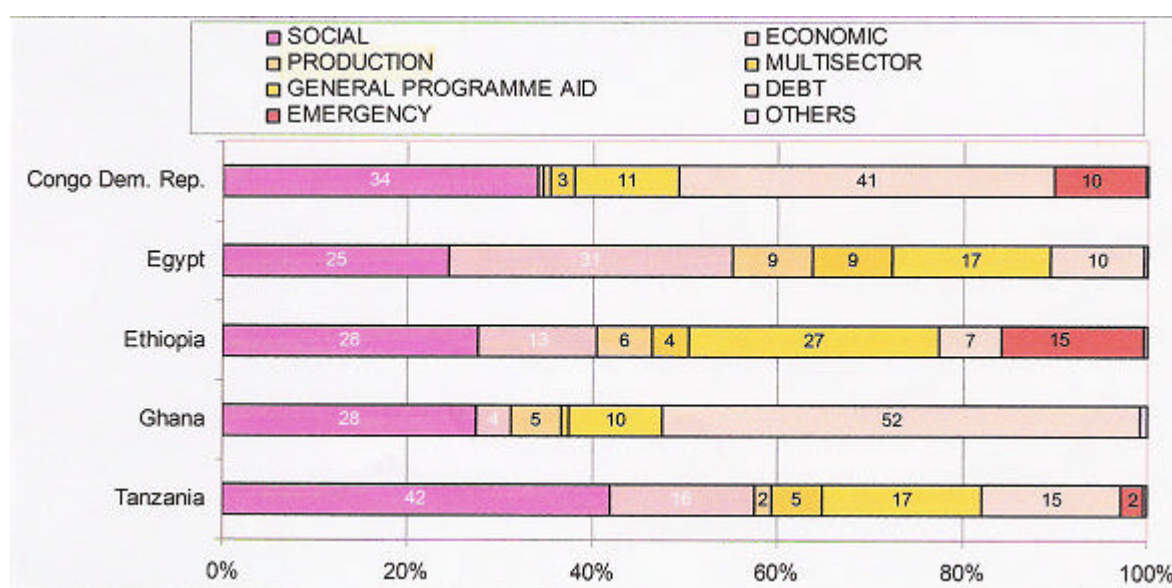


Table2: ODA to 5 largest recipients in Africa by sector in 2004
As a percentage of total ODA committed for each country



Source: Development Aid at a Glance – Statistics by region: Africa. OECD CRS (2007)

Annex 33, Table 1: ODA to Africa by donor and sector in 2004

As a percentage of total donor commitments

	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany	Greece	Ireland	Italy	Japan	Luxembourg	Netherlands	New Zealand	Norway	Portugal	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	United States	Total DAC countries	EC	World Bank	African Dev. Bank	Total multilaterals
SOCIAL	37.2	16.9	31.8	52.7	55.0	47.0	32.1	43.3	42.5	63.3	20.7	19.5	47.6	46.2	27.0	40.5	8.8	30.6	36.7	39.6	33.5	34.6	34.0	35.7	33.9	40.4	38.6
Education	32.2	6.4	9.0	9.2	4.8	15.4	22.1	14.8	18.4	16.1	9.3	7.9	16.6	5.6	9.5	6.0	4.9	7.5	4.1	1.6	3.3	3.8	9.8	2.4	7.0	8.8	5.4
of which: Basic education	0.0	0.5	1.9	8.4	1.7	6.8	1.7	1.8	8.2	9.6	2.3	2.6	5.1	3.6	9.3	3.9	0.3	2.8	2.6	0.8	2.9	3.5	2.8	0.9	2.2	0.1	1.6
Health	1.7	2.0	3.6	4.0	15.8	2.7	3.0	1.9	5.6	23.6	7.0	3.0	12.2	11.7	4.0	9.5	1.0	12.1	1.9	7.3	4.2	3.0	4.5	0.9	1.9	5.4	4.5
of which: Basic health	1.3	1.9	3.1	2.2	14.9	2.4	0.2	0.5	4.1	14.9	4.7	1.2	9.1	3.0	4.0	2.1	0.2	4.5	1.2	6.2	3.3	2.6	2.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	3.1
Population and reproductive health	0.9	0.9	2.1	14.8	1.2	2.4	0.1	2.0	4.9	2.2	0.6	0.1	4.6	5.3	7.3	1.7	0.0	2.2	9.3	0.2	10.3	18.9	6.3	5.0	3.8	3.5	6.6
Water supply and sanitation	1.0	3.8	1.9	9.1	27.3	2.0	3.0	12.9	2.5	6.1	0.5	7.3	11.3	6.4	0.8	0.5	0.2	1.9	1.7	0.6	0.2	0.3	4.3	5.6	8.8	12.4	7.5
Government and civil society	0.7	3.2	10.8	7.4	5.3	20.7	1.2	8.7	5.5	13.1	2.1	0.6	0.4	15.3	2.5	19.3	0.9	1.8	16.5	29.6	13.4	6.5	6.7	17.6	8.9	8.3	10.9
Other social infrastr. and services	0.7	0.6	4.4	8.1	0.6	3.8	2.7	3.1	5.7	2.3	1.1	0.5	2.5	2.0	3.0	3.5	1.8	5.1	3.2	0.3	2.0	2.1	2.4	4.3	3.4	1.9	3.8
ECONOMIC	0.1	1.4	4.6	3.0	9.4	2.3	5.7	13.2	-	2.7	5.7	6.3	3.3	3.8	-	3.6	0.6	18.7	8.2	7.1	1.7	8.2	6.2	17.3	27.1	22.3	21.4
Transport, communications	-	0.9	0.9	2.3	6.6	0.1	4.1	1.9	-	2.3	0.2	2.2	1.9	0.0	-	1.6	0.5	5.5	2.1	2.7	0.6	0.3	1.9	15.2	17.6	14.0	15.0
Energy	-	0.1	2.4	0.1	2.6	0.0	1.4	8.6	-	0.0	5.1	4.0	-	2.1	-	0.6	0.1	12.9	4.3	-	-	0.0	2.1	1.5	5.6	3.7	3.6
Banking, business and other services	0.1	0.4	1.4	0.5	0.3	2.2	0.2	2.6	-	0.3	0.4	0.1	1.4	1.7	-	1.4	0.1	0.2	1.9	4.4	1.1	7.8	2.2	0.5	3.9	4.6	2.8
PRODUCTION	1.5	2.5	9.4	16.8	12.9	8.2	2.4	6.7	7.4	6.5	2.3	4.8	6.6	4.9	2.2	10.8	0.2	6.5	4.1	6.1	2.1	4.1	4.9	9.2	7.9	10.7	8.8
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1.5	0.7	8.5	14.4	10.6	8.0	1.3	5.9	5.0	6.5	1.5	4.2	6.3	4.2	1.7	9.6	0.1	3.8	3.9	4.5	1.9	1.8	3.7	3.6	3.5	10.7	4.9
Industry, mining and construction	-	1.8	0.4	2.3	2.3	0.0	1.1	0.6	-	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.5	-	1.2	0.1	2.4	-	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.7	4.4	4.5	-	3.5
Trade and tourism	-	0.0	0.4	0.0	-	0.1	0.0	0.3	2.4	0.0	0.4	0.0	-	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.0	2.0	0.5	1.2	-	-	0.4
MULTISECTOR	0.6	4.0	2.7	1.9	2.1	4.1	3.7	10.4	14.0	4.7	4.5	0.3	4.8	7.0	8.7	7.3	0.6	4.9	17.1	21.2	0.7	6.0	4.5	8.1	1.6	10.9	5.3
GENERAL PROGRAMME AID	-	1.1	3.9	10.7	10.8	17.2	2.9	1.8	3.3	11.1	1.6	3.2	3.1	11.1	-	12.0	13.6	1.7	9.6	-	22.7	11.0	8.4	16.8	22.8	10.0	17.4
DEBT	7.4	59.3	35.1	8.0	9.2	-	44.8	17.2	-	-	27.7	64.4	-	2.8	-	2.0	75.3	27.2	4.0	2.8	29.5	2.9	27.5	0.1	6.3	5.7	3.8
EMERGENCY	53.2	13.3	8.4	6.9	0.0	21.1	7.2	6.5	32.8	9.0	2.7	-	12.3	23.7	33.5	23.6	0.3	9.4	17.7	22.9	9.1	33.4	12.9	12.5	0.4	-	4.3
OTHERS	-	1.5	4.1	0.2	0.6	0.2	1.2	0.8	-	2.7	34.7	1.5	22.3	0.4	28.6	0.2	0.5	1.0	2.5	0.4	0.7	-	1.6	0.3	-	-	0.5
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Food aid (emergency and develop. aid)	18.5	1.2	3.0	5.1	-	5.3	1.4	2.3	9.0	1.5	0.4	1.6	3.5	3.8	7.6	1.5	-	2.6	1.2	5.1	2.1	29.9	7.4	5.1	-	-	1.6

