

Zimmermann, Roukayatou

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NEPAD initiatives and their repercussions on agricultural policy in Sub-Saharan Africa

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NEPAD Initiatives and their Repercussions on Agricultural Policy in Sub-Saharan Africa

Roukayatou Zimmermann

NEPAD initiatives and their repercussions on agricultural policy in Sub-Saharan Africa

Roukayatou Zimmermann


Joint Research Project DIE / IFPRI
“Agricultural Policies in Sub-Saharan Africa: Understanding
and Improving Participatory Policy Processes in APRM and
CAADP”

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Roukayatou Zimmermann, Agricultural economist, Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (DIE)
E-Mail: roukaya.zimmermann@die-gdi.de

© Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik gGmbH
Tulpenfeld 6, 53113 Bonn
 +49 (0)228 94927-0
+49 (0)228 94927-130
E-Mail: die@die-gdi.de
<http://www.die-gdi.de>

Abstract

For most Sub-Saharan African countries, agriculture is a key to achieving broad-based (pro-poor) economic growth and attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Approximately 70–80 % of the continent's employment and 40 % of its export earnings stem from agricultural activities. A stronger agricultural sector is considered to be fundamental for Africa's overall economic growth as well as for addressing hunger, poverty, and inequality.

However, the sector is not performing well for various reasons. Therefore, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) – the economic programme of the African Union (AU) – has set itself the task to revitalise the sector. For this purpose, it has initiated the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) in order to improve agricultural policies in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). In addition, the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), another NEPAD initiative, seeks to improve African political, economic and business governance in general. Together, CAADP and APRM should be expected to improve substantially the institutional and political conditions for agriculture.

This paper analyses CAADP and APRM policy-making processes in the agricultural sector. The analysis shows that CAADP and APRM have a potential to bring fundamental qualitative changes in the way policies are made in member countries. While the present paper is mainly a desk-based study, it provides a foundation for conducting further research on the topic on the ground.

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Abbreviations

AfDB	African Development Bank
AHSG	African Heads of State and Government
APF	African Partnership Forum
AOU	Organisation of African Unity
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
AU	African Union
BIPP	Bankable Investment Project Profiles
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CC	Country Compact
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CPIA	Country Performance Institutional Assessment
CRR	Country Review Reports
CRT	Country Review Team
CSO	Center of Statistical Office
DFID	Department for International Development
ECCAS / CEEAC	Economic Community of Central African States / Communauté Économique des États de L'Afrique Centrale
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreements
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FASDEP	Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation / Dt. Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
HIV / AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus / Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HSG	Heads of State and Government
HSGIC	Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IIED	Institute for Environment and Development
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MAP	Millennium Partnership for Africa 's Recovery Programme
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOU	Memorandum Of Understanding
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation Framework
NAI	New African Initiative
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NFPP	National Focal Point Person
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NMTIP	National Medium-Term Investment Programme
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PMA	Plan for Modernization of Agriculture

PoA	Programme of Action
PP	Partnership Platform
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
RAIP	Regional Agricultural Investment Programmes
REO	Regional Economic Organisation
REC	Regional Economic Community
RIP	Regional Implementation Planning
RSA	Strategy for Revitalisation of Agriculture
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SIM	Stakeholder Influence Mapping
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SPA	Stakeholder Power Analysis
SPS	Sanitary and Phyto-Sanitary
SRA	Strategy for Revitalising Agriculture
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TWC	Technical Working Committee
UEMOA	Union Economique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine
UN	United Nations
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
USAID	US Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organization

1 Introduction

1.1 Background

For most Sub-Saharan African countries, agriculture is key to achieving broad based (pro-poor) economic growth and attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Approximately 70–80 % of the continent's employment and 40 % of its export earnings stem from agricultural activities (FAO 2006; IMF 2006). A stronger-performing agricultural sector is considered fundamental for Africa's overall economic growth, as well as for addressing hunger, poverty and inequality. Throughout history, increases in agricultural sector productivity have contributed greatly to economic growth and the reduction of poverty (OECD 2006).

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) – the economic programme of the African Union (AU) – has recognised this obvious fact and wants to boost Africa's growth through agriculture-led development. Two of the seven NEPAD initiatives, namely the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), are the most important NEPAD initiatives concerning agricultural policies and institutions in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), the CAADP for agricultural sector policies and the APRM for governance and institutional settings in general.

There is also a rekindling willingness on the part of donors to invest in agricultural development under the condition that past errors will be avoided, i.e. that agricultural policies and institutional set-ups are substantially improved. The recent increase in willingness to support agriculture-led development is expressed in different initiatives and programmes of donors such as *Africa Action Plan 2005* (World Bank), *Task Force on Hunger 2005* (United Nations), *Special Programme for Food Security 2006* (FAO), *Commission for Africa Report 2005* (Economic Commission for Africa).

However, allocation of budgets and funds for agriculture is increasing only timidly, and lack of good policies, programmes and better integration of agriculture into the overall policy frameworks of African countries plays an important role in this weak response (FAO 2006; Wolff 2007). Therefore, high expectations are placed in both NEPAD initiatives by African governments and most stakeholders and donors. The fields under consideration include (a) improving national agricultural policy frameworks, (b) strengthening institutions and governance, (c) enhancing agricultural productivity, (d) fostering trade, investment, economic growth and sustainable development, (e) promoting regional integration.

However, agriculture-led development through CAADP and APRM is not straightforward. There are numerous challenges which need to be addressed. For example, stakeholders in the agricultural sector are often neither well organised nor well informed about policy options; governments often lack development-oriented decision-making criteria. Agricultural policies are formulated in highly politicised arenas, and stakes for losers of policy changes (as well as winners, though with less articulation) are high. The NEPAD initiatives do not start from scratch but almost always fall into ongoing policy debates, for instance on the role of agriculture in poverty reduction strategies or on new agricultural sector programmes in the spirit of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. In addition,

NEPAD itself is not yet well established and lacks capacity for planning and implementing its programmes. According to some observers, it even lacks the political legitimacy and credibility it needs to foster new policies in its member countries. Therefore, the success of CAADP and APRM in fertilising national agricultural policies is far from being reached.

The main objective of this paper is to analyse the design of the CAADP and APRM policy-making processes. Furthermore, it will address the most important challenges that African agriculture and African agricultural policy-making are faced with. This analysis will help to understand the impact the two initiatives can have on national agricultural policy.

The analysis here is part of a larger study about the effects of CAADP and APRM initiatives on agricultural policy-making in selected SSA countries – Kenya, Ghana and (for CAADP only) Uganda. The information generated by this study makes it possible to understand the genesis of the two NEPAD initiatives, their institutional and organisational structure at the continental level, how they are to be implemented at the national level, who will be the main stakeholders, what actors are expected to be the drivers of change, and what are, potentially, the weak points and challenges.

The main research question of the overall study is: How can continental initiatives like CAADP and APRM impact on national policy making processes? Specifically, this paper seeks to work out what the main challenges in African agriculture and agricultural policy are at present; how the two initiatives were designed and to what extent they are interlinked in the area of agriculture; how the countries participated in the process of designing initiatives; how they address the challenges of agriculture for the development agenda. Although CAADP policy processes and APRM have a multilayer dimension, the focus of the study is to examine specifically what is happening at the national level, where most agricultural policy measures have to be implemented. While the information used for the present study is mainly desk-based, the ultimate aim is to conduct further research on the ground. Therefore, this paper will be complemented by several studies.

1.2 Structure of the document

The paper is divided into four chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter two provides an overview of African agriculture. The chapter addresses the linkages between agriculture, economic development, poverty and food security in SSA. It summarises the performance of the agricultural sector in meeting the MDGs, sums up the challenges the sector is facing and describes the new approaches undertaken to improve the agricultural sector. Chapter three gives a brief overview of NEPAD and describes CAADP and APRM in more detail. It analyses and assesses the content of these two initiatives and their potential role on the agricultural sector. Chapter four presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

2 African agriculture: importance, challenges and new approaches

This chapter describes the role that agriculture plays for poverty reduction and economic growth in SSA. In general, the sector is not performing well: per capita production has stagnated or declined over the past decades, in contrast to other developing regions. Moreover, the sector is faced with high production variability, relatively low crop yields, high price volatility, and undercapitalised agriculture. It is, broadly speaking, uncompetitive and underperforming. However, a stronger-performing agricultural sector is considered fundamental for Africa's overall economic growth, as well as for addressing hunger, poverty and inequality. NEPAD as well as donors have recognised this fact and want to boost Africa's growth through agriculture-led development.

2.1 Role of agriculture in poverty reduction and economic development

Agriculture plays a major role in African societies. Despite its current weaknesses, it is seen as a key to spurring growth, getting large numbers of people out of poverty, and as a key route to meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Agriculture is considered as an economic activity, as a livelihood, and as a provider of environmental services.

Agriculture currently accounts for about 30 % of SSA's GDP (Gross Domestic Product), at least 40 % of export value – and approximately 70–80 % of employment (FAO 2006; World Bank 2006; World Bank 2007b; IMF 2006). Furthermore, two-thirds of manufacturing-sector added value in most African countries is based on agricultural raw materials. In a number of smaller countries, agriculture plays an even more dominant role, representing 80 % or more of export earnings (World Bank 2007b).

According to the World Bank (2007b), agriculture constitutes a source of livelihood for an estimated 86 % of the rural population worldwide and provides jobs for 1.3 billion smallholders and landless workers, “farm-financed social welfare” when urban shocks occur, and a foundation for viable rural communities. In Africa, more than 75 % of the total population live in rural areas, the majority smallholder households involved in agricultural activity (FAO 2006; ILO 2007). Their employment in the agricultural sector gives them an opportunity to earn their livelihood, mostly by a combination of subsistence and market production. Their purchasing power is a key driver of demand for African industrial/manufactured goods and services.

Due to its large share in the economy, agriculture is a source of growth for national economies (Ravallion / Mundial 2001; World Bank 2007b; World Bank 2002; FAO 2006). Closely linked to other sectors of the economy, growth in agriculture contributes significantly to general economic growth, providing new engines of growth, particularly in the countryside, as well as an opportunity to substitute imports – and to generate exports (FAO 2006; FAO 1996; World Bank 2007a; World Bank 2007b; World Bank 2002; World Bank / IFPRI 2006). Studies on economic development in other regions indicate the potential of the agricultural sector in future growth and development in Africa (Diao et al. 2006; Johnston / Mellor 1961; UN 2005; van de Walle 2001). According to the IMF (2006), agricultural growth has powerful leverage effects on the rest of the economy,

especially in the early stages of economic transformation, and it can generate employment intensive patterns of development favourable for the poor.

The recent decline in the US\$ 1-a-day poverty rate in all developing countries – from 28 % in 1993 to 23 % in 2002 – has been due mainly to falling rural poverty (from 37 % to 30 %), while the urban poverty rate has remained nearly constant (at 13 %) (IMF 2006). More than 80 % of the decline in rural poverty is attributable to better conditions in rural areas rather than to out-migration of the poor. (Hazell / Diao 2005; Scoones / Devereux / Haddad 2005; UN 2005). Evidence consistently shows that agricultural growth is highly effective in reducing poverty. Gallup / Radelet / Warner (1997) reported that every 1 % increase in per capita agricultural output led to a 1.61 % increase in the incomes of the poorest 20 % of the population. Thirtle et al. (2001) concluded from a major cross-country analysis that, on average, every 1 % increase in agricultural yields reduces by 0.83 % the number of people living on less than US\$ 1 a day. However, the large decline in the number of rural poor (from 1,038 million in 1993 to 890 million in 2003) has been confined to East Asia and the Pacific, and is based mostly on growth in China. In South Asia and SSA, the number of rural poor has continued to rise and will likely exceed the number of urban poor until 2040 (World Bank 2007b). In these regions, one high priority is to mobilize agriculture for poverty reduction.

2.2 Performance of agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa

The sub-section above has shown that in agriculture-led regions, such as South Asian and SSA, improvement in agriculture could play a very important role in reducing poverty and sustaining economic growth, and hence in achieving the MDGs. However, the performance of agriculture in Africa remains very low compared to other developing regions. This issue is accentuated by a number of factors, including high production variability, lack of physical infrastructure such as roads and other transport facilities and lack of institutional capacity for research, governance, and functioning markets. This section attempts to describe major problems that the agricultural sector is facing in SSA.

2.2.1 Agricultural productivity

Among the constitutive factors for agriculture in SSA are the prevalence of poor soils, unsuitable conditions for irrigation, and large variations in growing conditions. Land use techniques were adapted to these conditions, viz. farmers in SSA have traditionally relied on extended fallow periods of 10–15 years following a two to three year production cycle to maintain crop yields and soil fertility. While SSA population densities remained relatively low, it was feasible to simultaneously maintain fallows and increase aggregate agricultural production by bringing new land under cultivation. Population increases of nearly 3 % a year since the mid-1940s, however, have made it difficult to maintain soil quality and increase production using these extensive techniques. Population is now doubling approximately every 25 years. It is estimated that by 2010, fallows will have disappeared in 20 countries of SSA and will constitute less than 25 % of arable lands in another 29 countries (Angé 1993).

Declining fallows lead to various forms of land degradation. The soil fertility of cultivated land is no longer able to regenerate naturally; farmers are pushed onto marginal, environmentally fragile lands; and vegetative cover, which protects soil against erosion, progressively disappears. It was estimated that 72 % of African arable land and 31 % of pasture lands have already been degraded as a result of soil erosion (Oldeman / Hakkeling / Sombroek 1991). Fragile soils with poor buffering capacity have been particularly susceptible to this type of degradation when cultivated continuously. This has caused a 7 % loss in agricultural productivity on irrigated lands, 14 % loss on rainfed crop land, and 45 % loss on rangeland (Crosson / Anderson 1995). Declining soil fertility is considered by some scientists to be the most fundamental impediment to agricultural growth and a major reason for decreasing trends in food production in SSA (Sanchez et al. 1995).

