

**SECTOR-WIDE APPROACHES IN AGRICULTURE AND
RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**PHASE I
A DESK REVIEW OF EXPERIENCE, ISSUES AND
CHALLENGES**

APRIL 2006

Alison Evans, Lidia Cabral and Dan Vadnjal¹

**Supported by the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development
(GDPRD)**

¹ The authors are from the Institute for Development Studies, Overseas Development Institute and the Investment Centre of the Food and Agricultural Organization respectively.

Contents

1. Introduction.....	3
2. Sector approaches – definitions and overview	5
2.1 What defines a SWAp?	12
2.2 Generic SWAp experiences – progress and challenges	12
3. SWApS in agriculture and rural development – context and experience	12
3.1 The context of A&RD governance.....	13
3.2 Aid and public spending in A&RD	14
3.3 A&RD and wider policy processes	16
3.4 Diversity in practice.....	16
4. Emerging issues and challenges	21
4.2 Aid management – efficiency and effectiveness	22
4.2 Policymaking and planning – coordination, coherence and accountability at central and local levels	22
4.3 Institutional capacity – roles, structures and incentives.....	23
4.4 Improved expenditure and equitable service delivery	24
4.4 Public-private interface - strengthening private sector participation	25
5. A conceptual framework and next steps.....	27
5.1 Conceptual Framework	27
5.2 Country SWAp selection.....	28
5.3 Method and Approach.....	30
Annex 1: Summary of A&RD SWApS (work in progress).....	32
References.....	37

1. Introduction

The last decade has witnessed a transformation in the architecture of international development assistance driven by commitment to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the introduction of country-led Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSs) and efforts to bring about increased alignment and harmonization of development assistance behind national development goals. During the period a variety of policy and aid approaches have been used in agriculture and rural development (A&RD) to accelerate progress towards more effective aid delivery and stronger results on the ground. The Sector-Wide Approach (SWAs) is one such approach.

SWAs were first developed in the early-to-mid 1990s as a response to lagging performance and rising transactions costs in the social sectors, particularly health and education (Harrold et al 1995). The vast majority of SWAs to date remain in these sectors. Ten years on, however, and SWAs in other sectors, including A&RD, are on the increase. With wide ranging changes in the policy, budgetary and public administration context of A&RD, and increasing attempts by donors and recipient governments to roll out harmonisation and alignment (H&A) initiatives, it is timely to review the lessons learned in the formulation and implementation of SWAs and SWAp-like initiatives.² With 2015 approaching, and many low income countries off-track to meet the MDGs, it is also important to examine what principles, approaches and instruments are proving most effective for maximising A&RD's contribution to sustained growth and poverty reduction.

The overall purpose of this study is to examine past, present and future roles of A&RD SWAs within the broader context of changes in development assistance. The specific objectives of this study are: (i) to establish whether, and in what ways, A&RD SWAs are delivering against their stated goals; and (ii) to identify critical lessons about the way in which development assistance currently supports the A&RD sector and what can be done differently to enhance the contribution of A&RD to long term growth and poverty reduction.

This study comprises three phases. Phase 1 is a desk review aimed at scoping out the global context for the move to SWAs in A&RD, reviewing lessons learned from the existing literature on the challenges SWAs are seeking to address and their performance record, and elaborating the preliminary conceptual framework with a view to guiding activities in the subsequent phases. This report documents the findings of Phase 1. In Sections 2 and 3 the focus is on the key principles underlying the evolution of the SWAp, and the context and experiences of implementing SWAs in general, and A&RD SWAs in particular. Section 4 focuses on a number of emerging issues and challenges relating to A&RD SWAs, Section 5 introduces a conceptual framework including SWAp country selection criteria and methodology for taking forward Phase 2 of the study.

Phase 2 will be a country studies phase aimed at examining in detail the challenges and opportunities of implementing SWAs in A&RD and to draw lessons from a number of country field and desk studies. The main output of this phase will be country study reports to be

² SWAp and SWAp-like initiatives (which cover a programming area that is not sectorally defined) are increasingly clustered under the expression 'Program-Based Approaches' (PBAs). See CIDA Primer on Program-Based Approaches August 2003.

completed by 31 July 2006. Phase 3 will be a synthesis phase aimed at summarising the main issues from the first and second phases focused on key aspects of the analytical framework and recommendations for development agencies, practitioners and policy makers. The main output of this phase will be a final synthesis report to be completed by 30 September 2006.