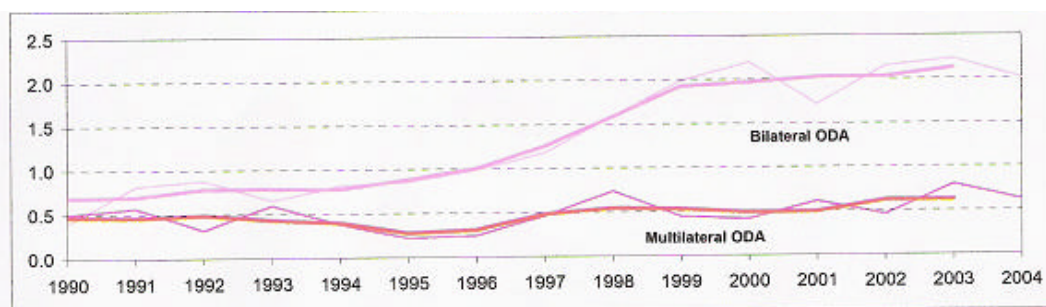
Source: Development Aid at a Glance – Statistics by region: Africa. OECD CRS (2007)

Annex 33, Table 2: Education

USD billion, 2003 prices, commitments with 3 year moving averages

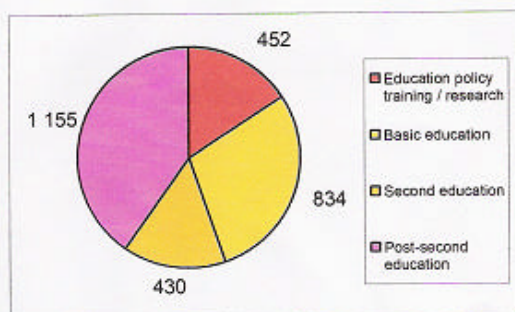
Source: Development Aid at a Glance – Statistics by region: Africa. OECD CRS (2007)

Table2: Education



Top 10 recipients 2004											
USD million, 2004 prices											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
commitments	Morocco	Tanzania	Algeria	Mayotte	Ghana	Cameroon	Ethiopia	Senegal	Zambia	Tunisia	Others
1 France	197	6	153	149	1	33	3	75	0	64	305
2 IDA	-	180	-	-	78	4	40	-	-	-	115
3 Germany	51	1	2	-	8	56	11	4	1	17	108
4 Japan	86	4	0	-	5	8	2	2	8	2	79
5 United States	-	-	-	-	9	-	18	4	6	-	133
6 African Dev. Fund	-	-	-	-	37	22	-	-	-	-	66
7 EC	5	-	26	-	-	-	-	-	12	2	48
8 Canada	3	46	-	-	-	-	0	0	3	-	31
9 United Kingdom	-	0	-	-	0	-	3	-	0	-	78
10 Belgium	2	2	0	-	-	1	6	2	2	0	39
Other donors	8	20	1	-	2	2	33	6	56	1	268
Total	353	261	184	149	141	127	116	93	90	88	1 270
											2 871

Education ODA commitments by sub-sector 2004
USD million, 2004 prices



Related Millenium Development Goals

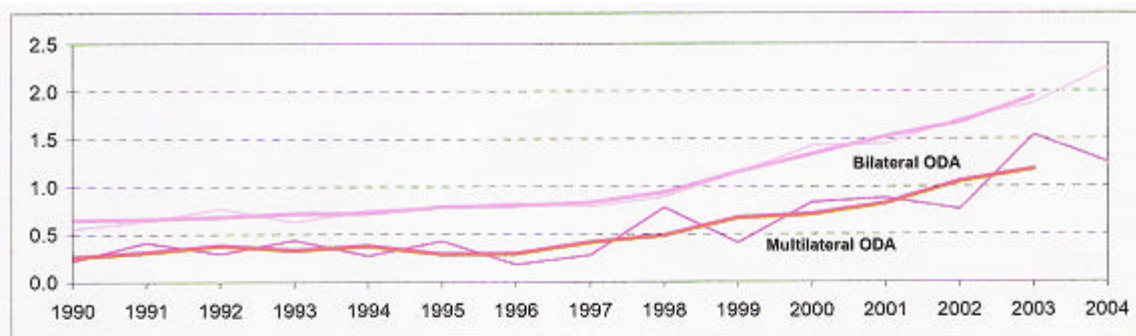
Achieve universal primary education (Goal 2)

Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling (Target 3)

ODA commitments/disbursements in education to Africa
USD million, current prices

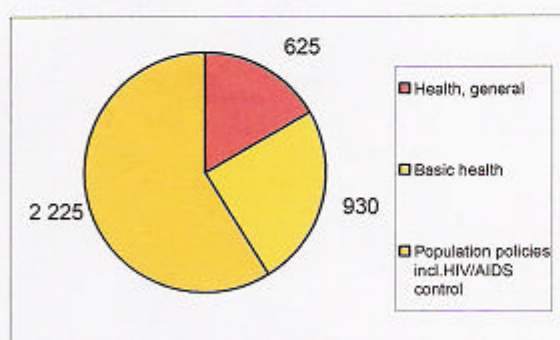
	commitments		disbursements	
	2003	2004	2003	2004
Australia	2	14	0	5
Austria	7	9	8	8
Belgium	46	54	29	78
Canada	126	84	77	83
Denmark	10	36	13	14
Finland	35	29	21	-
France	835	987	906	1 064
Germany	277	262	274	273
Greece	1	2	1	2
Ireland	42	45	42	45
Italy	19	41	14	37
Japan	121	199	108	120
Luxembourg	23	14	-	14
Netherlands	50	45	65	142
New Zealand	1	1	2	2
Norway	98	34	67	75
Portugal	57	45	57	45
Spain	42	30	30	31
Sweden	94	21	36	44
Switzerland	14	5	15	15
United Kingdom	160	82	100	81
United States	156	169	205	167
DAC countries	2 218	2 208	2 071	2 343
EC	223	94	-	-

Annex 33, Table3: Health



Top 10 recipients 2004												
USD million, 2004 prices												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Others	Total
commitments	Nigeria	Tanzania	Congo Dem	Uganda	Kenya	Mozambique	South Africa	Ethiopia	Zambia	Malawi		
1 United States	71	61	27	89	85	36	82	57	70	21	365	963
2 GFATM	41	30	60	98	-	51	16	-	-	-	282	578
3 United Kingdom	204	-	12	3	19	16	3	11	0	12	79	358
4 IDA	-	30	107	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	187	339
5 EC	141	4	5	3	3	3	31	0	-	-	36	226
6 Canada	12	4	3	1	1	23	5	9	-	3	110	171
7 France	0	-	0	0	1	1	2	0	-	-	135	139
8 Netherlands	-	32	-	-	-	6	5	11	2	5	74	136
9 Denmark	-	97	-	4	15	1	-	-	2	-	10	129
10 African Dev. Fund	-	-	37	-	34	-	-	-	-	-	56	128
Other donors	15	32	27	31	38	54	29	37	25	39	288	614
Total	485	290	278	229	197	189	172	125	100	95	1 622	3 780

Health ODA commitments by sub-sector 2004
USD million, 2004 prices



Related Millenium Development Goals

"Reduce child mortality" (Goal 4)

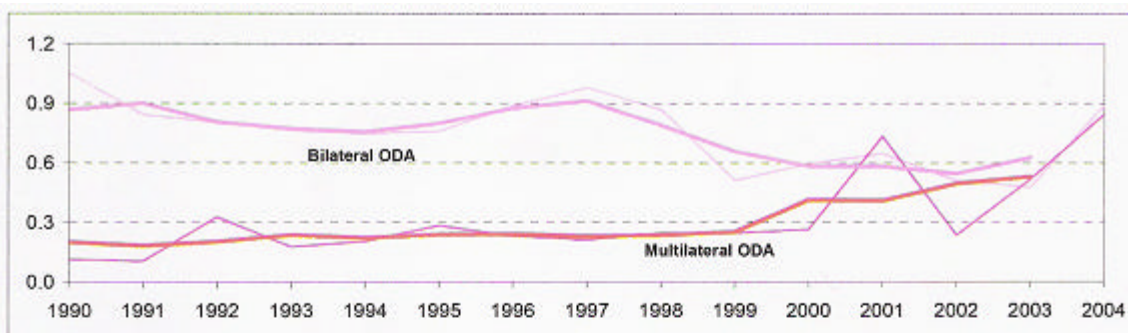
"Improve maternal health" (Goal 5)

"Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases" (Goal 6)

ODA commitments/disbursements in health to Africa
USD million, current prices

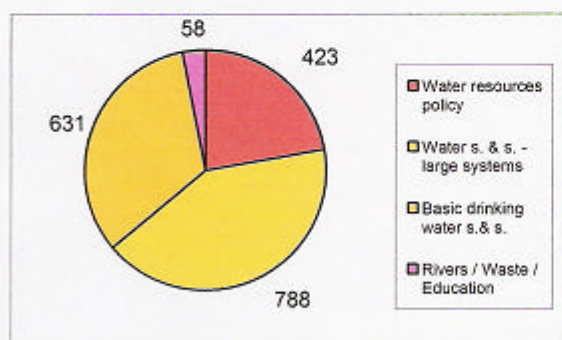
	commitments		disbursements	
	2003	2004	2003	2004
Australia	51	1	1	4
Austria	2	4	3	4
Belgium	43	34	20	41
Canada	146	171	61	124
Denmark	53	129	33	52
Finland	7	10	10	-
France	90	139	90	118
Germany	112	69	75	97
Greece	6	1	6	1
Ireland	60	72	60	72
Italy	31	34	35	30
Japan	75	78	63	66
Luxembourg	8	14	-	14
Netherlands	25	136	72	90
New Zealand	1	2	1	1
Norway	70	64	67	71
Portugal	8	10	8	10
Spain	26	56	41	53
Sweden	73	59	44	72
Switzerland	24	21	21	25
United Kingdom	295	358	176	211
United States	657	963	620	791
DAC countries	1 862	2 423	1 505	1 947
EC	93	226	-	-

Annex 33, Table4: Water



Top 10 recipients 2004												
USD million, 2004 prices												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
commitments	Ghana	Nigeria	Tunisia	Kenya	Ethiopia	Benin	Morocco	South Africa	Tanzania	Burkina Faso	Others	Total
1 IDA	203	120	-	15	100	-	-	-	15	-	70	523
2 Germany	0	1	37	19	0	33	48	0	18	5	68	229
3 EC	-	108	-	-	-	-	26	62	-	-	19	215
4 Denmark	58	-	-	27	-	50	-	-	1	50	20	206
5 Japan	-	0	75	4	2	2	0	0	8	0	91	183
6 African Dev. Fund	19	-	-	27	-	16	-	-	23	-	92	177
7 France	-	0	42	25	-	-	26	0	-	-	43	136
8 Canada	41	-	-	0	0	3	-	-	-	0	39	83
9 Netherlands	0	-	-	-	-	6	-	0	-	-	44	51
10 Ireland	-	0	-	0	2	-	-	4	-	-	10	17
Other donors	1	0	0	2	9	1	6	1	1	6	53	80
Total	322	229	155	119	113	110	107	67	67	61	550	1 900