Productivity-enhancing inputs, such as mineral fertiliser, are used very little. Experience elsewhere has shown that fertiliser can provide a substantial productivity boost. A third of the increase in cereal production worldwide and 50 % of the increase in India's grain production has been attributed to fertiliser-related factors (FAO 2006). According to Morris et al. (2007), in 1970 SSA used less than 5kg/ha, while other developing regions used more than 15 kg/ha. In the 25 years from 1970 to 1995 fertiliser consumption in SSA grew only 0.23 kg/ha/year. Current use is only 9 kg/ha, down from highs of 11–12 kg/ha (FAO 2006). This contrasts sharply with more than 50 kg/ha used in Latin America and more than 80 kg/ha in Asia. Integrated soil fertiliser management including organic fertiliser could play a very important role for crop productivity in SSA.

Furthermore, access to water and irrigation is a major determinant of land productivity and the stability of yields (FAO 1997). The productivity of irrigated land is more than double that of rainfed land (FAO 1995a). However, in SSA, only 4 % of the area in production is under irrigation, compared with 39 % in South Asia and 29 % in East Asia (FAO 1995a; FAO 1995b; World Bank 2007b).

Climate changes will be another issue for Africa will deal with. World agricultural output is projected to decrease significantly due to global warming, and the impact on developing countries will be much more severe than on industrialized nations. Africa is particularly vulnerable to climate change because of its high proportion of low-input, rainfed agriculture, compared with Asia or Latin America. Exposure to rainfall variability also extends to livestock, which mostly depends on range and grasslands that are affected by environmental shocks, such as climate change. To address these risks, investments to improve agricultural productivity need to increase and innovative insurance mechanisms should be explored to compensate rural communities and smallholder farmers when rains fail.

2.2.2 Food security and economic growth

The biggest challenge for Africa is how to feed its growing population. The bad performance of agriculture in SSA has led to food shortages and endangers food security in the region. Africa is the only region where average food production per person has declined during the past 40 years. At the same time, the population has increased. Domestic agricultural production is important for food security because it is a source of income for the

Box 2-1: Impact of AIDS in the agricultural sector

A noticeable factor hampering food productivity in Africa is the HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) / AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) pandemic and malaria. Widespread illness and death from HIV/AIDS and malaria can greatly reduce agricultural productivity and devastate livelihoods. SSA suffers the world's highest rates of deaths from HIV/AIDS (81 %), malaria (90 %) and tuberculosis (23 %) (WHO 2001). HIV/AIDS is ravaging the continent, changing its demography, decimating a whole generation, and creating the phenomenon of "AIDS orphans." 12 million African children have lost their parents to AIDS, and this number is expected to reach 28 million by 2010 (UNAIDS 2000). The majority of people affected by HIV live in rural areas, where information and health services are less widely available. Therefore, fewer people are likely to know how to protect themselves from HIV and, if they fall ill, less likely to get care. This disease kills people before they can pass on knowledge and expertise to the next generation. A study conducted by Fox et al. (2004) shows that in Kenya only 7 % of agricultural households headed by orphans had adequate knowledge of agricultural production. In Kenya's Ministry of Agriculture, 58 % of all staff deaths are caused by AIDS, and in Malawi's Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation at least 16 % of staff are living with the disease (Drimie 2003). According to FAO (2007), up to 50 % of agricultural extension staff time was lost through HIV/AIDS in SSA. The loss of productive members of society is severely affecting household capacity to produce and buy food. Fostering AIDS orphans or hosting and caring for sick relatives reduces the amount of food available for each household member (FAO 2007). Evidence from Namibia shows widespread sale and slaughter of livestock to support the sick and provide food for mourners at funerals. This jeopardizes the livestock industry and longer-term food security and survival options (Piot et al. 2001).

According to Piot et al. (2001), AIDS has killed around 7 million agricultural workers since 1985 in the 25 hardest-hit countries in Africa, and it could kill 16 million more before 2020. In contrast to other diseases, AIDS mostly devastates the productive age group – people between 15 and 50 years. Up to 25 % of the agricultural labour force could be lost in countries of SSA by 2020 (Kormawa 2005). For example, in rural Zambia, population declines have been especially severe for young rural adults, for example 19 % of people 15–24 years old in 1990.

majority of the rural poor. It is particularly critical in a dozen countries of SSA, with a combined population of about 200 million and with highly variable domestic production, limited tradability of food staples, and foreign exchange constraints in meeting food needs through imports. These countries are exposed to recurrent food emergencies and the uncertainties of food aid, and for them, increasing and stabilizing domestic production is essential for food security. Until now, demand and shortages have usually been covered by massive food imports, making most of SSA dependent on the rest of the world (FAO 2006). However, some 200 million Africans are undernourished despite commercial food imports of US\$ 15–20 billion a year and about US\$ 2 billion in food aid per year (UNECA 2007).

On the other hand, demand for agricultural products, global food demand and prices have been rising and are likely to continue to do so. This has contradictory effects on the poor: on the one hand threatening the livelihoods and nutrition of poor people in SSA because many poor people in SSA spend more than half their income on food, and food price increases are detrimental to their well-being. On the other hand, most of the poorest people in SSA depend on agriculture – directly or indirectly – to earn their livelihoods, and rising crop prices may actually increase their incomes. Public policies to deal with rising prices have to balance both effects, they must at the same time not harm poor producers and help poor consumers (Ahmed et al. 2007).

Currently, strong world market prices for many agricultural commodities in international trade are, in large measure, due to factors of a temporary nature, such as drought-related supply shortfalls, and low stocks. But structural changes such as increased feedstock demand for biofuel production and reduction of surpluses due to past policy reforms, may

keep prices above historic equilibrium levels over the next 10 years (OECD / FAO 2007). Moreover, production of biofuels as an alternative source of energy is also contributing to dramatic changes in the world food situation, and thus in agricultural production. IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute) has projected the possible price effects of biofuels on world agricultural production and come to the conclusion that rises in crop prices would lead to decreases in food availability and calorie consumption in all regions of the world, with Sub-Saharan Africa suffering the most (von Braun 2007).

According to FAO (2006), Africa is the region with the highest prevalence of under-nourishment, with one in three people deprived of access to sufficient food. FAO's projections suggest that the prevalence of hunger in this region will decline by 2015, but that the number of hungry people will not fall below that of 1990–92. By then, SSA will be home to around 30 % of the undernourished people in the developing world, compared with 20 % in 1990–92. Moreover, the regional average food consumption level in Africa is expected to increase only by 7 % in the next 15 years, to 2360 kcal/person/day compared with 2700 for South Asia, 2980 for Latin America and 3060 for East Asia (FAO 2006; IFPRI 2007).

Despite GDP growth (see Section 2.1), the number of people living on less than US\$ 1 per day is expected to increase by 45 million in Africa between 1999 and 2015 (FAO 2006; Gallup / Radelet / Warner 1997; World Bank 2007c). In the other developing regions, poverty numbers are expected to decrease by 330 million (FAO 2006). Expectations are similar for the numbers of undernourished during this same period: with 6 million more in SSA and a substantial decrease in undernourished Asia and Latin American (FAO 2006).

Despite the problems facing the agricultural sector in Africa, African states and governments have done very little in the past to invest in agriculture and rural development, contributing to the current severe food shortages and insecurity. What that means is that the problems of agricultural production are exacerbated by the lack of appropriate policies and regulations in the agriculture sector. Furthermore, agricultural performance is symptomatic of inadequate investment in human capital, agricultural infrastructure, research and extension networks, and long-term crisis management. While most African countries depend heavily on the export of one to two crops, crude oil or minerals, imports meet much of their need for agricultural products to close the gap between production and consumption.

In the past, conditions imposed by international agricultural policies have not been favourable to African nations. These policies reduced profitability of investment in agriculture by governments, the private sector, including farmers, as well as by donors. Prescribed structural adjustment programmes introduced since the 1980s aimed at drastically reducing government control, because subsidies and increasing guaranteed prices to the producers of tradable agricultural commodities had a tremendous, adverse impact on African economies. This situation has accentuated the weak competitiveness of SSA in the international market. In summary, rather than being simply a productivity problem, agricultural performance has a political dimension. Hence, policy makers have an important role to play in agricultural policy making, to guarantee food security and economic development in Africa.

2.3 New push for agricultural development in Africa

In recent years recognition of the crucial role of agriculture for the development of SSA has become prevalent among different stakeholders. Numerous development agencies, for example, have grasped that agriculture and the development of rural areas – where most of Africa’s poor are living – are fundamental, not only with regard to food security and the fight against poverty and hunger, but also for a broader economic development of the continent.

One reflection of the enhanced perception of the role of agriculture for development is the increasing integration of agriculture into the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), while at the same time PRSPs are slowly changing from more distribution-oriented to economic-growth-oriented strategies (Kückelhaus / Wolz / Brüntrup 2007). However, this change is halting and does not yet fully reflect the role of agriculture.

Another important factor that gives new incentives to agricultural development in SSA is the rising price of agricultural products. Many regions of the developing world, especially China and India, have seen high economic growth in recent years. Together with an expanding urban population, income growth is altering spending and consumer preferences. Global food demand is shifting from grains and other staple crops to processed food and high-value agricultural products, such as vegetables, fruits, meat, and dairy (von Braun 2007).

Given all these incentives, NEPAD has proposed a plan of action for agricultural development in SSA. It recognises the central role that agriculture plays in food security and economic development and it has set agricultural growth as the cornerstone of its poverty-reduction programme. Its CAADP aims to help African countries reach a higher path of economic growth through agriculture-led development, which eliminates hunger, reduces poverty and food insecurity, and enables expansion of exports (see Chapter 3 below).

One important NEPAD pillar for Africa’s development is the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM). APRM is an instrument for advancing reforms in governance, aimed at socio-economic development and building capacity to implement these reforms. This is why CAADP needs APRM to implement political agendas (including agricultural policies) effectively and use public resources efficiently. In this context, APRM will help to distinguish demand-side approaches from supply-side approaches; identifying combinations of approaches that are politically feasible and fit country conditions (see Section 3.2). The next section gives more details on NEPAD and its two agricultural-policy-related initiatives.

3 AU / NEPAD and its initiatives

According to its key documents, NEPAD is:

“a pledge by African leaders, based on a common vision and a firm shared conviction, that they have a pressing duty to eradicate poverty and to place their countries, both individually and collectively, on a path of sustainable growth and

development, and at the same time to participate actively in the world economy and body politics” (NEPAD 2001).

The three main interrelated long-term objectives of NEPAD are eradicating poverty, accelerating growth, and reversing the marginalisation of Africa in the globalisation process.

CAADP and APRM are the two most important NEPAD initiatives. They are seen as two instruments that seek to influence African governments to shift their orientation more towards agriculture. In the case of former, the goal is to help African countries to reach a higher path of economic growth through agricultural-led development, while improving governance is the intention in the case of the latter (see Section 3.3). In order to understand NEPAD, it is necessary to gain a sense of how the plan came into existence and what the ideas behind it are. In the next sections, a brief overview on NEPAD is presented, while CAADP and APRM are described in more detail.

3.1 NEPAD and its origins

NEPAD resulted ultimately from a merger of the Millennium Partnership for Africa 's Recovery Programme (MAP) and the Omega Plan. The MAP was a far-reaching plan that embraced many aspects of development, including conflict resolution, governance, investment, aid, and debt. The plan was initiated by Presidents Abdelaziz Bouteflika (Algeria), Thabo Mbeki (South Africa) and Olusegun Obasanjo (Nigeria). The Omega Plan, put forward by President Abdoulaye Wade (Senegal) after he came to office in 2000, focused on four priority sectors – agriculture, education, health and infrastructure. The finalisation of the merger between the MAP and the Omega Plan led to the New African Initiative (NAI), which was approved by the Organisation of African Unity (AOU) Summit of Heads of State and Government (HSG) and endorsed by the leaders of the Group of Eight (G8) countries in July 2001. The Heads of State Implementation Committee (HSGIC) finalised the policy framework in October 2001 and the NAI was renamed NEPAD.

3.1.1 NEPAD's principles and goals

NEPAD is based on a number of principles, most importantly on African ownership and leadership, broad participation by all sectors of society, domestic and international partnerships, and, more generally, a commitment to the MDGs. To help achieve these goals, NEPAD calls for attaining and sustaining an average growth of real GDP above 7 % a year for the next 15 years (NEPAD 2001).