2. Definitions and overview of SWAp experiences

2.1 What defines a SWAp?

The emergence of the SWAp dates back to the mid-1990s when a group of like-minded bilateral donors, in cooperation with the World Bank, began working on a mechanism to counter the proliferation of donor projects and address the overuse of expatriate technical assistance, particularly in the social sectors. The broader context was an increasing focus on poverty reduction and recognition of the importance of the enabling environment in effective public service delivery namely good governance, public sector reform and broad-based participation (ECDPM 2002). SWAps were seen as a potential means to focus sector policy more directly on poverty reduction while ensuring participation of all relevant policy stakeholders and coordination of sector-wide contributions to improve sectoral performance and lower transactions costs associated with external financing.

The early literature on SWAps in the mid 1990s was mainly prescriptive in nature (Harrold et al. 1995) and contributed significantly to the shaping of the concept and to motivating donors and partners into exploring it further (Pavignani 2001). The literature of the early 2000s (Brown 2000, Foster et al 2000, Brown et al 2000, Foster et al 2001, Jones 2000) was more empirical, built on early practice across sectors and countries and more cautious about some of the ambitions of the early approach. From this latter literature emerges what is probably the most commonly accepted definition of a SWAp:

*“A SWAp is a **process** in which funding for the sector – whether internal or from donors – supports a single policy and expenditure programme, under government leadership, and adopting common approaches across the sector. It is generally accompanied by efforts to strengthen government procedures for disbursement and accountability” (ECDPM 2002, based on Foster et al. 2000).*

Drawing on this definition, it is widely accepted that a SWAp generally has four main objectives:

- To broaden ownership by partner Governments over decision making with respect to sector policy, strategy and spending;
- To improve coordination amongst all relevant policy stakeholders in the sector;
- To increase coherence between sectoral policy, spending and results by bringing the sector budget back into the centre of policy-making and unifying expenditure programming and management regardless of the sources of funding;
- To minimise transactions costs associated with the provision of external financing.

Since the mid 1990s, the landscape of sector approaches has somewhat shifted. In terms of regional and sector coverage, (Foster et al 2000) found that, in the first wave, SWAps were exclusive to highly aid dependent poor countries, largely in sub-Saharan Africa, and predominately in the health and education sectors. To an important extent this reflected one of the main starting points for SWAps which was as a response to the fragmentation of aid and consequent breakdown of budgetary and management structures in largely aid-dependent countries. Since the late 1990s, however, SWAps or SWAp-like approaches have been developed in a much wider range of countries, including some that are neither aid dependent (India) nor low income (Brazil, Mexico, Morocco, Poland). There has also been a gradual broadening out to include non-social sectors including agriculture (Mozambique, Uganda, Tanzania), rural development (Nicaragua), infrastructure (Poland, Mexico), HIV/AIDs (Malawi), water (Uganda, India) and public sector reform (Tanzania, Ethiopia). The financing modalities associated with

SWApS have also broadened ranging from individual projects to common funds and budget support. This contextual diversity under which the SWAp has developed gave rise to different ways of conceptualising it and often confusion in the use of terminology – Box 1 illustrates the variety of SWAp-related definitions in use.

Box 1: Working definitions of sector approaches and programmes

Definitions abound in the literature on SWApS but in recent years there appears to be broad acceptance of the following definitions.

A ***Sector Approach*** is a way of working together between government and development partners. The aim is to broaden government ownership over public sector policy and resource allocation decisions within a sector; to increase the coherence between policy, spending and results; and, to reduce transactions costs. It involves progressive development of a comprehensive and coherent sector policy and strategy; a unified public expenditure framework for local and external resources; and a common management, planning and reporting framework (EC 2003)

A ***Sector Programme*** often follows on from a sector approach and involves a number of key components:

- An approved sector policy document and overall strategy framework (e.g. PRS)
- A sector medium term expenditure framework and an annual budget
- A coordination process amongst the donors in the sector, led by government
- A performance monitoring system
- An effective funding mechanism
- An agreed process for moving towards harmonised systems
- A client consultation mechanism (OECD 2004)

A ***Sector Support Programme*** is the set of mechanisms by which donors provide support to the partner Government's sector programme. It is a specific time bound and costed set of actions and activities in support of a sector strategy. A SSP may involve/combine a number of different donor financing modalities (DFID 2006, EDCPM 2002): budget support – general or sectoral, common funds which fund all or part of a Sector Programme, individual projects or technical cooperation.