Water ODA commitments by sub-sector 2004
USD million, 2004 prices



Related Millenium Development Goals

"Ensure environmental sustainability" (Goal 7)

"Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation" (Target 10)

ODA commitments/disbursements in water to Africa
USD million, current prices

	commitments		disbursements	
	2003	2004	2003	2004
Australia	0	0	2	1
Austria	11	5	4	6
Belgium	16	11	8	14
Canada	23	83	10	16
Denmark	16	206	25	36
Finland	0	4	5	-
France	112	136	81	104
Germany	81	229	115	151
Greece	0	0	0	0
Ireland	18	17	18	17
Italy	2	2	6	2
Japan	120	183	91	130
Luxembourg	5	9	-	9
Netherlands	8	51	15	25
New Zealand	-	0	-	0
Norway	1	3	3	12
Portugal	0	2	0	2
Spain	5	7	27	12
Sweden	34	9	11	12
Switzerland	6	2	11	5
United Kingdom	4	6	10	14
United States	11	11	40	168
DAC countries	474	978	482	736
EC	267	215	-	-

Annex 34: What's new in the broader agenda for agriculture?

Source: OECD (2006). Promoting pro-poor growth: Agriculture. Extract from the publication Promoting Pro-Poor Growth: Policy Guidance for Donors which is composed of 5 parts, each promoting pro-poor growth in the following sectors: Key policy Messages; Private Sector Development; Agriculture; Infrastructure Harmonizing ex ante; Poverty Impact Assessment. DAC Reference Document. Development Assistance Committee, OECD.

Table1: What's new in the broader agenda for agriculture?
OECD (2006), p23.

Views under the traditional agenda	Views under the new agenda
Policies, institutions and investments in agriculture	Policies, institutions and investments <i>in and for</i> agriculture
One rural world	Multiple rural worlds
National markets	National, regional and global markets
Production units	Livelihood units
Agriculture = production	Agriculture = agricultural sector (inputs + production + post-harvest + manufacturing)
One work location	Multiple work locations
Single sector approach	Multi-sectoral approaches
Public sector	Public and private sectors
Food crops	Diverse income streams
Growth only	Growth that minimises risk and vulnerability
Driven by supply	Driven by supply and demand
Fundamentals	Fundamentals
Acknowledged	Delivered
The fundamentals are science, technology, infrastructure, land policy and education, extension and training.	

Table2: Smart transfers
OECD, 2006, p39.

Widespread and pervasive market failures, particularly in countries at the earliest stages of economic development, may provide some justification for a more direct role for the state, through using subsidies to create or build markets aimed to kick-start productivity gains. Fertiliser and irrigation subsidies had a powerful effect on development during the Green Revolution in Asia. But they can also distort markets and deliver decreasing returns as productivity and overall levels of development rise; they demand levels of state capacity and governance that may be lacking. Furthermore, subsidy systems are highly politicised and can be difficult to dismantle once set up – as current experience in India shows. Thus subsidies present governments with dilemmas when it comes to justifying their use to overcome initial perceptions of commercial risk or the high costs of working in thin and weak markets.

Subsidies or guarantees should generally be temporary measures to tackle specific barriers to private participation in markets. Persistent use may add to rather than solve underlying problems. Subsidies should not be used to provide a market for all producers or to provide general support to producers' incomes, since this will tend to benefit disproportionately the larger and more successful producers.

Annex 34, Table3: Risks in the five rural worlds

OECD, 2006, p 69.

Categories of rural households	Types of risk typically faced	Typical measures to prevent, mitigate or cope with risk
Rural World 1 Commercial producers, globally competitive with large-scale agriculture operations.	Generic risks (pests, diseases, weather); and new risks: input/output price fluctuations, possibly associated with international market changes; stricter quality controls on products; saturation of national markets; transport and storage failures for perishables.	Improved technology (irrigation, agrochemicals, new varieties) to reduce generic risks (pests, diseases, weather). Improved infrastructure services, including feeder roads and electricity. New financial instruments such as weather and commodity price insurance. Standardisation of grades and standards.
Rural World 2 Agricultural households that produce for the market but also to meet subsistence needs.	Generic risks (pests, diseases, weather); possibly problems of new market links, but most likely to be problems of local or seasonal market saturation, and imbalances of market power.	Improved technology (irrigation, agrochemicals, new varieties) to reduce generic risks (pests, diseases, weather). Information, institutional and infrastructure development needed to improve market functioning and accessibility. Investment in local crop storage and processing facilities can to help fulfil subsistence needs more effectively. Support for livelihood strategies that include diversification within and out of agricultural production.
Rural World 3 Subsistence producers with small landholdings.	Same as for Rural World 2, but also risk of landlords withdrawing land, dearth of off-farm jobs, vulnerability of agricultural jobs in Rural Worlds 1 and 2, tenure insecurity, non-enforceable contracts, dangerous working conditions on construction sites and so on.	Same as for Rural World 2, also support for diversified livelihoods, including strengthened institutions for tenure security, contract enforcement, health and safety. Social sector investments that strengthen human capital and enable households to cope with a wide range of shocks.
Rural World 4 Agricultural labourers, mainly dependent on casual, unskilled labour.	Vulnerability of agricultural jobs to shocks affecting Rural Worlds 1, 2 and 3, which affect demand for labour, lack of off-farm jobs, non-enforceable contracts, dangerous working conditions on construction sites, communicable diseases and so on.	Economic policies that encourage investment leading to job growth. Policies that support seasonal migration, commuting and personal insurance. Investment in health care infrastructure and institutions (including public health), which reduce morbidity and inability to supply labour. Adult training programmes that support creation of alternative livelihoods including self-employment and enterprise development.
Rural World 5 Those unable to engage in regular productive activity (very elderly, sick, disabled, very young), all of whom rely on informal transfers of food, shelter, clothing.	Any risks adversely affecting the agricultural and related rural economies are likely to have secondary effects on this group through reduced informal transfers to them.	Measures as above to strengthen and stabilise the household economy as well as measures to provide social protection (health, social pensions, child and widows' allowances) including the care of orphans and people living with HIV/AIDS.

Annex 34, Table4: Why should we care about the future of small-scale agriculture?

OECD, 2006, p31.