To translate the goals of NEPAD into action, Section V of the October 2001 NEPAD document, entitled “*Programme of Action: The strategy for achieving sustainable development in the 21st century*”, is central. The NEPAD document starts with three opening sections which introduce the document, set the stage by reviewing the place of Africa in today's world, and state the new political will and resolve of African leaders in the context of the spread of democracy. It then moves rapidly to set out the strategy, to a discussion of general programmes of action, and to an implementation plan. The

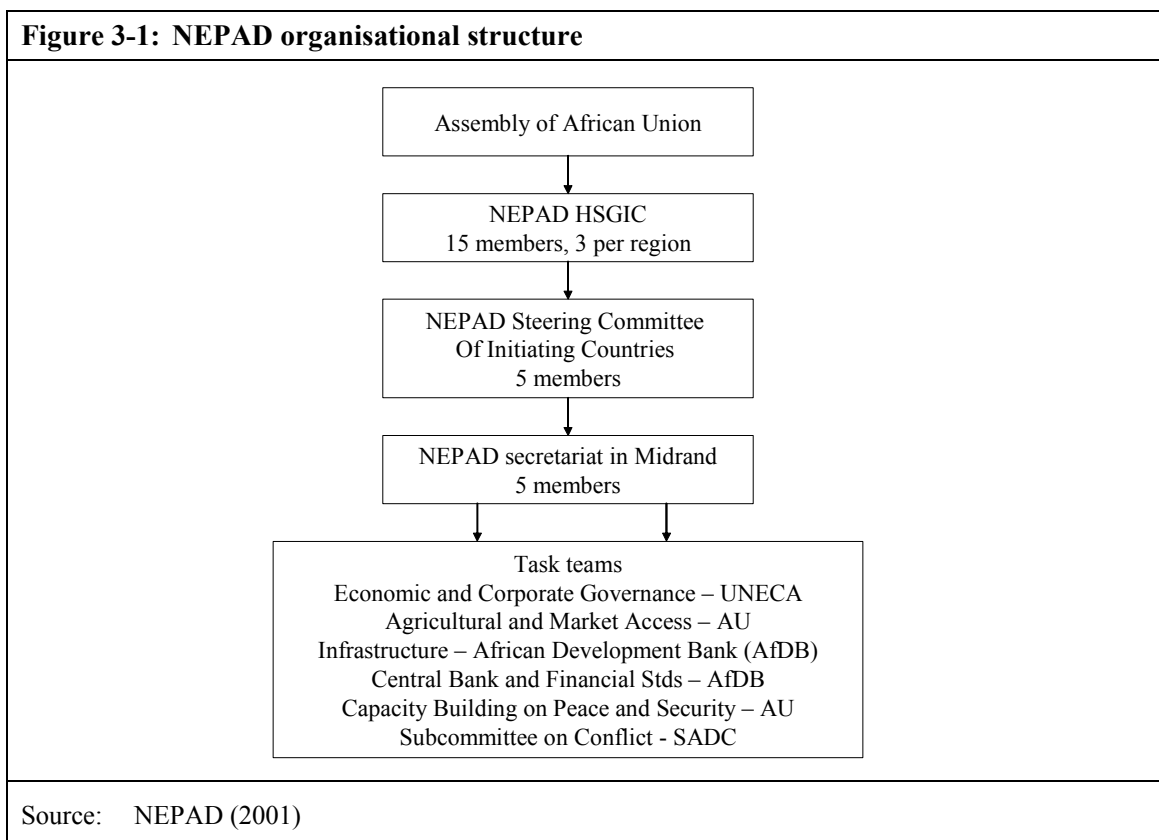
Box 3-1: NEPAD's programme of action
Conditions for sustainable development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Peace, security, democracy and political governance – Economic and Corporate Governance – a set of concrete and time-bound programmes aimed at enhancing the quality of economic and public financial management – Sub-regional and regional approaches to development
Sectoral priorities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Infrastructure – bridging the infrastructure gap (roads, highways, airports, seaports, railways, waterways, and telecommunications facilities) – Human resource development – developing the region's human resources, including reversing brain drain. – Agriculture – improving performance in agriculture and achieving food security – Environment – protecting the environment (combating desertification, wetland conservation, coastal management, etc.) – Culture – protecting and promoting Africa's culture – Science and technology platforms – ensuring connectivity and cooperation in science and technology
Mobilisation of resources
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Capital flows – mobilizing resources (domestic resources, debt relief, ODA reforms, private capital flows, etc.) – Market access – taking steps to ensure market access for Africa's exports (diversification of production, value-added agricultural exports, mining, manufacturing, tourism)

programme of action is divided into three parts, each of which sets out major initiatives (see Box 3-1).

3.1.2 NEPAD's structure

NEPAD is run by a number of organs at different levels (see Figure 3–1). These include the Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee (HSGIC), the Steering Committee, the Secretariat and special task teams.

The HSGIC is tasked with the execution of top decisions and the implementation of NEPAD policies. The HSGIC reports to the AU / OAU Summit, which provides leadership to the NEPAD process; meets at least three times per annum to review progress and take decisions on strategic issues; and reports annually to the Assembly of the AU. The HSGIC is comprised 15 states, five of which are initiating states (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal and South Africa). These initiating states are permanent members, while 10 other states have been selected according to the 5 OAU (Organisation of African Unity) regional groupings of the continent, with each region to be represented by a total of 3 countries (initiating states included). The present members are Cameroon, Gabon, and São Tomé and Príncipe from the Central Africa Region; Ethiopia, Mauritius and Rwanda from East Africa; Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia from North Africa; Botswana, Mozambique and South Africa from Southern Africa; Mali, Nigeria and Senegal from West Africa. Five more members are planned for, one from each region.



The Steering Committee is made up of personal representatives of 5 initiating presidents. This committee is responsible for the development of terms of reference for identified programmes and projects and it oversees the secretariat. The Steering Committee meets regularly with full participation of the AU Commission.

The Secretariat is a small team of professionals based at the Development Bank of Southern Africa in Midrand, South Africa. It carries out the functions of liaison and coordination, administration and logistics. It also outsources work on technical details to lead agencies and/or continental experts. The Secretariat is not a decision-making entity.

3.1.3 NEPAD challenges

According to its critics, NEPAD’s vision is not the product of broad national consultation and regional deliberations but was conceived and articulated by a few African leaders, unveiled initially in the West, and subsequently brought back and “marketed” to the African people (Snoddy 2005). It can therefore not be summarily assumed that broad-based assent to and ownership of the vision is currently prevalent or will necessarily prevail in the future (see the African Civil Society Declaration on NEPAD 2002). The exclusionary manner of its conception has led, in some quarters, to accusations that NEPAD is an elite initiative which is more likely to benefit governments and big business than ordinary citizens (see the Afrobarometer survey for the 2002/2003). It has even been accused of being little more than a “home-grown” variation of the stabilisation and conditionality policies advanced by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World

Bank in their relations with African governments (see the African Civil Society Declaration on NEPAD 2002).

Since the implementation of NEPAD programmes will, to a large degree, take place at the national level, the issue of ownership addressed above could have a negative impact on the implementation of CAADP and APRM at country level. Therefore, success for NEPAD will depend primarily on individual country willingness and ability to implement needed reforms.

After this overview of NEPAD and its structures, the next section will give more information on CAADP and its role in African's agriculture.

3.2 CAADP: An emerging African agricultural agenda?

To foster agricultural development, NEPAD, in 2003, launched CAADP. The common framework is reflected in a set of key principles and targets defined by the HSG. The CAADP initiative takes a continent-wide view, but builds on national and regional plans for the development of agriculture. It is a manifestation of African commitment to address issues of growth in the agricultural sector, rural development and food security and has been instrumental in bringing agriculture back to the centre stage of economic development and poverty alleviation.

3.2.1 Early CAADP process and implementation

The origin of CAADP dates back to the year 2001, when FAO organised a brainstorming meeting on the role of agriculture in the implementation of NEPAD, which had been created just a number of months earlier. During a consultative process of about two years (see Box 3-2), a central document was elaborated by FAO in close cooperation with the NEPAD secretariat (FAO 2004). In early July 2003, at the first conference of ministers of agriculture of the AU in Maputo/Mozambique, a CAADP Plan of Action for National and Regional Level was drafted and presented to the participants. In the second Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the AU in mid-July 2003 in Maputo, CAADP was approved by HSG and the Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa was adopted (NEPAD 2003a).

At the meeting of agricultural ministers of the NEPAD Implementation Committee at Rome in September 2003, the participants requested FAO to assist in implementing the Maputo Declaration by preparing National Medium-Term Investment Programmes (NMTIP) and portfolios of Bankable Investment Project Profiles (BIPPs) as implementation modalities for CAADP in each country (see Box 3-2). The aim was to create an environment favourable to improved competitiveness of the agricultural and rural sector; to achieve quantitative objectives and mobilisation of resources to the extent needed for the associated investments in agriculture; to achieve a targeted allocation of national budgetary resources to this area, reflecting the commitment made in the Maputo Declaration; and to create a framework for coordinated bilateral and multilateral financing of the sector.

Box 3-2: Consultative process for preparation and follow-up of CAADP from 2001 to 2003	
December 2001	<i>Brainstorming Workshop – Agriculture and Water (FAO, Rome):</i> FAO organised in Rome, in December 2001, a workshop for the 15 member countries of the NEPAD Implementation Committee which focused on required investments on land and water improvement.
January 2002:	<i>Work-in-progress Workshop (Benoni, RSA):</i> FAO made a case for giving prominence to agriculture – both in terms of production and trade – in the NEPAD process at the meeting organised by the NEPAD Steering Committee.
February 2002:	<i>Twenty-second FAO Regional Conference (Cairo, Egypt):</i> The agenda of the Twenty-second FAO Regional Conference for Africa (4–8 February 2002) included a major item on NEPAD, for discussion at both ministerial and experts levels. The discussion led to increased awareness of NEPAD and a resolution was adopted which recommended actions for governments and encouraged FAO to continue extending support to the process.
Second quarter 2002	<i>CAADP preparation through a consultative process:</i> At the invitation of the NEPAD Steering Committee, FAO worked with African experts on a draft CAADP document which was finalized after consultations with relevant ministries, Regional Economic Groupings, regional development banks and farmers' organisations, among others. On 17 May 2002 a first draft was presented to the NEPAD Steering Committee in Maputo to secure guidance before finalizing the version to be presented to African Ministers for Agriculture in Rome, in June 2002. <i>CAADP Endorsement:</i> The CAADP was endorsed by African Ministers for Agriculture on 9 June 2002 in Rome at a Follow-up Ministerial Meeting on NEPAD (additional session of the Twenty-second FAO Regional Conference for Africa).
December 2002:	A special set of meetings was organised 5–12 December 2002 in Abuja by the Government of Nigeria, African Development Bank (AfDB), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the NEPAD Secretariat and FAO for Regional Economic Communities. The meetings, which consisted of segments at expert, ministerial, and HSG levels, led to the adoption of an Abuja Declaration that included commitments and decisions on action as well as creating an enabling environment for agriculture. The Declaration also committed to the preparation of a comprehensive and detailed Action Plan that would convert the broad thrusts of the CAADP document into more bankable projects reflecting the priorities of Regional Economic Organisations (REOs) / Regional Economic Communities (RECs) (and their national memberships) as well as NEPAD “Flagship Programmes” to be proposed by the REOs/RECs.
Late March – early April 2003:	The NEPAD Secretariat organised, in Johannesburg, an inter-agency workshop to prepare the Action Plan recommended at Abuja.
July 2003:	Mozambique-AU-NEPAD-FAO expert (1 July 2003) and ministerial (2 July 2003) meetings on the NEPAD agriculture programme. The meetings considered three documents: (a) The state of food and agriculture in Africa 2003; (b) Responding to agricultural and food insecurity challenges – Mobilizing Africa to implement NEPAD programmes; and (c) The process of converting the CAADP to implementable Plans of Action at national and regional levels. The recommendations of the ministerial meeting were conveyed to the African Union Assembly of Heads of State and Government, which adopted them and concretized their commitment in the form of the Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa (Maputo Declaration).
Source: FAO (2004)	

However, the NMTIP and the FAO's BIPPs approach were not taken up by the HSG, basically because of a lack of integration with the countries' national strategies. Therefore, NEPAD proposed a different approach, with a RECs-led process that highlights the CAADP objectives and pillars as a framework. The NMTIPs and BIPPs may still be considered as part of the stocktaking exercises involved in the new process.

Goal and objective of CAADP

The CAADP initiative takes a continent-wide view, but is expected to be implemented at the regional and thereafter at the national level. The goal of CAADP is to "help African countries reach a higher path of economic growth through agriculture-led development, which eliminates hunger, reduces poverty and food insecurity, and enables expansion of exports." The original focus was to promote immediate interventions that best respond to the widely recognised crisis situation of African agriculture. Thus, CAADP had been cast to deliberately focus on investment in the three pillars that were deemed able to make the earliest difference in African agriculture's dire situation: i) sustainable land use, ii) rural infrastructure and trade related capacities, and iii) food security. At the request of Africa's agricultural ministers, a "Research and Technology" pillar was added and subsequently incorporated into the CAADP main document (FAO 2004).

By signing the Maputo Declaration, African HSG endorsed and accepted CAADP as a vision for the restoration of agricultural growth, food security, and rural development in Africa. As a programme, the AU/NEPAD is said to emanate from and be fully owned and led by African governments. More specifically, the Maputo Declaration sets key principles and goals to be achieved by the year 2015:

- Improve the productivity of agriculture to attain an average annual growth rate of 6 %, with particular attention to small-scale farmers, especially focusing on women;
- Allocate 10 % or more of their budget to agriculture;
- Have dynamic agricultural markets within countries and between regions;
- Have integrated farmers into the market economy and have improved access to markets to become a net exporter of agriculture products;
- Have achieved a more equitable distribution of wealth;
- Be a strategic player in agricultural science and technology development; and
- Practice environmentally sound production methods and have a culture of sustainable management of the natural resource base.

The main document has not been redrafted since, and a Companion Document has been added to better cover livestock, fisheries and forestry (AU / NEPAD 2003). The Companion Document was submitted to the AU Summit of July 2004. An Implementation Road Map was approved by the African Partnership Forum (APF) in October 2004 (AU / NEPAD Secretariat 2004). Today CAADP is usually referred to as a "framework" rather than as a development programme or plan.

3.2.2 Reasons for implementing CAADP at different levels

Continental level:

There are two main AU/NEPAD objectives for implementing CAADP at the continental level:

- Ensuring the alignment of development assistance with CAADP objectives and principles;
- Securing commitment by partners to work with national governments and the private sector to meet the required level of investments.

Regional level

The main objective of the implementation of CAADP at regional level is to provide the region with a single and unifying framework in a given region with several countries for programming and implementing actions for the development of the agricultural sector. The specific objectives are: (a) preservation of ownership and leadership of the CAADP implementation process by RECs, (b) identification of regional priorities, (c) establishment of coordination and governance mechanisms at the regional level, and (d) building the capacities of RECs to coordinate the implementation process (AU / NEPAD Secretariat 2004; NEPAD 2005; NEPAD 2007a).

In the framework of the AU, RECs are the building blocks for Africa's economic integration (NEPAD 2003b). The RECs are seen as playing an increasingly important role in the harmonisation and implementation of agricultural policies, particularly with respect to agricultural and food security aspects of regional integration, trade and market development. Several RECs have developed regional agricultural policy frameworks¹. Besides providing strategic orientations for regional agricultural policies, the frameworks also serve as guidelines for agricultural development in relation to CAADP. Several of them will need updating and adaptation in view of CAADP priorities, but also in view of ongoing regional integration efforts in the framework of Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) negotiations (EU-Commission 2007).

The role of CAADP at the regional level is:

- Preparation and implementation of related Regional Agricultural Investment Programmes (RAIP);
- Harmonisation of national agricultural policies;
- Development of a common agricultural policy;
- Facilitation of joint management of cross-border intra-regional resources (fish stocks, forestry, pasture grounds, water resources);

1 For instance, Union Economique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine (UEMOA) has adopted its 'Politique agricole de l'UEMOA' (PAU) in 2001; ECOWAS has adopted a comprehensive regional agricultural policy (the ECOWAP) in 2005; COMESA has developed its Agricultural Strategic Framework; and Economic Community of Central African States / Communauté Economique des Etats de l'Afrique Central (ECCAS/CEEAC) has been given the mandate for agricultural policy harmonisation and for the development of a common agricultural policy by 2008.