It is worth noting that one of the most common inaccuracies in the use of terminology results from defining the SWAp as an aid modality. Instead, a SWAp is a policy planning and management approach which can in reality be funded by a variety of financial aid instruments – Box 2 provides a description of different aid modalities. A SWAp should however, in the spirit of improved stakeholder coordination and coherence, pursue increasingly harmonised and aligned mechanisms for channelling and managing financial resources.

Box 2: Aid modalities

Aid modalities are the financial instruments used for channelling aid. There is a wide spectrum of alternative aid modalities ranging from financial transfers to the government with no conditions attached, through to very restricted forms of donor managed projects. Foster and Leavy (2001) distinguish different aid modalities according to: (i) the conditionalities attached to how the funds, i.e. the policy measures the government agrees to implement; (ii) earmarking, i.e. the limitations placed on what the aid must be spent on; and (iii) the disbursement channels and management procedures to use, i.e. how the funds are disbursed, accounted for and audited. The following aid modalities are amongst the most commonly used:

Balance of payment support – assistance is provided in support of a programme of policy reform measures, usually agreed by government with the IMF and the World Bank. This aid modality was particularly significant in the 1980s when it was used primarily to correct problems of debt sustainability, trade imbalances and exchange-rates over-valuation.

General budget support – assistance is provided in support to the government budget and can be used to increase spending, reduce borrowing or reduce taxes. Funding is disbursed into the government accounts and used and managed according to the national public financial management procedures.

Sectoral budget support – this modality is provided with sector conditions usually requiring agreement between government and donors on the sector's policy. Funds are hence earmarked to financing an agreed expenditure plan for the sector and disbursed and accounted for through government systems, sometimes with some additional sector specific reporting.

Sector earmarked support or basket funding – this modality is a variation to the above and is used when specific earmarking within the sector's programme and expenditure plan is required because the donor(s) limits aid to specific expenditure categories within the sector - Mozambique's donor basket funding for the acquisition of pharmaceuticals is an example of this modality.

Project aid – this modality provides a more specific earmarking of expenditures to a set of agreed activities. Project aid can use government or parallel (sometimes donor managed) project-specific financial management systems.

Most recently the terminology has been somewhat overtaken by the notion of Program-Based Approaches (PBAs) which, while a fairly straightforward extension of the concept of the SWAp, refers to a generic approach based on comprehensive and coordinated planning in a given sector, thematic area or under the aegis of a national poverty reduction strategy (PRS). According to the Canadian International Development Agency's (CIDA) primer on PBAs: "PBAs are intended to support locally owned programs of development, so the word 'program' in the expression refers to the program of a developing country or institution, which one or more donors have agreed to support...the program may be a PRS, a sector program or a thematic program or the program of a specific organisation such as a non-governmental organisation" (Laverge and Alba 2003). To some extent the concept of PBA offers a higher degree of institutional flexibility by focusing on a policy programme and objectives – which can be multi-sectoral, sectoral or sub-sectoral – rather than a bureaucratic institutional structure, i.e. the sector. In this respect it is worth noting that one of the frequently cited limitations of the SWAp is the fact that sector is equated to a public sector organisational structure (a sectoral ministry) which leaves little scope for collaboration from other public sector agencies whose areas of intervention are relevant to the sector. This problem is particularly relevant in A&RD where important services are provided not only by ministries of

agriculture (the sectoral ministry usually managing the SWAp) but also by other government agencies. We return to this issue in Sections 3 and 4.

In this study we use the original SWAp concept as reference, drawing directly on Foster et al (2000) definition and the four underlying objectives: ownership, coordination, coherence and reduced transactions costs. At the same time we understand that SWAps need to be seen as highly dynamic and constantly evolving. As such the boundary of what constitutes a SWAp or a SWAp-like initiative is subject to change and needs to be understood within the context in which it is being developed. We also note that understanding the contribution of SWAps depends less on how they are defined on paper and more on their underlying ‘model of change’.