The efficiency of smaller production units in most developing countries is demonstrated by an impressive body of empirical studies showing an inverse relationship between unit size and land productivity (Heltberg, 1998). Moreover, small producers often achieve higher land productivity with lower capital intensities than large units. These are important efficiency advantages in many poor countries where land and capital are scarce relative to labour.

The greater land productivity of small units stems from their greater abundance of household labour per hectare cultivated. Household workers are typically more motivated than hired workers are, and they provide higher quality and self-supervising labour. They also tend to think in terms of whole jobs or livelihoods rather than hours worked, and are less driven by wage rates at the margin than hired workers. Small producers exploit labour-using technologies that increase yields (hence land productivity), and they use labour-intensive methods rather than capital-intensive machines. As a result, their land and capital productivities are higher and their labour productivity is typically lower than that of large production units. This is a strength in labour-surplus economies, but it becomes a weakness for the long-term viability of small-scale production as countries get richer and labour becomes more expensive.

In poor, labour-abundant economies, small producers are not only more efficient but they also account for large shares of the rural and total poor, so small production unit development can be win-win for growth and poverty reduction. Asia's Green Revolution showed how agricultural growth that reaches large numbers of small units could transform rural economies and raise enormous numbers of people out of poverty (Rosegrant and Hazell, 2000). Recent studies show that a more egalitarian distribution of land not only leads to higher economic growth but also helps ensure that the growth achieved is more beneficial to the poor (Deininger and Squire, 1998; Ravallion and Datt, 2002). Small producers also contribute to greater food security, particularly in subsistence agriculture and in backward areas where locally produced foods avoid the high transport and marketing costs associated with many purchased foods.

Small producer households have more favourable expenditure patterns for promoting growth of the local rural economy, including rural towns. They spend higher shares of incremental income on rural non-tradables than large production units (Mellor, 1976; Hazell and Roell, 1983), thereby creating additional demand for the many labour-intensive goods and services that are produced in local villages and towns. These demand-driven growth links provide greater income-earning opportunities for small producers and landless workers.

Annex 34, Table 5: Pro-poor land administration

OECD, 2006 p36-37.

It is now well recognised that, in many settings where land is rather abundant, full title may neither be needed nor be the most cost-effective way to secure the land rights of small producers. While a number of countries have started experimenting in this area, and interesting experience is accumulating, few models can be easily scaled up to deliver tenure security at sufficient speed and scale to be widely replicable.

Increasing the contribution of land rental markets

Even though land rental markets contribute to greater productivity in many countries, their potential to stimulate structural change has thus far been limited by the fact that most of the contracts have been short term. Various countries are now exploring measures – ranging from adjustments in the legal and regulatory framework to investment grants for long-term renters – that aim to maximise the contribution of land rental markets to enhancing structural change within the agricultural production sector while contributing to the emergence of a rural enterprise sector in the affected areas (China).

Exploring new mechanisms for land reform

New approaches to land reform recognise the importance of land as one among several different assets in households' portfolios, the importance of market and non-market mechanisms for accessing land, and the fact that land reform can be sustained in the long term only if the new landowners can make productive use of their new asset. In general, all the approaches are much more decentralised, relying on incentive-compatible mechanisms to complement, rather than substitute for, the operation of land markets.

Securing the possible equity and efficiency gains from past land reforms

Many reforms have left a legacy of legislation (land ceilings and tenancy regulation) that reduce the scope for land access by poor people. At the same time, the rights given to reform beneficiaries have often remained incomplete (rewarding only usufruct rights with the landowner or the government retaining ownership rights), thus limiting investment incentives and the ability of the beneficiaries to access credit markets. Clarifying the ownership of such plots may lead to significant gains in efficiency. Programmes to facilitate this in a more systematic manner could extend benefits to those not able to muster the necessary resources on their own and could thus combine the efficiency gains with significant equity benefits.

Institutional reform of the registry

Even where the ownership distribution of land is not an issue, institutional inefficiencies, such as a large number of uncoordinated institutions, imply high cost of registering land that preclude realisation of the potential benefits from the land administration system. Best practice examples of institutional reform can be drawn on to learn lessons on this, including the use of technology as a means rather than as an end in itself.

Opening access to rural land by outside investors

Despite evidence on the productive efficiency of small producers, policy makers in many developing countries prefer large-scale production, often an excuse to give very generous land concessions at conditions very favourable to the awardees. There is a real issue, however, on how to provide access to the links, for marketing and processing, necessary for small producers to make the optimum use of their land and to choose a model for the organisation of production that helps to maximise economic efficiency, especially in very land-abundant settings, such as Mozambique or Cambodia. Models to do that exist but need to be developed further

Source: Deininger (2004).

Annex 34, Table 6: The World Bank's social risk management framework

OECD, 2006, p65.

The social risk management framework can be used to analyse the sources of vulnerability. It addresses how society manages risks and the relative costs and benefits of various public interventions on household welfare. It also addresses how vulnerable individuals and households can be helped to better manage risks and become less susceptible to damaging welfare losses.

Social risk management repositions the traditional areas of social protection (labour market intervention, social insurance and social safety nets) in a framework that includes:

- Three strategies to deal with risk (prevention, mitigation, coping).
- Three levels of formality of risk management (informal, market-based, publicly mandated).
- Many actors (individuals, households, communities, NGOs, governments at various levels and international organisations) against the background of asymmetric information and different types of risk.

This expanded view of social protection emphasises the double role of risk management instruments in protecting basic livelihoods and promoting risk taking. It focuses on the poor since they are the most vulnerable to risk and typically lack appropriate risk management instruments, constraining them from riskier but also higher return activities and thus from gradually moving out of chronic poverty.

Source: Adapted from Holzmann and Jørgensen (2000).

Annex 34, Table 7: A new framework centred on the small producer for investment in science and technology

OECD, 2006, p34.

The new framework for future investments in science and technology has as its primary aim the alleviation of rural poverty. The framework shifts the past emphasis on technology supply by scientists to a system that responds to user demands and needs.

It links the search for new technology much more closely to efforts to resolve non technical impediments to change.

It fosters equal partnerships between scientists and rural people in the search for technologies adapted to the needs of the different Rural Worlds.

It recognises and provides for diversity between Rural Worlds in needs and solutions.

It is multidisciplinary in its approach to constraint identification and alleviation; it widens stakeholder participation to engage the contributions of those concerned with the many non technical constraints to poverty reduction.

It favours the emergence of knowledge based optimisation in the use of available resources.

It allows for progressive technical change or upgrading based on experiment and learning by poor producers and workers themselves.

It focuses the use of public funds on the generation and dissemination of public goods technologies, but with government agencies as facilitators rather than masters of development.