- Promotion of intra-regional trade, by, *inter alia*, adoption of common/international sanitary and phyto-sanitary standards (SPS) and reducing/eliminating tariffs on cross-border trade;
- Guidance to and implementation of (sub)regional research programmes and coordination of national research programmes;
- Coordination and standardisation of national information and early warning systems;
- Regional strategies for emergencies/disasters;
- Exchange of information/peer learning on agricultural practices, technology and policies;
- Strengthening of regional producer and sector organisations;
- Assistance in capacity building for national-level producer and sector organisations.

National level

The principles of the implementation of CAADP at the national level are (a) to avoid setting up a new process and build on ongoing efforts at national level, (b) to align national efforts with the CAADP growth and budgetary objectives, (c) to add value to national efforts where needed.

Under the CAADP framework, the responsibility for programme implementation rests with the individual countries; the coordination role is designated to the RECs; and that of facilitation to the Continental NEPAD Secretariat. The Country Review Report (CRR) provides a framework for policy implementation at the national level.

Each country will hold a Country Round-table (CR) to work with stakeholders to elaborate a Country Compact (CC) to guide the implementation of CAADP in the long term by:

- Building commitments in terms of sector policies, public expenditures, and development assistance;
- Establishing partnerships and alliances for successful implementation of CAADP; and
- Creating a mechanism for peer review and dialogue to track implementation performance and progress in meeting the agreed commitments (AU / NEPAD Secretariat 2004; NEPAD 2005; NEPAD 2007c).

The tasks of CAADP at the national level are:

- The development and implementation of agricultural policies and strategies, including on land tenure & management, input supply, marketing and sector organisation;
- Fostering of public-private partnerships and consultation mechanisms;
- Drawing up of investment programmes (in line with PRSPs) in rural/agricultural productive and supportive infrastructure (irrigation, storage, roads etc.);
- Guidance to and operation of national research and extension systems;
- Facilitation of access to credit;
- Facilitation and capacity building for producer and sector organisations;
- Quality assurance;
- National market and production information systems (EU-Commission 2007).

3.2.3 Implementation design of CAADP at the national level

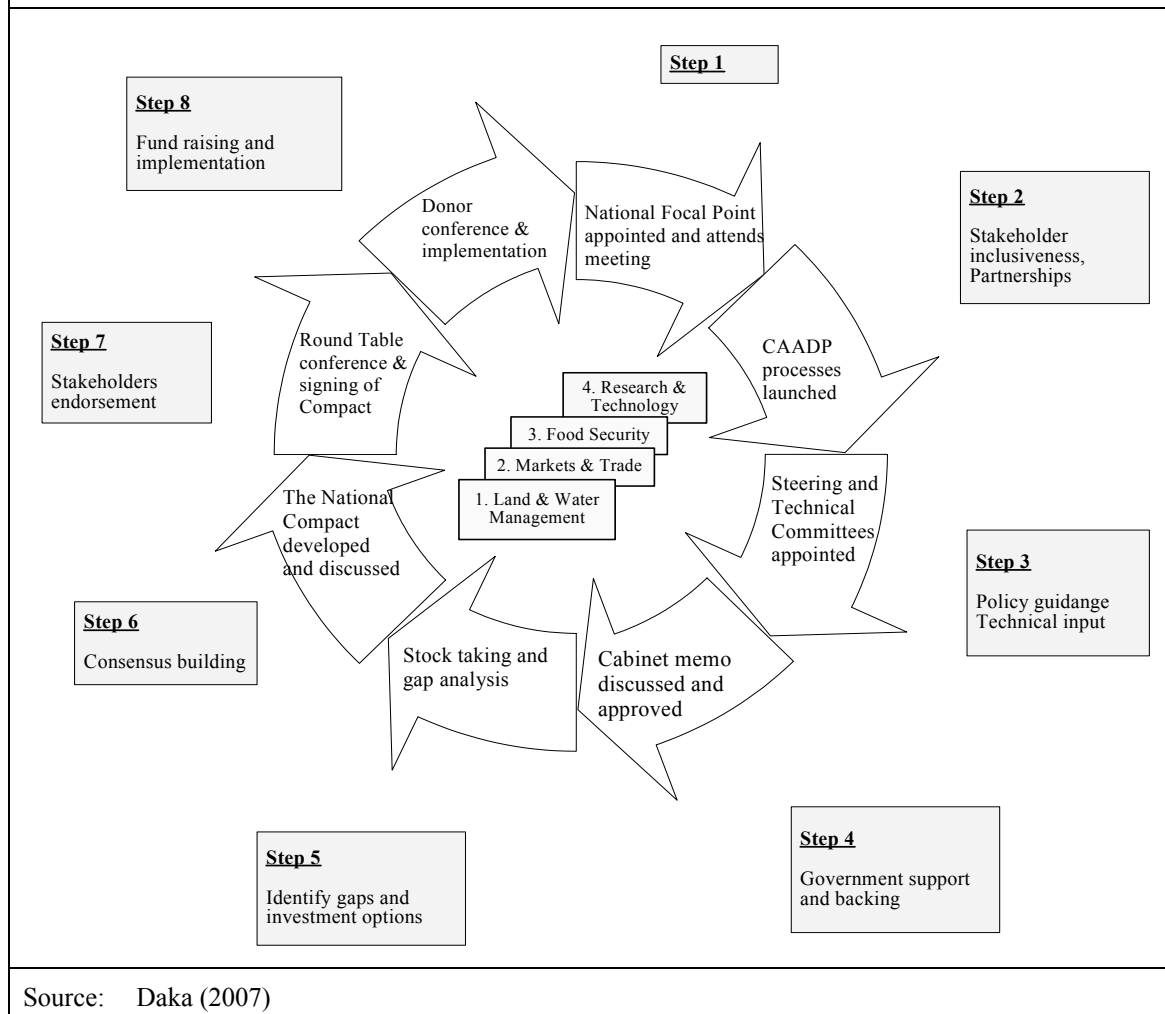
Since the aim of this study is to better understand the role of CAADP at the national level, the following description of the implementation steps of CAADP is restricted to this level. This is not to say that regional and continental level implementation is not happening, and this may influence national level CAADP policies. In fact, a limited number of programmes with the CAADP signet have been launched in a selected number of regions, with several countries involved, such as Ghana and Kenya. It is highly probable that they will lead to additional CAADP implementation activities at the national level. In addition, they are in particular boosting the reputation of the CAADP secretariat and RECs as visible, resourceful, and powerful. However, these higher levels are difficult to follow up on, except for the regularly meetings and official statements, and they are not subjects of this study.

Figure 3-2 shows the steps leading to a national CR which an individual country has to follow. The REC mandated to oversee implementation usually sensitizes the national governments on what CAADP entails as well as on the process of implementation. After a government buys in (see below), it is supposed to appoint a National Focal Point Person (NFPP), at the directorate level in the ministry of agriculture. The NFPP will then organise the CAADP launch, during which the Technical Working Committee (TWC) is formed. The Committee is mandated with the responsibility of running the CAADP process in a country, with the NFPP serving as its chair.

The TWC drafts the terms of reference (ToRs) for engaging two consultants to carry out a stocktaking exercise, the aim of which is to describe past agricultural policies, the development of the sector and weaknesses, strengths and lessons learned. The TWC is also responsible for identifying and selecting the consultants in close coordination, while the responsible REC is in charge of payment. The consultants present the report to the TWC. The committee then discusses the report and provides further input. The final report is forwarded to the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), which further analyses the data and uses them to model options of investment on growth and their impact on poverty, thereby informing the identification of priorities for agricultural development programmes. A stakeholder workshop is then held followed by the CR conference and compact signing.

By endorsing the compact:

- The government of the country pledges to fulfil the commitments specified therein, in line with the goals, objectives, principles, and modalities laid out in the countries' strategic documents ;
- The development partners pledge, collectively, to fulfil the commitments specified therein;
- AU, REC and other regional partners pledge, collectively, to fulfil the commitments specified therein in line with the Maputo Declaration and global principles of CAADP implementation;
- The private sector and civil society, collectively, pledge their support to realising the aspirations of the compact.

Figure 3-2: Steps leading to compact round-table implementation

As the present study is finalised, only Rwanda has completed its CR conference and compacting. Malawi has undertaken the stakeholders' workshop and awaits the CR. Zambia and Uganda have submitted their final reports and are awaiting the stakeholder workshop. For a general overview of where countries of COMESA (Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa) and ECOWAS (Economic Community of West African States) regions (for others, no comprehensive information is available) stand in implementing CAADP, see Annex 2 and Annex 3.

3.2.4 The new attempt to revive CAADP and new guidelines for CAADP implementation

In 2005, the NEPAD Secretariat took a new initiative to implement CAADP. Five regional "CAADP implementation planning meetings" were organised, followed by a high level "wrap-up" meeting in Accra in May 2005. This meeting produced the "Post-Accra Action Plan" for actions to be taken at the level of countries, RECs and the NEPAD Secretariat. Furthermore, a CAADP Retreat on the Post Accra Action Plan and on advancing the implementation of the CAADP agenda at regional and country levels was held in Pretoria in October 2005. This retreat brought together RECs, AUC, NEPAD and Development

Table 3-1: New CAADP agenda	
Level	Expected/desired change
Country level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Inter-ministerial collaboration, especially between agriculture, finance, environment and natural resources ministries – Increased direct participation of in-country partners (civil society organisations, non-governmental organisations, private sector, faith institutions, etc.) in the development and implementation of agricultural and rural development investment programmes – Interaction and collaboration between government and development partners harmonised, more coherent and better coordinated – Countries receive direct expert input/backstopping support in analytical work from local/African specialised institutions and knowledge centres – Governments increase and sustain budget expenditure support to agriculture – Quality agriculture investment designed and implemented, including regional programmes – Strengthened capacities and competencies in local institutions, including government, to identify, formulate and implement quality investment programmes – Governance arrangements and empowerment of in-country partners, including community organisations, provide for inclusive participation and support to agriculture development – Partnership between farmers, private sector organisations
Regional level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – RECs take more and better leadership in stimulating, coordinating and facilitating support (financial, expert/technical, information, etc.) to country CAADP implementation processes – Regions better prepared to engage in global issues that affect or are affected by agriculture – Environment for quality regional investment programme
Continental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Resource mobilisation and lobbying in support for the strengthened CAADP – Brokering and mitigation in political issues around agriculture and building consensus – Mutually interactive regional and continental information and knowledge system and a peer review framework based on an effective M&E system – Increased evidence at all levels on the impact and value of the CAADP agenda – Africa more and better prepared to engage in global issues that affect or are affected by agriculture

Partners to agree on actions, commitments and partnerships (NEPAD 2005; NEPAD 2006; NEPAD 2007a; NEPAD 2007c). At these meetings, bilateral and multilateral development partners committed to supporting the implementation of CAADP. Furthermore, they promised to seek to align their assistance strategies and their activities in the agricultural sector with CAADP priorities and targets.

Moreover, a multi-donor CAADP Trust Fund, managed by the World Bank, has recently been established. The fund will support the development and implementation of CAADP processes and the institutions leading these processes, such as NEPAD, RECs. It will also support the development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of CAADP pillar programmes and the institutions responsible for them at continental, sub-regional, national and local levels; and finally, it will support the strategic management of the Trust Fund

and harmonisation of the activities of Africa's development partners in their support of CAADP.

In addition to these high-level meetings, several other events were organised in connection with the implementation of CAADP. Table 3–1 provides a list of CAADP changes expected at the continental level.

3.2.5 CAADP content – pillars and cross-cutting-areas for investment and national level action

CAADP has technical thrusts, described as four main pillars (see Box 3-3). In addition, two cross-cutting themes have been identified. These cross-cutting themes are sometimes also referred to as “Pillars 5 and 6”. As mentioned above, a Companion Document has been added to the CAADP main document in order to cover the sub-sector livestock, fisheries and forestry. The following information has been extracted from the core documents and general information of the CAADP (AU / NEPAD 2003; AU / NEPAD 2006; NEPAD 2004; NEPAD 2005; NEPAD 2007a; NEPAD 2007b; NEPAD 2007c).

Box 3-3: The technical thrusts of CAADP – Pillars, compendium and cross-cutting areas
<p>The four pillars:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems 2. Improving rural infrastructure and trade related capacities for market accesses 3. Increasing food supply, reduce hunger, and improve responses to food emergency crises 4. Improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption <p>Cross Cutting Areas:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Capacity Strengthening for Agriculture and Agribusiness: Academic and Professional Training 6. Information for Agricultural Strategy Formulation and Implementation
Companion Document: Development of livestock, fisheries and forestry resources

In the following, the four pillars, the cross-cutting areas and the companion document of CAADP are sketched according to CAADP's own logic. Although CAADP has undergone substantial changes in its character, the pillars have remained the same and are nowadays CAADP's best-known elements. The cost-estimations date back to the initial document of 2003 and are reported here as an indication of the enormous size of the tasks to be tackled.

Pillar 1: Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems

This pillar recognizes the importance of water and its managed use in raising the productivity of agriculture and ensuring sustainable and predictable outputs. Major efforts need to be undertaken to build up fertility and the moisture holding capacity of agricultural soils and to rapidly increase the area equipped with irrigation, especially small scale water control. Investment requirements for land and water development were estimated by AU / NEPAD at US\$ 37 billion for the period 2002–2015, while operation and maintenance would require an additional US\$ 32 billion.

Pillar 2: Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market accesses

Africa's rural infrastructure is inadequate by any standard and its road network is particularly underdeveloped. Under this pillar, a major focus will be put on complementary investments in rural infrastructure, particularly rural roads, storage, processing and marketing facilities that will be required to support the anticipated growth in agricultural production and improve the competitiveness of the agricultural sector. Investments were estimated at US\$ 89 billion for rural infrastructure and US\$ 2.8 billion for trade related capacities for improved market access. The protection of infrastructure investments would require an additional US\$ 37 billion for continuing operation and maintenance.