The new framework empowers rural communities by giving them access to public funds to hire those service providers best able to support participatory stakeholder efforts, and to form alliances that will draw in complementary funds from the voluntary and private sectors. The new framework has the empowerment of rural communities and specific common interest groups within communities as the centre and starting point of efforts to relieve rural poverty. Without investments to strengthen the capacity and opportunity for poor producers and workers to direct, manage and control their own circumstances, future investments in technology will be of no more value than those of the past.

Governments have a critical role in financing the support needed for small producers or rural communities to establish their own institutions – for example, Farmers' Field Schools for accessing and evaluating new agricultural technologies; village banks and rotating savings and credit associations for accessing financial services, and so building informal sector micro enterprises; water users associations to manage irrigation infrastructure; or producer enterprise groups or associations to negotiate with market intermediaries. Empowerment needs to be central to all initiatives that seek to harness science and technology to alleviate poverty.

Annex 34, Table8: The aid effectiveness agenda.

OECD, 2006, p78.

The aid effectiveness agenda and the commitments made in Rome and Marrakech in 2004 entail four broad areas: ownership, alignment, harmonisation and managing for results. Because these principles apply to aid management and aid delivery systems, they are as relevant for agriculture and pro-poor growth as they are for other sectors and for development cooperation more broadly.

Ownership

This refers to the degree by which partner countries exercise effective authority over their development policies, strategies and coordination. Locally owned country development strategies, according to Development Assistance Committee good practice principles, emerge from an open and collaborative dialogue by local authorities with civil society and with external partners about shared objectives and their respective contributions to the common enterprise. Each donor's programmes and activities should then operate within the framework of that locally owned strategy in ways that respect and encourage strong commitment, participation, capacity development and ownership.

Alignment

Donors agree to base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. Partner country strategies should be linked to multi-year expenditure frameworks and the national budget. Donor strategies, policy dialogue and cooperation should be based on partner strategies and annual progress reviews. Using a country's own institutions and systems, where these provide assurance that aid will be used for agreed purposes, increases aid effectiveness by strengthening the partner country's sustainable capacity to develop, implement and account for its policies to its citizens and parliament. Country systems and procedures typically include national arrangements and procedures for public financial management, accounting, auditing procurement, results frameworks and monitoring.

Harmonisation

Recognising that management of different donor procedures contributes to high transaction costs, donors are committed to implement, where feasible, common arrangements at the country level for planning, funding (such as joint financial arrangements), disbursement, monitoring, evaluating and reporting to government on donor activities and aid flows. One way to achieve harmonisation is to rely increasingly on sector and budget support and less on project approaches. Donors will also work towards a more pragmatic division of labour according to their comparative advantages to avoid fragmentation of aid and strengthen incentives for management and staff. These principles are particularly important in fragile states, which may draw large numbers of development actors and a proliferation of activities.

Managing for results

Managing for results focuses on strengthening performance and accountability in the use of development resources. Partner countries are to link their development strategies to realistic annual and medium-term budget processes and establish assessment frameworks. Donors are to rely as much as possible on partner country monitoring and evaluation systems. To strengthen accountability for development, partner country consultative processes and the role of parliament in approving development strategies and monitoring should be reinforced.

Annex 34, Table 9 Defining Agriculture

OECD, 2006, p 18-19-75.

Table 9: Defining agriculture.

Agriculture includes households engaged in farming, herding, livestock production, fishing and aquaculture. Also included are other producers and individuals employed in cultivating and harvesting food resources from salt and fresh water and cultivating trees and shrubs and harvesting non-timber forest products – as well as processors, small-scale traders, managers, extension specialists, researchers, policy makers and others engaged in the food, feed and fibre system and its relationships with natural resources. This system also includes processes and institutions, including markets, that are relevant to the agriculture sector.

Annex 34, Table 10 Impact of agricultural productivity on poverty

Table 10: What impact can higher agricultural sector productivity have on reducing poverty?

A lot. Consider these numbers:

- A 10% increase in crop yields leads to a reduction of between 6% and 10% of people living on less than USD 1 a day (Irz et al., 2001).
- The average real income of small farmers in south India rose by 90% and that of landless labourers by 125% between 1973 and 1994 as a result of the Green Revolution (World Bank, 2001).
- A 1% increase in agricultural GDP per capita led to a 1.61% gain in the per capita incomes of the lowest fifth of the population in 35 countries (Timmer, 1997).
- A 1% increase in labour productivity in agriculture reduced the number of people living on less than USD 1 a day by between 0.6% and 1.2% (Thirtle et al., 2001).

Annex 34, Table 11 Agricultural Policies

Table 11: Policies “for agriculture” and “in agriculture”

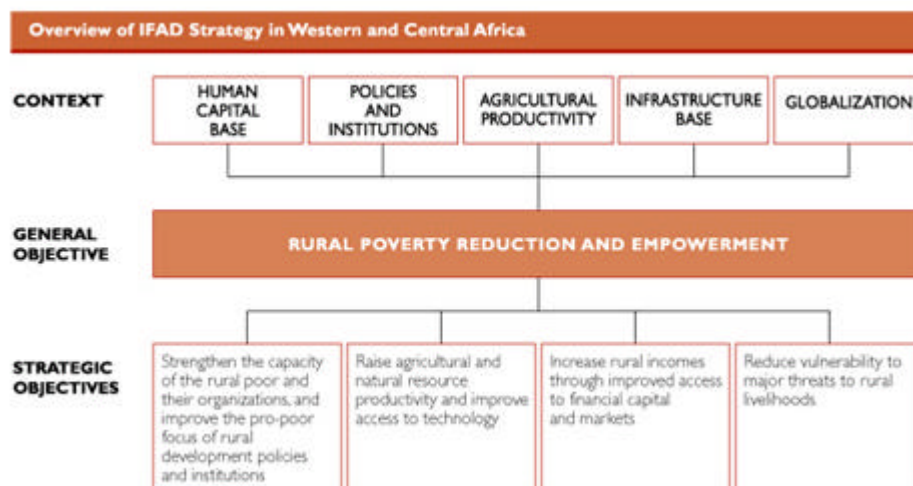
Agricultural policies are about the direct promotion and regulation of the agricultural sector and include research, extension, producer education, inputs and credit, agricultural processing and markets. While these policies are at the heart of agricultural development, they are surrounded and supported by other policies that clearly affect, albeit indirectly, the agricultural sector. Such policies can be labelled as policies “for agriculture” – in contrast to policies “in agriculture”. They include education, transport and communication infrastructure and private sector development. These policies “for agriculture” can ensure that the potential released through sound policies “in agriculture” are translated into effective and sustainable pro-poor growth. Without complementary and supportive policies “for agriculture”, policies “in agriculture” will not deliver pro-poor development goals.

Annex 35: Changing Priorities for the rural sector

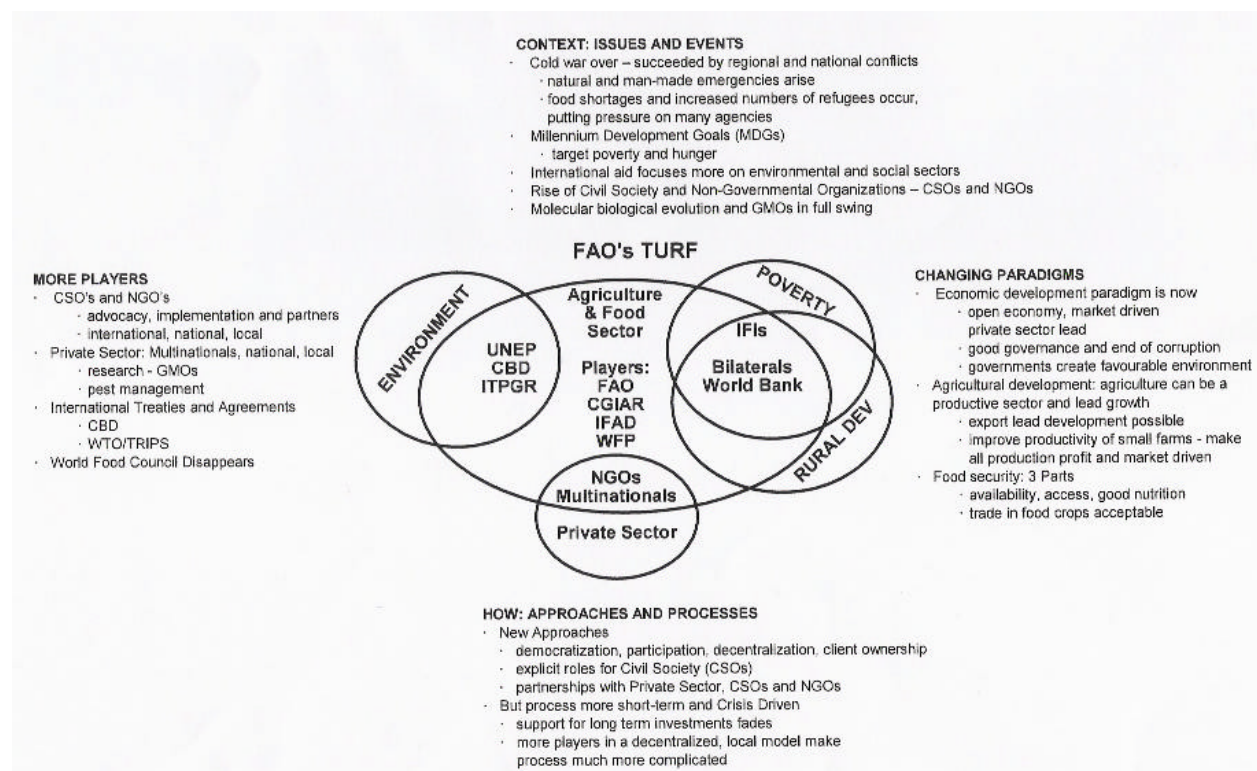
Theme	What's in	What's out
1. High value agriculture or food staples?	High value products (especially for export), commercial farming, agro-processing and integrated market chains – all privately led	Small farms and food staples production (SFFS)
2. Is there a future for small farms?	Farm consolidation and larger commercial farms	Small farms, especially for food staples
3. Exit strategies or more investment in small farms?	Farm exit strategies through growth in urbanization, migration and the manufacturing and services sectors.	Big public investments in rural infrastructure
4. Trade liberalization for whom?	Trade liberalization (including agriculture) for developing countries	Liberalization of OECD agricultural policies (including protection for high value and processed products)
5. Safety nets or more investment in pro-poor growth?	Targeted interventions for the rural poor, built around sustainable livelihood strategies, community-led development, and consumption subsidies (e.g., food aid).	Broad based and productivity enhancing investments in SFFS
6. Does good governance have to mean an emasculated public sector?	Good governance, especially more democratic decisions for public choice, and enhanced roles for the private sector, civil society and local governments	Production subsidies and direct public sector involvement in agricultural marketing and provision of agricultural credit and input supplies.

Source: Hazell, P. (2006). The Role of Agriculture in Pro-Poor Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, paper prepared for a workshop on Policy, Poverty and Agricultural Development in Sub-Saharan Africa, March 8-9, 2006, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Sweden. (pp5-6)