Pillar 3. Increasing food supply, reduce hunger, and improve responses to food emergency crises

Hunger still remains widespread in Africa. Two approaches are thought to have the potential to make an immediate impact on farmers' livelihoods: (a) provision of safety nets; and (b) food security through agricultural production enhancement. Raising the productivity of 15 million small farms through improved technology, services and policies was estimated to require US\$ 7.5 billion; funds needed for emergencies and safety US\$ 42 billion.

Pillar 4: Improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption

In Africa, as elsewhere in the world, agriculture will need a scientific and technological underpinning to maintain sustained productivity gains which are necessary to remain competitive. Several lines of action will be necessary, including: (a) increasing investments in research and technology development; (b) increasing the share of private sector funding of agricultural research; and (c) institutional and financial reforms for greater research sustainability. A total of US\$ 4.6 billion was estimated for this pillar.

Cross Cutting Issue 1: Capacity Strengthening for Agriculture and Agribusiness: Academic and Professional Training

The need for increasing capacity in agricultural science as well as agricultural and development economics in Africa arises out of the fact that Africa is experiencing a significant capacity shortage. The capacity gap must be addressed if the advances made thus far in agriculture-led poverty reduction in the continent are to continue and the regions currently experiencing serious declines in food security are to reverse their situation. There are many ways to tackle this problem, including by (a) significantly increasing the number of Africans with Post-Graduate degrees in agricultural sciences and agricultural/development economics, (b) modernizing smallholder farming through broad-based access to professional training, (c) and reforming and restructuring training and technology institutions, where necessary, raising efficiency of use of existing resources and improving the quality of services.

Cross Cutting Issue 2: Information for Agricultural Strategy Formulation and Implementation

An important part of strategy and policy formulation and implementation is to have access to adequate benchmarks, best practices, statistical information, and other relevant technical information. This access is lacking in most African countries. The situation can be remedied by using modern communication technologies to collect, store, and expand access to the above information. Doing so collectively at the regional level would allow economies of scale and encourage mutual learning and exchange of experiences.

It is also critical to achieve consistency of long-term development efforts in African countries and in particular maintain the focus on poverty reduction through higher productivity and incomes among the poorer segments of the population. It is therefore necessary to ensure that CAADP agenda are in line with the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) processes. As more and more countries advance on the PRSP process, it is important that the associated budget support programmes reflect the pro-poor and pro-smallholder options that underlie the CAADP programme. To reach this goal, the following Objectives were set: (a) improve the quality of sector governance and strategy formulation and implementation in the agricultural sector by African countries; (b) raise the allocation of resources by countries to the agricultural sector and (c) improve the implementation effectiveness of support programmes based on PRSPs, as well as the impact of such programmes, in terms of their contribution to the objectives of growth, higher smallholder productivity, and poverty reduction.

Companion Document: Integrating livestock, forestry and fisheries sub-sectors into the CAADP

The Companion Document to CAADP elaborates strategies for improving livestock productivity and increasing the production of meat and milk directed towards the three major production systems: (a) mixed crop livestock systems; (b) pastoral systems; and (c) intensive commercial systems. Special attention is devoted to strengthening policy coherence, institutions and implementation capacities. Livestock research would focus specifically on feed supply, animal health and genetic improvement. Total resource requirements for the 2004–2015 period were estimated at US\$ 21.2 billion, of which US\$ 5.3 billion for policy and institutional development and US\$ 15.9 billion for livestock infrastructure development.

The main areas of intervention in the forestry sub-sector include: (a) policy and legal reforms and improved land use planning (US\$ 2.5 billion); (b) strengthening the institutional framework (US\$ 9.9 billion); (c) sustainable forest management to enhance supply of goods and services (US\$ 25.6 billion); and (d) complementary investments for the development of industries and supporting infrastructure (US\$ 9.0 billion). Specific priority areas of action under each of the above were identified. The total investment is about US\$ 47 billion for the period 2004 to 2015.

Priority investments for fisheries and aquaculture would be undertaken in the following strategic areas: (i) fishery policy and institutional framework; (ii) fishery equipment and infrastructure improvement; and (iii) development of a vibrant commercial aquaculture. Over the period 2004–2015, estimated total resource requirements amount to US\$ 35.3

billion, of which US\$ 11.3 billion will be for sustaining and increasing production, US\$ 7.4 billion for developing and adding value, US\$ 4.9 billion for management and implementation, and US\$ 5.9 billion for human and institutional capacity, learning and exchanging of knowledge.

3.2.6 CAADP stakeholders

Box 3-4 presents the most important CAADP stakeholders involved at each level – national, regional and international. Stakeholders are defined here as persons, groups or institutions with interests in CAADP and its outcomes. The most important stakeholders are those who can significantly influence, or are important to the success or the failure of CAADP programme.

Box 3-4: Most important CAADP stakeholders
<p>Stakeholders at the continental level</p> <p>Stakeholders at the continental level are African Union (AU) and NEPAD as main drivers of CAADP (and APRM). The task of the AU is mainly focusing on policy formulation in areas of continental relevance, policy harmonisation, monitoring of national policy undertakings, stimulating implementation of AU-level decisions and fostering of regional networks and partnerships. The NEPAD Secretariat is the technical arm in the CAADP process.</p> <p>Stakeholders at the regional level</p> <p>At the regional level, RECs such as ECOWAS and Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) are responsible for the implementation of the CAADP principles at the regional and national level. They are intended to play an important role in harmonisation, implementation and monitoring of CAADP agricultural policies. NEPAD shall provide technical guidance and work closely with RECs to stimulate the implementation of CAADP.</p> <p>Stakeholders at the national level</p> <p>At the national level, stakeholders include the CAADP focal points and organising committees and the different private stakeholders of agricultural policies and their organisations, i.e. farmers, processors, traders, consumers, input distributors, finance institutions providing agricultural credits, etc., as well as different public stakeholders, i.e. agricultural and related sector ministries such as those responsible for land ownership, water, natural resources, cooperatives, trade, etc. as far as they are responsible for issues concerning agriculture, and the respective public executing organisations.</p> <p>Pillar institutions</p> <p>Leading African institutions have been mobilized to provide the necessary technical expertise and facilitation to guide programme planning and implementation. In particular, these institutions are helping develop framework documents for the each of the pillars to serve as technical reference and guidance for RECs and their member countries as they develop and implement policy intervention and investment programmes. The documents analyze key challenges and issues, identifying success factors, best practices, and successful partnerships and alliance models that can be scaled and adapted to accelerate progress and improve implementation outcome.</p> <p>The institutions are:</p> <p>The University of Zambia jointly with Centre Inter-Etat de Lutte contre la Secheresse au Sahel (CILSS) for Pillar 1.</p> <p>The Conference of Ministers of Agriculture of West and Central Africa (CMAWCA) for Pillar 2.</p> <p>The African Center for Food Security (ACFS) of KwaZulu Natal University and CILSS for Pillar 3.</p> <p>The Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa (FARA) for Pillar 4.</p>

Box 3-4 continued

Stakeholders at the international level

Apart from these “official” stakeholders acting within the system, several “outsider” actors can or may play an important role in the implementation of CAADP. The following institutions are major providers of assistance to agriculture in Africa at the national level, which in principle and according to the Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness, will align to national strategies and thus, to CAADP as far as it can shape national agricultural policies. The role of donors in implementing CAADP at the national level is part of the analysis of this study and further elaborated in Chapter 4. In addition, some declarations or additional initiatives by these donors are enumerated which are trans-national in character and have more or less explicit relations to CAADP as a continental programme. The collaboration and alignment with organisations at the regional level is less clearly conceptualised, but some initiatives exist as well.

The World Bank provides the so called Country Performance Institutional Assessment (CPIAs) to NEPAD on request. It helps to develop a multi-country infrastructure programme and technical assistance to regional institutions and strategic support. With regards to CAADP, the World Bank supports the implementation of CAADP pillars.

European Union (EU) and AU cooperate on agricultural development in Africa. The main objective is to identify challenges to agriculture in Africa, on the African priorities, as reflected in CAADP, as well as on the EU policy focus to sustainable intensification of production, competitiveness, risk management and research. A discussion paper from the European Commission (2007) entitled “Advancing African Agriculture. Proposal for continental and regional level cooperation on agricultural development in Africa” reflects the envisaged activities and contributions of the European Commission to support CAADP.

US Agency for International Development (USAID) committed itself to collectively work with other Development Partners to improve economic governance, increase foreign and domestic investment, and improve aid effectiveness by aligning its policies and programmes around integrated and strategic CAADP objectives. Further objectives are to secure real commitments against pledges made by African leaders to increase their own budgets for agriculture, align their investments with CAADP, and implement key reforms and policies to enable the sector to play its role in reducing poverty.

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) plays an important role in CAADP’s development and implementation. Furthermore, it gives technical and financial support in the following three activities:

- Follow-up of the Maputo Declaration.
- Update the Horizon 2015 and Agriculture and Development and Food Security Strategies.
- Prepare NMTIPs consistent with the Maputo Declaration and, building upon NMTIPs, prepare BIPPs.

UK Department for International Development (DFID) together with the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) and USAID, holds the leadership for consultations between the NEPAD Secretariat, International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), and several development partners to support the CAADP implementation process through research programmes. Development partners including DFID are committed to provide assistance to strengthen the capacities of RECs to enable them to successfully carry out their responsibilities of coordinating the CAADP implementation process.

IFPRI is presently the main scientific body to support CAADP through a collaborative Research and Capacity Building programme between NEPAD and IFPRI to inform and track the implementation of CAADP. Being basically funded by DFID and USAID, IFPRI uses additional research funds and projects to support its advisory services.

The recent multi-donor supported programme TerrAfrica forms an important implementation initiative in support of CAADP pillar 1 on land and water management.

3.2.7 Conceptual challenges of CAADP

This section presents the conceptual challenges of CAADP, which derive from the history and design presented thus far. This will make it easier to understand some of the problems encountered at the national level.

One fundamental weakness was the lack of a clear roadmap and guide for CAADP process implementation in the initial period. Since this was a new process, it was understandable that RECs and AU were also learning and adjusting from the country experiences. This to some extent led to the delays in and reduced speed of country process implementation. This was, however, addressed after the second and third CAADP Partner Platform meetings, with the former providing directions for a clear roadmap of the CAADP country process implementation to be developed.

Another challenge is how to define contents (in the different pillars) that take due account of the extremely different situations of agriculture in SSA countries. These differ from very high to very low population densities, very poor to relatively high levels of economic development, presence or absence of alternative driving sectors of growth (notably mineral and oil resources), trade opportunities and geographical isolation, challenges and opportunities to achieve poverty alleviation and food security and to foster agricultural productivity increases, etc. Finding common denominators for agricultural policies which are general enough to be acceptable as a chapeau but concrete enough to provide real guidance is a major challenge of agricultural-related continental frameworks.

The definition of agriculture under CAADP is very wide and comprises areas of responsibility which belong to a variety of ministries in African countries. A non-exhaustive list of these ministries is: agriculture, livestock, water, environment, fishery, forestry, natural resources, land, and infrastructure. The further design of the CAADP process does not seem to be giving appropriate consideration to this multi-sector dimension of agricultural policy in proposing the establishment of a unique focal point in the ministry of agriculture.

It is only in recent times that the conceptual work in CAADP programmatic papers, particularly concerning the creation of Pillar Institutions, has seen real progress. However, coordination of the Pillar Institutions for the associated frameworks to inform the country process is very weak. The time line presented above makes it clear that the CAADP process at country level had not had an opportunity to interact with, and therefore benefit from, Pillars and Pillar institutions in a bid to strengthen the design of agricultural policy frameworks and investment programmes at country level – even though this was meant to be one of their key roles.

3.3 APRM: creating a framework for good governance, including for agriculture?

This section describes the APRM and the role it potentially plays with regard to agriculture.

3.3.1 APRM: An overview

APRM is, for the time being, the most prominent and operational pillar of NEPAD. It is designed to help countries to achieve NEPAD's objectives through "constructive peer dialogue and persuasion" and sharing of information. In a seminal step, African countries are opening themselves up to critical peer reviews (other African HSG, represented by independent and widely respected so-called eminent persons). In brief, each country is assessing itself on the basis of a set of objectives, standards, criteria and indicators in various domains of governance and development. The result of this self-assessment is documented in a report called *Country Review Report* (CRR). This report is mirrored by an external assessment conducted by a team of external technical specialists. The reviewed country then lays out a *Programme of Action* (PoA) for improving national governance in line with a set of pre-identified conditions. The final report and the programme are vetted at local, regional and continental level; the ultimate "peer review" takes place at HSG level. After the peer review, the report is officially published. Implementation is set to be reviewed every two to four years, but it is doubtful whether it will actually take place in this frequency (Grimm / Nawrath 2007a).

Participation in the APRM is open to all member states of the African Union, and so far twenty seven countries² have acceded by signing the Memorandum of Understanding. However, only six have completed the full review cycle to date (Ghana, Kenya, Rwanda, South Africa, Algeria, and Uganda); several others are well underway with the design of their *PoA*. Programmes are not yet being implemented at a substantial level (which is not really astonishing given an exhaustive list of reform recommendations). Within the broadly defined framework, each country has organised the process in its own manner, differing in terms of the degree of independence of NEPAD structures and the role and clout of the various stakeholders.