Annex 36: Overview of IFAD Strategy in Western and Central Africa



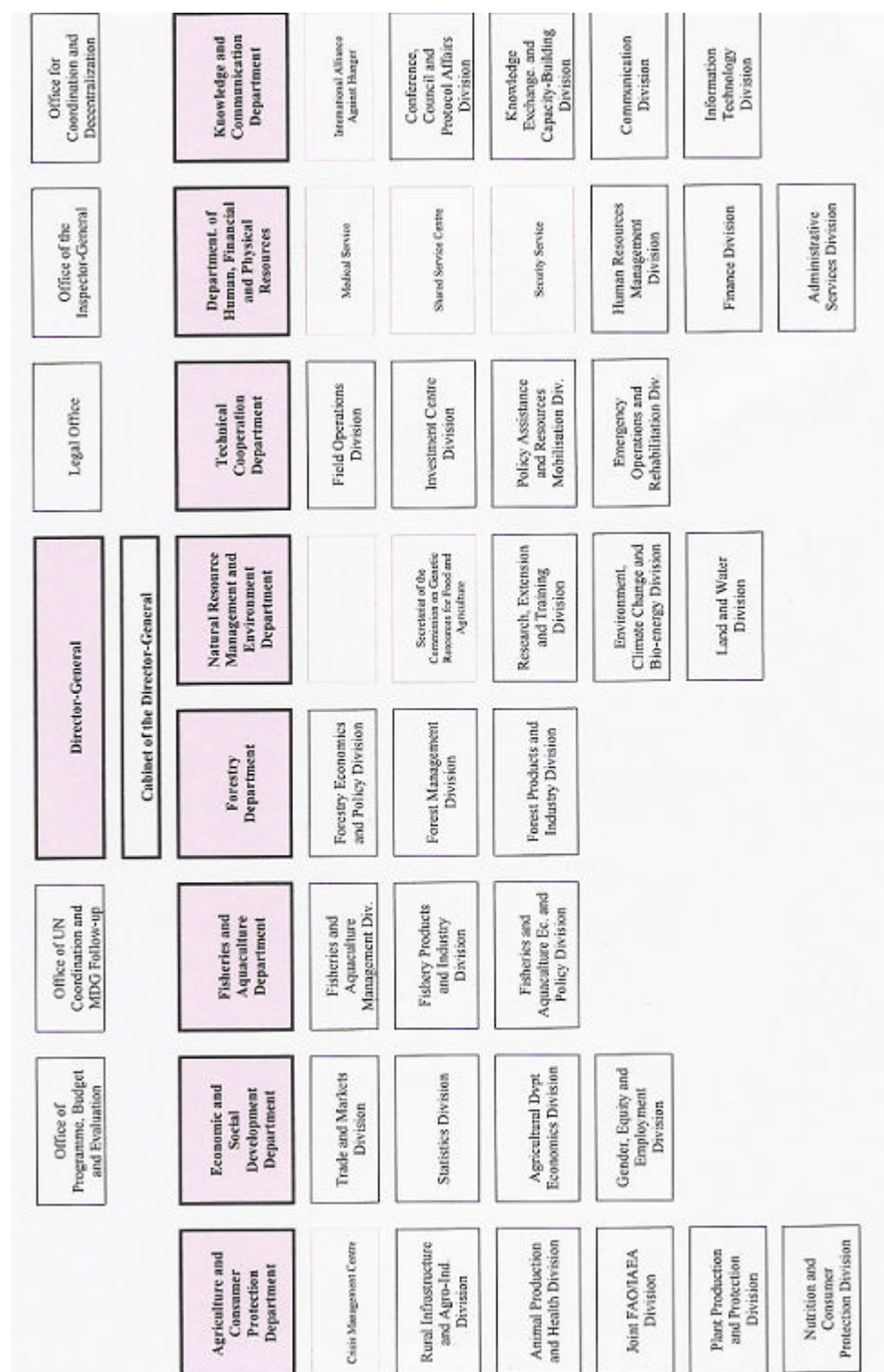
Annex 37: FAO – IEE overview



Source: CC IEE (2007). The Challenge of Renewal- An Independent External Evaluation of the FAO. Working draft for Consultation . Submitted to the Council Committee for the Independent External Evaluation of FAO (cc-IEE), July. (p94)

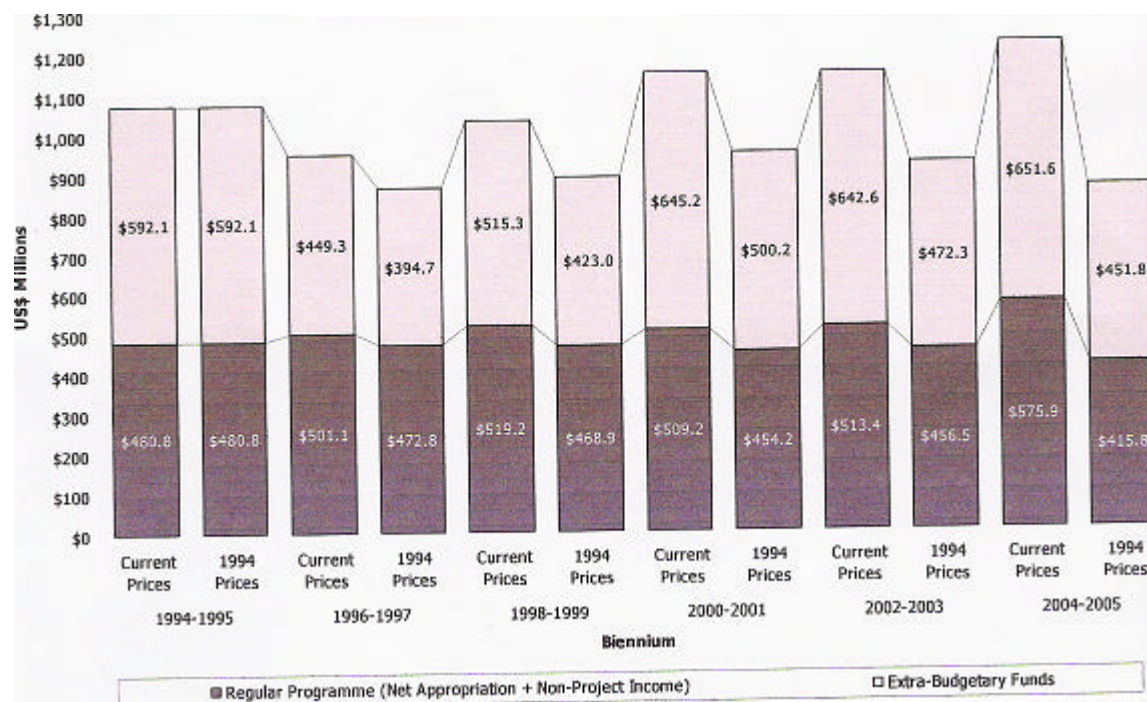
Annex 38: FAO Headquarters Structure

1 January 2007



Source: CC IEE (2007) p295.

Annex 39: Summary of resources for FAO's Technical Work (1994-95 -2004- 05)



Source: CC IEE (2007), p101.

Annex 40: FAO technical budget changes 1994 - 2007

Proportion of the Regular program Technical Budget to Selected Areas and Percentage Change over the Period 1994-95 to 2006-07.

	1994-95	2006-07	Increase/ Decrease in share
Areas which increased as a percentage of the total:			
Transboundary Plant Pests including Locusts	0.77%	1.54%	101.8%
International Plant Protection Convention (IPPC)	0.77%	1.39%	82.1%
Genetic resources	2.45%	4.39%	79.2%
FIVIMS & GIEWS	1.93%	3.20%	66.3%
FAO/IAEA joint division's programme ⁴²	1.16%	1.66%	43.0%
Codex and food standards	1.30%	1.71%	31.5%
Forestry	7.26%	8.86%	22.0%
Fisheries	10.72%	11.71%	9.2%
Animal health	1.71%	1.75%	2.6%
Areas which decreased as a percentage of the total:			
Water	2.58%	2.48%	-3.9%
Legal assistance	0.98%	0.93%	-4.3%
Agricultural engineering and industries ⁴³	2.80%	2.51%	-10.3%
Research, education and extension	2.80%	2.49%	-11.1%
Policy and Trade	13.18%	11.67%	-11.4%
Nutrition (excluding food standards)	4.87%	3.91%	-19.7%
Land	3.23%	2.37%	-26.8%
Rural finance and marketing	2.90%	2.11%	-27.0%
Basic Statistics (Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry)	6.66%	4.54%	-31.8%
Pesticides & IPM	1.91%	1.18%	-38.4%
Livestock (excluding animal health)	4.26%	2.56%	-39.9%

Source: CC IEE (2007), p103.