3.3.2 APRM organisation and process

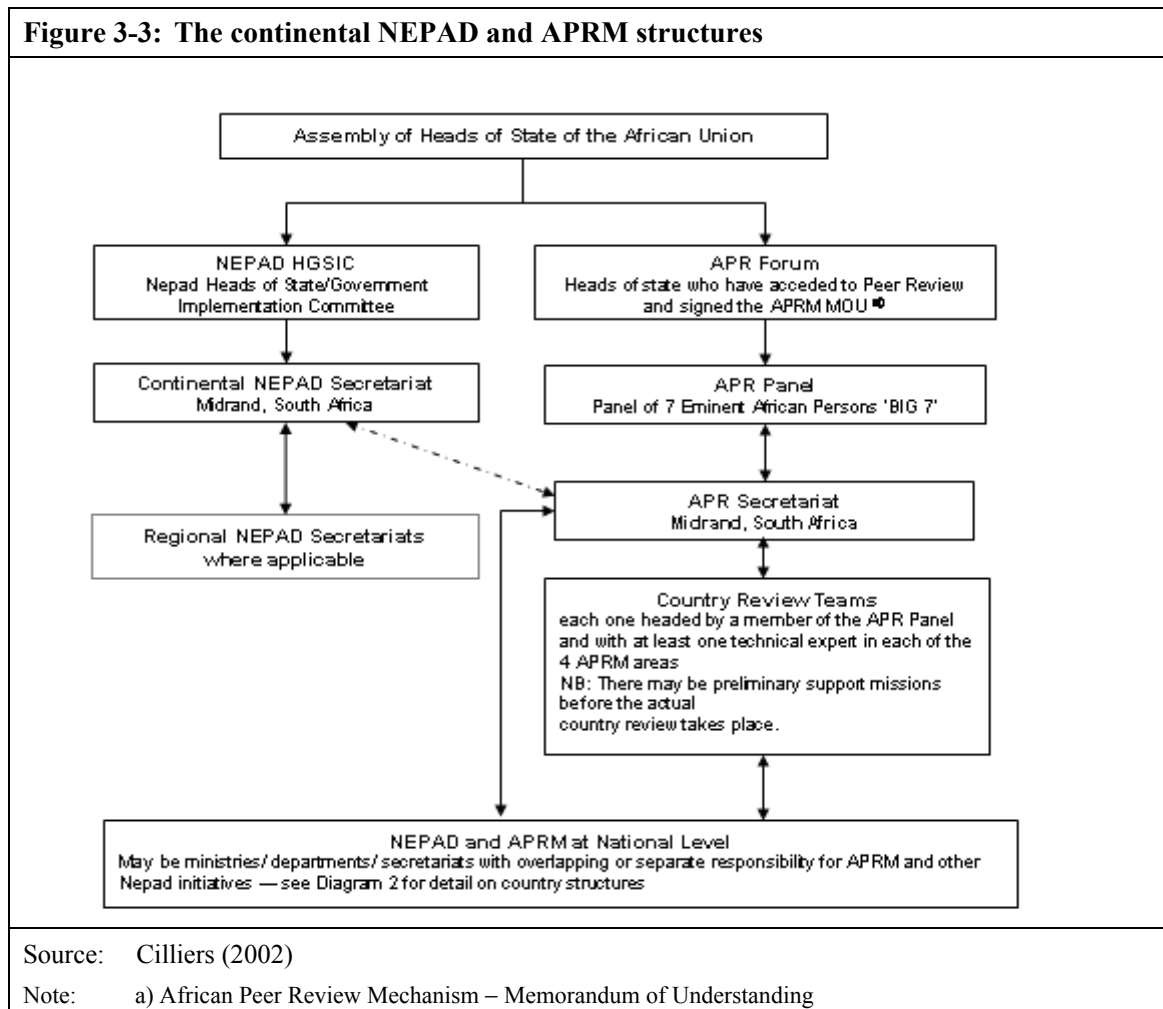
The APRM framework

The APRM identifies four substantive areas in the NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance (NEPAD 2003b, 3), namely *Democracy and Political Governance; Economic Governance and Management; Corporate Governance and Socio-economic Development*. The purpose of the PoA is "to provide a clear framework to guide the design and implementation of the assessment in each of these areas" (NEPAD 2003b, 4).

The framework for the operationalisation of the APRM is presented in Table 3-2. It outlines the four substantive areas of NEPAD as well as the key objectives for each area. For each key objective, various standards are set and indicative criteria and examples of indicators are laid out.

2 Algeria, Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia.

Table 3-2: Framework for the operationalisation of the APRM	
Substantive areas	Key objectives
Democracy and political governance	<p>Prevent and reduce intra- and inter-country conflicts</p> <p>Constitutional democracy, including periodic political competition and opportunity for choice, the rule of law, a Bill of Rights and the supremacy of the constitution are firmly established in the constitution</p> <p>Promotion and protection of economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights as enshrined in all African and international human rights instruments</p> <p>Uphold the separation of powers, including the protection of the independence of the judiciary and of an effective parliament</p> <p>Ensure accountable, efficient and effective public office holders and civil servants</p> <p>Fighting corruption in the political sphere</p> <p>Promotion and protection of the rights of women</p> <p>Promotion and protection of the rights of the child and young persons</p> <p>Promotion and protection of the rights of vulnerable groups, including displaced persons and refugees</p>
Economic governance and management	<p>Promote macroeconomic policies that support sustainable development</p> <p>Implement transparent, predictable and credible government economic policies</p> <p>Promote sound public finance management</p> <p>Fight corruption and money laundering</p> <p>Accelerate regional integration by participating in the harmonization of monetary, trade and investment policies amongst the participating states</p>
Corporate governance	<p>Provide an enabling environment and effective regulatory framework for economic activities</p> <p>Ensure that corporations act as good corporate citizens with regard to human rights, social responsibility and environmental sustainability</p> <p>Promote the adoption of codes of good business ethics (e.g. Cadbury and King Codes) in achieving the objectives of the organisation</p> <p>Ensure that corporations treat all their stakeholders (shareholders, employees, communities, suppliers and customers) in a fair and just manner</p> <p>Provide for accountability of corporations and directors</p>
Socio-economic development	<p>Promote self-reliance in development and build capacity for self-sustaining development.</p> <p>Accelerate socio-economic development to achieve sustainable development and poverty eradication</p> <p>Strengthen policies, delivery mechanisms and outputs in key social development areas (including education for all, combating of HIV/AIDS and other communicable diseases)</p> <p>Ensuring affordable access to water, energy, finance (including micro-finance), markets and ICT for all citizens, especially the rural poor</p> <p>Progress towards gender equality, particularly equal access to education for girls at all levels</p> <p>Encourage broad-based participation in development by all stakeholders at all levels</p>
Source: NEPAD (2003b)	

Figure 3-3: The continental NEPAD and APRM structures

The APRM structure: continental APRM steering institutions

The APRM has four major organisational layers (see Table 3-2). An *African Peer Review Forum* (APR Forum), composed of the HSG who have volunteered to participate in the process, oversees the review process. This *APR Forum* in turn appoints a panel of seven eminent persons to serve as the *African Peer Review Panel* (APR Panel)³ (see Table 3-2), which manages the review process and protects its integrity by overseeing appointments of the technicians or institutions involved in the review process and reviewing the country reports. A *Country Review Team* (CRT) will conduct the actual review; it will receive technical and research support from the APRM Secretariat. The teams are constituted only for the period of the country review visit and are assembled specifically for one country. The building of the team is overseen by the APR Panel. Members usually are selected from partner institutions (Grimm / Nawrath 2007) with which the APRM collaborates. These African partner institutions are, inter alia, the African Development Bank (AfDB) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), which provide technical expertise and financial support not available within the AU and NEPAD. APR Focal Points are set up by participating countries.

3 The APR Panel consists of seven eminent Africans who command great respect on the continent and whose task is primarily to ensure the credibility and integrity of the APR Process.

Implementation design of APRM

There are five stages to the Africa Peer Review Process (APR Process):

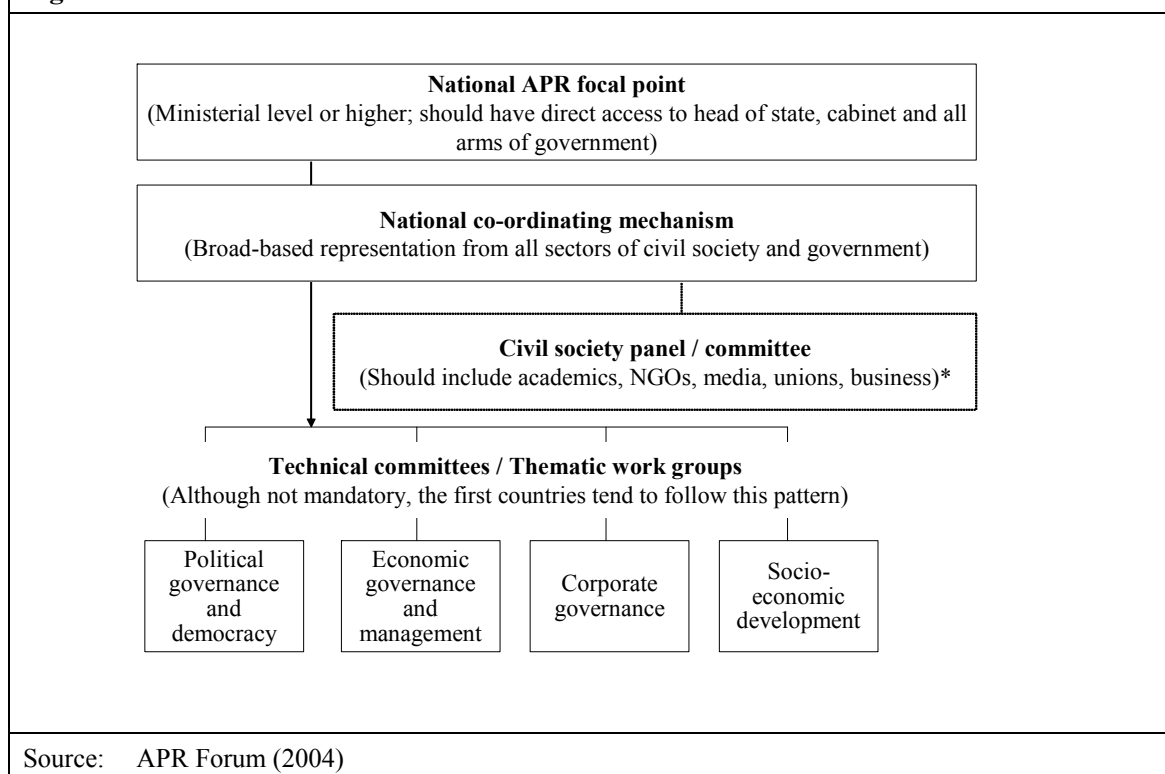
- As a first step, after having formally acceded to the APRM, the country under review will provide data on the economic and political situation to the secretariat to develop a draft country Programme of Action (PoA).
- As second step, the country review team will visit the country to evaluate the criteria provided by the country under review and meet with stakeholders, such as government representatives, parliamentarians, political party members, civil society and the business community, to develop a final PoA.
- In the third step, the country review team uses the PoA to develop an assessment of the country's economic and political practices to develop a Draft Country Review Report, which is discussed with the country in question. The government has a chance to respond to the country review; its comments will be attached to the review report.
- In the fourth step, the country review team submits the review report to the APR Panel, which then submits it to the APR Forum, with recommendations for the country under review.
- In the final step, a country's APR Report is publicized through regional and sub-regional organisations such as the African Union, the Pan-African Parliament, the African Commission on Human and People's Rights, the Peace and Security Council, the Economic, Social and Cultural Council of the African Union, and the RECs to which the country belongs. Following the publication of the APR Report, the states are expected to undertake the reforms needed to improve governance.

According to the APRM philosophy, an unfavourable peer review does not result in sanctions from the peer countries. Instead, the eminent persons will undertake a "constructive dialogue" if a country does not show a "demonstrable will to rectify the identified shortcomings." The constructive dialogue will be accompanied by "technical and other appropriate assistance." If a country still refuses to comply, member states will take "appropriate measures by a given date

National APRM structure

At the national level, each participating country must establish an APRM focal point, preferably at ministerial level (ministry of foreign affairs) or higher (presidential cabinet) to facilitate access to the head of state and relevant ministries that will participate in the review (see Figure 3–4). As recommended to the APR Forum by the eminent persons, the country must also set up a national coordinating mechanism, including all the key government and civil society stakeholders that should be part of the review (APR Forum 2004).

The exact nature of the national focal points and coordinating mechanism varies from one country to another, depending on each country's resources and political makeup. Ghana, for example, had a dedicated Ministry for NEPAD, now integrated into the Foreign Ministry (and the presidency), via which these structures were established. Kenya, on the other hand, established a semi-autonomous national NEPAD Secretariat, which is setting up the APR structures.

Figure 3-4: National APRM structure

The Civil Society Panel shown above is an option that some countries may incorporate into the National Co-ordinating Mechanism or, as a substructure, into the Co-ordinating Mechanism. The danger is that, in less democratic societies, the composition of this panel will be tightly controlled by government, effectively providing a barrier between civil society on the ground and the APR process instead of facilitating greater civil society involvement. In Ghana, on the other hand, the “Governing Council” consisted exclusively of CSO persons.

The four, somewhat nested, areas of governance in APRM have different focuses. Democracy and political governance, the first focus area that includes the rule of law, equality before the law, freedoms, etc., is important because it is essential to being able to provide economic, corporate and socio-economic governance. Economic governance, which includes promotion of market efficiency, control of wasteful spending, encouragement of private sector flows, and so on, comes next because of its importance in promoting growth and reducing poverty. The next focus area, corporate governance, deals, at micro levels, with how both public and private corporations are directed, controlled and held to account. Transparency and accountability, including social responsibility, are considered important here, largely to develop and maintain investor confidence. The fourth area, social development, deals with state responsibilities in targeting outcomes to ensure that there is continuous improvement in the well-being of people, through appropriate policies and delivery mechanisms, particularly in social development areas. Self reliance, delivery of education and disease control, access to water, energy, and markets, especially for the poor, are among the areas of concern here.

3.3.3 Role of APRM in agricultural development

To examine the role that APRM plays in improving the agricultural sector, a preliminary analysis of the CRR of Ghana, Kenya and Rwanda (AU / NEPAD / APRM 2005a; AU / NEPAD / APRM 2006; AU / NEPAD / APRM 2005b) was carried out by Kückelhaus / Wolz / Brüntrup (2007).

The result of the analysis shows that the APRM-CRR did not deal specifically with individual sectors such as agriculture. However, many agricultural issues are embedded in the four thematic governance areas.

The most prominent issue concerning agriculture in the three CRRs was the land issue. All three countries have found that the land issue was a very critical topic and needs to be addressed very carefully. However, each country has planned a different approach to tackle the issue. For example, Ghana proposes a *Land Use Master Plan* with a comprehensive *Land Law*, which could provide easy access to land in traditional as well as in modern land tenure systems. The *Land Law* could help to: improve access to land for vulnerable groups, implement land policy, resolve disputes among chiefdoms, and enhance the responsiveness of chieftaincy to rapidly changing social needs. Kenya proposes to develop and implement a coherent land policy by: addressing land ownership, land use, land tenure and land administration, whereas Rwanda proposes to decentralise the land registry to the district level. Despite the recommendation given in the area of public land use, none of the three countries has given a clear statement on land use for private investment. With the growing size of the population and a need for more land for private agricultural investment, this issue is becoming very important.

Beside the land issues mentioned above, the three CRRs deal also with other agricultural and rural development themes. These themes are spread across all the reports. The sections below describe the measures that each country has planned in this regard:

- In the Rwanda's PoA, little explicit attention has been given to agriculture. The only clear statement related to agriculture and rural development is a plan to construct communal granaries in all districts and to build more technical schools for rural development.
- In Kenya, the agricultural sector is explicitly highlighted as a very important sector for reducing poverty and sustaining economic growth. In the thematic area *Economic Governance and Management*, it is therefore recommended that the agricultural programme, referred to as the *Strategy for Revitalisation of Agriculture*, be implemented. The programme includes a new agricultural extension policy and livestock development programme for arid and semi-arid lands. In addition, the programme proposes to strengthen fisheries, forestry, mining and to protect the environment, natural resources and wildlife. In the thematic area *Corporate Governance*, mention is made of the improvement of only 500 km of transport infrastructure for better access to rural areas. In the thematic area *Socio-Economic Development*, the objective of the PoA is to improve communication programmes of the Ministry of Agriculture, to provide regular market information to farmers and to increase lands under irrigation and flood mitigation.
- In Ghana's PoA, agriculture and rural development are mentioned in the thematic area *Socio-Economic Development* as a strategy for poverty reduction. There are plans to: (a) increase the savings rate in order to raise investment in agriculture and other

sectors directly related to poverty reduction, (b) enhance agricultural productivity, especially through extension of small-scale irrigation, crop production technologies and promotion of inter-firm linkages, (c) promote agro-marketing and processing, improvements in storage and marketing facilities, (d) complete land administration reform and provide better access to land, especially for women, (e) extend water supply to rural and urban areas, (f) improve the rural finance system and improve access to credit for women, (g) improve access to land, increase irrigation and improve land tenure.

Although Ghana and Kenya consider agriculture and rural development as a backbone for poverty reduction and economic development for their countries, very little space has been given to agriculture in their CRR and PoA. Accordingly, the budget allocated for agricultural sector development is very low in both countries (AU / NEPAD / APRM 2005a; AU / NEPAD / APRM 2006). It is remarkable that Rwanda's PoA gives little attention to agriculture compared to Ghana and Kenya, although the sector is much more dominant there. This can be interpreted as a weak point in the APRM process in Rwanda. But even in Ghana and Kenya, the space explicitly devoted to agriculture is very small.

Beside these three reports, there are three other reports that were not evaluated by Kückelhaus / Wolz / Brüntrup (2007). These are the CRRs of Algeria, South Africa and Uganda. However, the two first CRRs mention only land. There are no issues bearing on agriculture per se. However, in the Ugandan CRR the issue of agriculture is discussed broadly.

3.3.4 Conceptual challenges of APRM

This section highlights the most important conceptual challenges of APRM. Since APRM has already been implemented in several countries, some indications on the manifestation of these challenges are already available (see Kückelhaus / Wolz / Brüntrup 2007).

- The country review agendas contain recommendations on how to overcome weaknesses. Therefore, the APRM process could push countries to adopt reforms. However, in reality this is not the case. The catalogue of actions foreseen for the case of unsatisfactory performance on the PoA is too vague to put sufficient pressure on a country to change its attitude. Neither does APRM penalise a country for an unfavourable review nor does it provide credible incentives (except uncertain donor funding) to adopt the recommendations of the review or take steps to avoid an unfavourable review.
- Another unresolved issue is the relation between the APRM's PoA and other strategic plans of national importance, notably the PRSPs. These have become the guidelines for donor interventions and, presumably, for actions of governments. While the domains of APRM and PRSP broadly overlap, they are not identical, PRSP having as its main focus poverty reduction, and they may neglect political governance and overall economic growth (at least in first generation PRSP), whereas APRM has a unique focus on political governance issues. It is unclear how the strategies and plans should be brought together, how priorities are derived and what alignment of donors means if several strategies exist. This is all the more important as many activities of the PoAs bear important costs which countries are not able or do not expect to have to finance from own budgets.

- The very broad categories of the APRM bear the risk of overstressing the meaning of governance and the capacities of African governments and consultative groups to carry out a thorough assessment, all the more since the APRM is not only supposed to name problems but also to indicate solutions (in the PoA). Particularly the substantive areas “socio-economic development”, “economic governance and management”, and to a lesser extent “corporate governance” tend to become very large topics which not only require specific expertise but also touch upon fundamentally unresolved and disputed questions (role of the state overall and in different sectors, judiciary arrangements, etc.). Over-ambition entails the risk of making APRM too unspecific and toothless in many individual policy areas, a conceptual risk that will be encountered in the specific area of agriculture.

3.4 Assessment of CAADP and APRM initiatives

After giving an overview on CAADP and APRM, this section will assess the CAADP and APRM initiatives.

3.4.1 Interlinkages and relevance of CAADP and APRM for agricultural policy

As mentioned in the introduction, CAADP and APRM are the most important NEPAD initiatives concerning agricultural policies and institutions in SSA. The objective of CAADP is to accelerate agricultural sector development, with the APRM expected to strengthen governance at the national level. Good governance is also important for national agricultural policy implementation. On the one hand, CAADP implementation at the national level needs a solid and functioning governance and institutional framework; on the other hand, APRM needs information on challenges facing the agricultural sector in order to formulate relevant strategies and PoA for the agricultural sector. Therefore, these two initiatives are complementary, and their implementation should take this complementarity into account.

CAADP and APRM were formulated at the continental level, to be implemented at the national level (see Figure 3-1). But the way the initiatives are implemented at the national level differs from country to country. The CAADP policy process has a three-tiered dimension (continental, regional and national), whereas APRM has a two-tiered dimension (continental and national). The implementation of the CAADP common framework has to be initiated at the REC level and thereafter in each country, where it has to lead to the development of country strategies and investment programmes. In contrast to CAADP, the framework for APRM and the basic documents are formulated at the continental level but have to be implemented directly at the national level. The main goal of the implementation of CAADP at regional level is to provide each given region with a single and unifying framework. The specific objectives are: (a) preservation of ownership and leadership of the CAADP implementation process by RECs, (b) identification of regional priorities, (c) establishment of coordination and governance mechanisms at the regional level, and (d) building the capacities of RECs to coordinate the implementation CAADP process (AU / NEPAD Secretariat 2004; NEPAD 2005; NEPAD 2007c).

Since an important part of the macro-economic framework for agriculture has already been set or will be set in the near future at regional level through common trade policies

and the ambitions of regional integration policies to create common markets, there is a good justification for the regional approach of CAADP. However, these objectives appear far to reach in COMESA region than in ECOWAS region. This is due to the fact that the common agriculture and trade policy in the COMESA region is not as well developed as in the ECOWAS region.

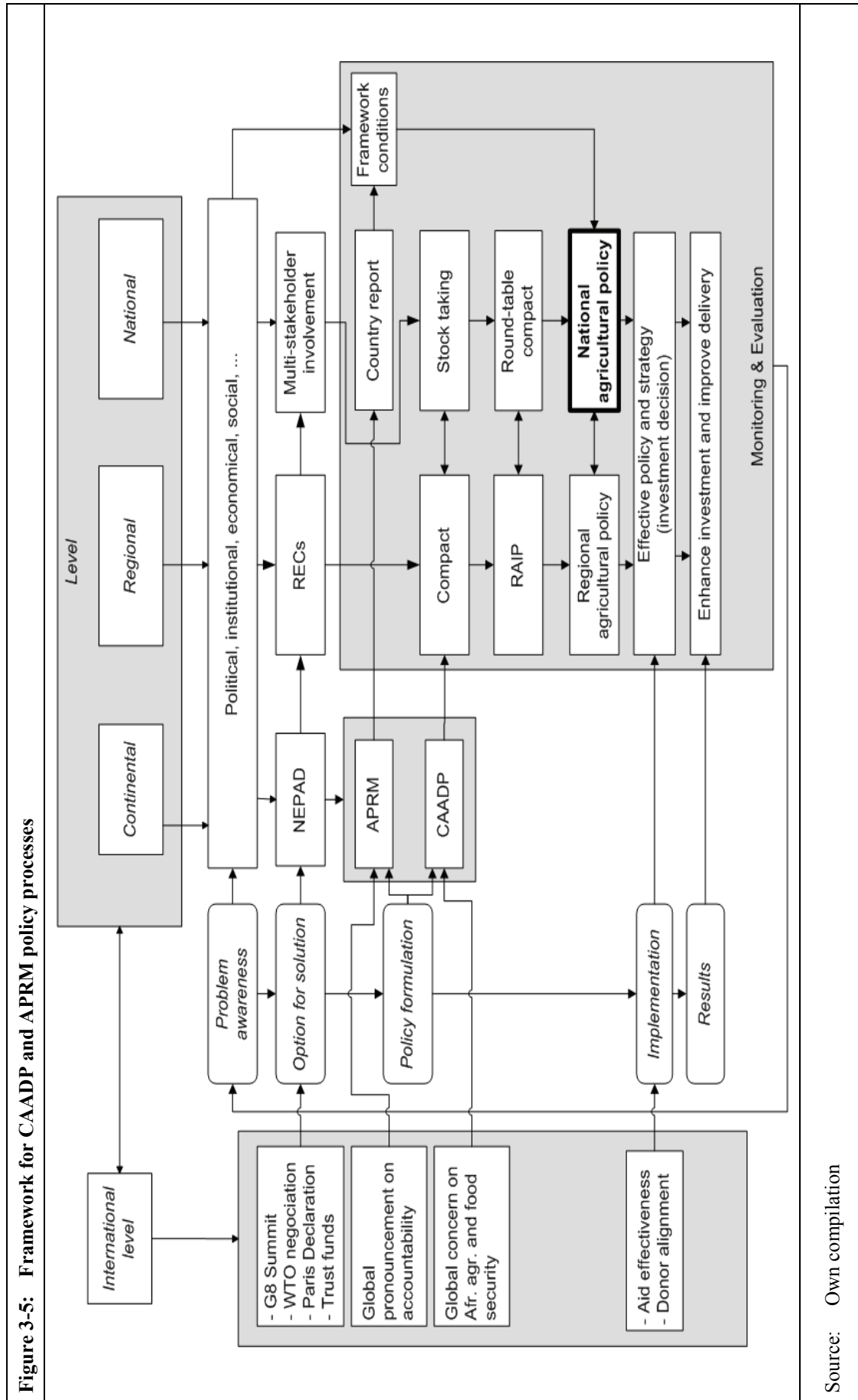
Although the two initiatives seem to be complementary, the linkage between them is not visible for many reasons (see Figure 3–5). Conceptually, the link between CAADP and APRM is missing. The two processes have been launched differently – APRM on a selective basis and CAADP (theoretically at least) for all countries; both processes may or not be implemented in a given country – and there are no plans to monitor whether they are combined; while APRM has received more attention (with wide coverage in the print and electronic media), CAADP launches have tended to be very silent. The stakeholders leading the CAADP process are not the same as those involved in APRM. Consequently, the interaction between these two groups of stakeholders may prove to be difficult and complex. This argument will be analysed in the empirical study.

3.4.2 Participation and ownership

After presenting the interlinkages and relevance of CAADP and APRM for agricultural policy in the previous section, this section will deal with participation and ownership, since these two terms represent the most important principles of NEPAD.

Participation in a development context means people acting in groups to influence the direction and outcome of development programmes that affect them (Paul 1987). It involves mutual adjustment and orientation of behaviour among participants, not one doing what the other wants (Leaf 1988). It involves sharing of information, negotiation, owning or having some rights over processes (Picciotto 1995). Participation may be viewed as the process that leads to ownership as the outcome.

APRM and CAADP are approved by HSG, so they are fully owned by African countries: Understanding these policy processes is crucial to ensuring the effectiveness of CAADP and APRM. Despite the high level of commitment on the part of Africa's leaders, it cannot be assumed that national machineries for policy reform and implementation in each country will automatically snap into gear. This assumption is indeed based on simplified ideas of policy processes and neglects the "arena" character of national policy making. In the emerging democracies of Africa, the top brass may not yet have the authority to speak for other important domestic groups, such as parliamentarians or the private sector; the interests of many of the key players (or change agents) may not be yet aligned with the APRM and CAADP initiatives. The reason could be the following: lack of alignment possibly, or lack of information, or wrong perception, or indeed differences in interests. Further, as with any political reform, there will be winners and losers; successful implementation requires understanding and managing these economic and political interests. Finally, policy reformers face very real institutional and financial constraints that can stall or block the greatest of plans.



Source: Own compilation

4 Conclusions and recommendations

CAADP and APRM have a potential to bring fundamental qualitative changes in the way policies are made in member countries. Some of the key values and principles that are expected to add value to country processes by changing the quality of policy development and implementation are the building of partnerships, dialogue, peer review and mutual accountability at all levels, and exploitation of regional complementarities.

However, the implementation of both initiatives is weak to date. With regard to CAADP, Rwanda is, until now, the only member country to have conducted the CAADP Roundtable since the CAADP framework was endorsed in 2003. Concerning APRM, some other countries have gone through the initial cycle, but far fewer than initially scheduled.

Without further knowledge of the implementation processes at the national levels, the low levels of implementation cannot be easily explained – this is subject of the main empirical part of the study in which this paper is embedded. However, based on the above description and analysis of the two initiatives, some weak points in the design can be highlighted, and some hypothesis about problems formulated.

For APRM and CAADP alike, the following conclusions can be made:

- Communication and transparency are extremely important to keep together all loose ends and show value added.
- Monitoring and evaluation have to be established.

For APRM, the following conclusions can be drawn:

A comprehensive coverage of governance issues in agriculture is very difficult to achieve, since there are many specific sub-sectors, many stakeholders, and complex issues involved. Considerable in-depth analysis is needed to make governance recommendations in the sector worthwhile for agricultural stakeholders to consider, accept, and promote.

Even more than CAADP, transparency and good governance of the process itself are key to the credibility of APRM.

Alignment and coordination with national policy processes is a real challenge, since APRM addresses not only individual sectors (and therefore sector policy cycles) but almost all policy areas.

For CAADP, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The RECs, which are amended to implement CAADP at the regional level as well as at the national level, face a heavy demand for institutional, human and financial services that can easily exceed their capacities. If they are not substantially supported by member states or donors, they can be expected to face difficulties in complying with this burden.
- For NEPAD headquarter, the capacity demands are substantial in an initial phase for investments in pillar work and networking with RECs and national governments. Once these fundamentals are established, CAADP can concentrate on monitoring continental progress, relying on the work of RECs.

- Some of the content work of CAADP to which member states are assumed to align has not been elaborated as it should be to serve as a guideline. It is only recently that the conceptual work in CAADP programmatic papers, particularly the pillar framework, has seen real progress. The pillar institutions are not yet ready to assist countries in doing their homework.
- Although climate change, and HIV/AIDS belong to the important factors hampering food productivity in Africa, these issues have not been mentioned in CAADP framework.

Policy recommendations

- CAADP and APRM policy processes have to be linked to each other in order to improve the policy making processes at the national level as well as at the regional level.
- Governance issues need to be addressed much more forcefully in CAADP itself. A “pillar” organisation (perhaps a unit within NEPAD) that can assist countries with institutional analysis would be useful. While it may be argued that all matters relating to state capacity would be dealt with under APRM, state capacity may be the major limitation in the agricultural sector.
- Combination of selected elements of APRM and CAADP may be designed to include 1) an initial assessment or stocktaking, 2) initial roundtable, 3) initial investments and supportive developments, and 4) annual review roundtables.
- Wherever feasible, the countries may be required, in a manner similar to APRM, to set up structures for implementation that would provide leadership not only to agricultural ministries but also to various other ministries, including the finance ministry, as well as to civil society and the private sector. The structures may be set up in such a way that the implementation process includes the systematic building of a network of stakeholders. One key objective would be to provide farmers an opportunity to organise and galvanize around the CAADP commitments that their countries have made.
- The pressure to hold roundtables quickly should be reduced. AU/NEPAD, the RECs, and development partners have latched on to completion of the roundtable and compact as indicators of CAADP progress. However, much more important is whether CAADP is truly adding value to national and regional agricultural development. The quality of the process should be a more important indicator than simply completing the steps of the process superficially.
- The appropriate level of alignment is with general policy processes. Sector and sub-sector processes, which are often dependent on larger national processes and therefore come much later, need to be informed very specifically by the central APRM bodies or by sector bodies which are very well aware of APRM and which have enjoyed full participation and the feeling that their concerns have been fully taken into account.

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Annex

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2000			
21–25 Feb 2000	FAO 21 st Regional Conference for Africa, Yaounde, Cameroon		Progress Report on the Common African Agricultural Programme (CAAP)
2001			
20–21 Apr 2001	1st Extraordinary Session of the Conference of African Ministers of Agriculture, Lome, Togo		Report of the First Extraordinary Session of the Conference of African Ministers of Agriculture, Lome, Togo
5–8 Jul 2001	74th Ordinary Session of the OAU Council of Ministers/Ninth Ordinary Session of the AEC, Lusaka, Zambia	Calls for a meeting of the Committee on Rural Economy to develop a Common Market programme for basic food commodities and a food security programme. Requests FAO assistance for food security programme and strategy implementation.	Decision on the Report of the First Extraordinary Session of the Conference of African Ministers of Agriculture, Lome, Togo
11 Jul 2001	37th Ordinary Session of the OAU Assembly, Lusaka, Zambia	OAU adopts NEPAD	
Dec 2001	Brainstorming Workshop on agriculture and water organised by FAO, Rome, Italy	For the 15 member countries of the NEPAD Implementation Committee, to discuss investments needed in land and water improvement	
2002			
Jan 2002	Work-in-progress Workshop, Benoni, South Africa	Convened by the NEPAD Steering Committee to identify next steps for all NEPAD priority sectors, including agriculture.	

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2002 (cont.)			
4–8 Feb 2002	FAO 22nd Regional Conference for Africa, Cairo, Egypt	Discussed support for NEPAD and the need for greater investment in the agricultural sector	FAO Support to ‘The New Partnership for Africa’s Development’: Land and Water Resources Issues and Agricultural Development
26 Mar 2002	2nd meeting of NEPAD HSGIC, Abuja, Nigeria	Potential CAADP themes presented by Director General of FAO	Communiqué Issued at the End of the 2nd Meeting of the HSGIC of NEPAD
14–17 May 2002	NEPAD Steering Committee Meeting, Maputo, Mozambique	Presentation of CAADP draft	
9 Jun 2002	Follow-up meeting to the FAO Regional conference, Rome, Italy	Ministers of Agriculture endorse CAADP	NEPAD (2003): The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Programme, Midrand, South Africa: NEPAD (see Annex 1) FAO (2002): Report of the 22nd FAO Regional Conference for Africa Follow-Up Meeting
11 Jun 2002	3rd meeting of NEPAD HSGIC (timed to coincide with the World Food Summit), Rome, Italy	Director-General of FAO gave welcome speech. Presentation on implementation plans for priority sectors, including agriculture	Communiqué Issued at the End of the 3rd Meeting of the HSGIC of NEPAD
13–22 Nov 2002	Joint ADB/FAO meeting of experts, Accra, Ghana	To draft a document on the role of RECs and REOs in the implementation of CAADP, in preparation for the high-level meeting in Abuja in December	
11–12 Dec 2002	High-level meeting with the Chairman of the NEPAD Steering Committee, the President of the ADB, and the Director-General of FAO, Abuja, Nigeria	To discuss the role of RECs and REOs in the implementation of CAADP, adopt Abuja declaration	Declaration of the Heads of State and Government Chairpersons of Regional Economic Communities on the NEPAD Vision for Agricultural Development and Food Security in Africa, Abuja, Nigeria, 12 Dec 2002

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2003			
1–2 Jul 2003	1st Conference of Ministers of Agriculture of the AU, Maputo, Mozambique	Discuss CAADP plan of action and draft Maputo Declaration	A Brief Presentation of the Process of Converting the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) to Implementable Plans of Action at National and Regional Levels
10–12 Jul 2003	2nd Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the AU, Maputo, Mozambique	Approval of CAADP and adoption of Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa	AU (2003): Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa
Sep 2003	Meeting of Ministers for Agriculture of the NEPAD Implementation Committee, Rome, Italy	Agreed that the FAO should help develop National Medium-Term Investment Programmes (NMTIPs) and Bankable Investment Project Profiles (BIPPs)	
5–6 Dec 2003	Meeting of Ministers, Rome, Italy	Discuss Maputo follow-up and CAADP implementation issues	
2004			
12 Feb 2004	Meeting of Ministers on Agriculture and Water, Sirte, Libya	Pre-Assembly meeting	Draft Sirte Declaration on the Challenges of Implementing Integrated and Sustainable Development on Agriculture and Water in Africa
27–28 Feb 2004	2nd Extraordinary Session of the Assembly of the AU, Sirte, Libya	Adopts the Sirte Declaration	Sirte Declaration on the Challenges of Implementing Integrated and Sustainable Development on Agriculture and Water in Africa

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2004 (cont.)			
1–5 Mar 2004	FAO 23rd Regional Conference for Africa, Johannesburg, South Africa		Implementation of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) of NEPAD – Progress Review
5–6 Oct 2004	3rd Africa Partnership Forum Meeting, Washington, DC	NEPAD Secretariat presented “Roadmap” CAADP implementation document	NEPAD Secretariat (2004): Implementing the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme and Restoring Food Security in Africa, prepared for the APF Meeting, Midrand, South Africa NEPAD Secretariat (2005): Implementing the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme and Restoring Food Security in Africa: The Roadmap, Midrand, South Africa
2005			
25–28 Jan 2005	East and Central Africa, Regional Implementation Planning (RIP) Meeting, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.	COMESA	NEPAD Secretariat (2005): Implementing the CAADP Agenda through RECs and Member Countries: Organisation of Regional Implementation Planning Meetings, Midrand, South Africa
15–18 Feb 2005	Southern Africa RIP Meeting in Maputo, Mozambique	SADC	
15–18 Mar 2005	West Africa RIP meeting in Bamako, Mali	ECOWAS, the Conference of Agricultural Ministers of West and Central Africa (CMAWCA), and CORAF	

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2005 (cont.)			
4–5 Apr 2005	Central Africa RIP meeting in Libreville, Gabon	ECCAS	
9–10 Apr 2005	4th Meeting of the OECD Africa Partnership Forum (APF), Abuja, Nigeria	NEPAD presented progress on CAADP – RIP meetings, donor alignment and funding	NEPAD Secretariat (2005): NEPAD Progress Report for the 4th Meeting of the African Partnership Forum in Abuja, Nigeria, 9–10 Apr 2005
12–13 Apr 2005	North Africa RIP meeting in Cairo, Egypt	AMU/UMA	
5–6 May 2005	High level wrap up meeting, Accra, Ghana	To review the outcomes of the five regional implementation planning (RIP) meetings. Chaired by President Kufuor	AU (2005): Statement of the Heads of State and Government in Support of the Outcomes of the High Level Meeting on the Implementation of the CAADP Agenda NEPAD Secretariat (2005): Implementing the CAADP Agenda: Future Challenges and Responses, Post-Accra Concept Note, Midrand, South Africa
12–13 Sep 2005	Consultative workshop, Johannesburg, South Africa	To endorse Questionnaire and Guidance Note for the Agriculture Expenditure Tracking System (AETS). Representatives of ministries of both finance and agriculture from selected countries.	NEPAD Secretariat (2005): Guidance Note for Agriculture Expenditure Tracking System in African Countries AU and NEPAD (2005): Agriculture Expenditure Tracking Questionnaire

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2005 (cont.)			
24–25 Oct 2005	Implementation Retreat, Pretoria, South Africa	Representatives of RECs, the AU Commission, NEPAD, and bilateral/multilateral development agencies discussed country-level CAADP implementation process	NEPAD Secretariat (2005): Communiqué: Retreat on Post Accra Action Plan to Advance the Implementation of the CAADP Agenda at Regional and Country Levels NEPAD Secretariat (2005): CAADP Country Level Implementation Process Concept Note, Midrand, South Africa.
15–16 Dec 2005	Experts' Workshop on Agriculture Expenditure Tracking System (AETS), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	To discuss the questionnaires and data collection methodology	AU (2005): Report of the Experts' Workshop on Agriculture Expenditure Tracking System
2006			
30 Jan–3 Feb 2006	24th FAO Regional Conference for Africa, Bamako, Mali		
31 Jan–1 Feb 2006	1st AU Conference of Ministers of Agriculture, Bamako, Mali	To discuss integrated implementation plan for CAADP-Sirte 2004–2015	AU (2006): CAADP-Sirte Implementation
18 May 2006	Parliamentarians' Conference on CAADP, Somerset West, South Africa	To discuss CAADP and Parliamentary support	2006: The Cape Town Proclamation: Parliamentarians' Recommendations Supporting CAADP Goals in Championing Agricultural Successes for Africa's Future
13 Jun 2006	Africa Fertilizer Summit/ AU Special Summit of the Heads of State and Government, Abuja, Nigeria	To discuss the need and methods for increasing fertiliser use to achieve a green revolution	Abuja Declaration on Fertilizer for the African Green Revolution

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2006 (cont.)			
28–29 Sep 2006	1st CAADP Partnership Platform Meeting, Johannesburg (Midrand), South Africa		AU and NEPAD (2006): CAADP Partnership Platform Meeting: Workshop Documentation
26–27 Oct 2006	7th APF Meeting, Moscow	Reviewed progress on CAADP	The Progress Report on Agriculture in Africa
7–10 Nov 2006	1st AU Commission, NEPAD and RECs meeting on CAADP, Midrand, South Africa		
15–16 Nov 2006	1st Donor Consultation Workshop on CAADP, Geneva, Switzerland	Convened by the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development – “Strengthening coordinated donor support for CAADP”	
Dec 2006	Food Security Summit, Abuja, Nigeria		The Abuja Declaration on Food Security
2007			
28–31 Mar 2007	CAADP Roundtable, Kigali, Rwanda		Rwanda CAADP Compact
26–27 Sep 2007	2nd AU Commission, NEPAD and RECs meeting on CAADP, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	Reviewed coordination and progress on CAADP	
27–28 Sep 2007	2nd CAADP Partnership Platform Meeting, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	Reviewed progress on CAADP	
3–4 Dec 2007	ReSAKSS/AU/NEPAD Workshop on Developing M&E Framework for CAADP, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia		

Annex 1: Timeline of continental CAADP related events (cont.)			
Date	Event	Purpose / Results	Related documents
2008			
9–10 Feb 2008	AU-NEPAD Interactive Learning Session on CAADP Country Roundtable Processes		
26–27 Feb 2008	4th Conference of AU Ministers of Agriculture Member State Expert's Meeting, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia		AU (2008): Plan of Action for the Abuja Declaration on Food Security AU (2008): Progress Report on Implementing CAADP-Sirte: Agricultural Growth, Poverty Reduction and Food Security in Africa
19–20 Mar 2008	3rd CAADP Partnership Platform Meeting, Victoria, Seychelles		AU and NEPAD (2008): 3rd CAADP Partnership Platform Action Plan
16–20 June 2008	25th FAO Regional Conference for Africa, Nairobi, Kenya		
29 Sept–3 Oct 2008	12th Africa Forum, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	Theme: 'Making Agribusiness Work for Rural Livelihoods', with a sub-theme focusing on 'Support to CAADP Implementation at Country Level'. Hosted by Ethiopia's Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, and co-organised by GTZ SNRD and CAADP	
Oct 2008	High-level 5 year review meeting on CAADP progress, Maputo, Mozambique		