2.2 Generic SWAp experiences – progress and challenges

Evaluations and reviews of experience with SWAps, particularly in the social and infrastructure sectors (Foster et al. 2000a, Foster et al. 2000b, Foster and Mackintosh-Walker 2001, ECDPM 2002, Pavignani 2001) point to a number of generic issues and lessons of relevance.

Amongst the most noticeable positive changes are the following:

(i) Improved policy dialogue between government and donors and between donors themselves

SWAps have proven fairly successful at providing a forum in which policy issues are discussed and problems can be reviewed jointly between government and donors. They have also helped increase the focus on a selected number of key sector priorities, most recently, helping to align national and sector priorities under the rubric of PRSs. There is further evidence of improved linkages between policy and implementation and improved links between government and donor funding within the context of a medium term budget framework (Foster et al. 2000).

(ii) Increased government leadership of the policy processes

There are also clear signs of growing government leadership both of the policy process and of aid management in several sectors (e.g. Ghana health, Ethiopia health, Uganda education, Cambodia land management (Box 2), Nicaragua rural development). Stakeholder consultations have been strengthened and frameworks established for donor coordination.

Box 3: Cambodia Land Management and Administration (LMAP) Sub-Sector Programme

LMAP dates back to the preparation of a Land Policy Framework in 2000 and the establishment of an inter-ministerial Land Council to improve the focus on land-related issues and provide a clearer framework for donor support. LMAP became effective in 2002 and was the first move toward a programme based approach in Cambodia. LMAP has five main components focusing on: land policy and regulation; institutional development; land registration; mechanisms for dispute resolution and land management. The main lessons to date from implementing LMAP are:

- The importance of leadership from government and amongst development partners
- The need to adopt a long term, results based approach in order to build public trust in the programme
- The importance of building core institutional capacity and not using parallel structures, and
- Getting the incentives right for public sector staff through performance based allowances

(iii) Harmonisation of donor procedures and alignment with public financial management systems

In specific cases, again most notably in health and education, common procedures have been adopted by donors for joint missions, monitoring and progress reporting. Some donors have begun to move towards budget support by pooling external resources and channelling them through the government financial management system to support the SWAp (e.g. the Health SWAp in Tanzania, the Agriculture SWAp in Mozambique, and the Education SWAp in Zambia).

(iv) Some progress in service delivery in specific sectors.

In terms of delivering strategic results the evidence on SWAps is less robust. Reviews of progress in health and education in Sub-Saharan Africa, where SWAps have predominated until recently, point to generalised improvements in education, and to a lesser extent, in health outcomes. Although difficult to attribute directly to the SWAps, these improvements are indicative of improvements in service utilisation which in turn reflect the combined effects of improved policies, increased resources and improved harmonisation and alignment in the sectors – all areas where SWAps are regarded as making a positive contribution (DfID 2005).

Yet, despite progress made a series of important challenges remain and indeed the track record of SWAps continues to be somewhat controversial. Some of the most significant issues to address include:

(i) Blueprint prescription irrespective of the context

SWAps are not always the most appropriate approach and the literature points to the importance of countries and donor groups paying attention to various priors or preconditions before moving towards a full SWAp. These include on the government side: a sound macroeconomic framework, the presence of a sector strategy and an annual expenditure framework, participation by key stakeholders in sector policy, and increasingly government-led donor coordination. And on the donor side: major donors should already be providing support within the sector strategy framework, commitment to moving towards common approaches for management and implementation, commitment to moving towards reliance on country financial and accounting systems. Pavignani (2001) writing on the Mozambican health sector notes “the rush to introduce SWAps has led to the blueprinting of them across countries and sectors, without paying adequate attention to context. Unsurprisingly the excessive expectations nurtured by SWAp promises have not been fulfilled and SWAp ‘fatigue’ is increasingly being reported”.

(ii) Institutional capacity constraints

Much of the mixed record of SWAps centres on problems of institutional capacity. While these problems pre-exist the SWAp, they are often compounded by the sheer complexity of the approach and the subsequent tendency to draw down on the support of a few key individuals rather than gaining broad-based support across relevant institutions. This places considerable pressure on a few actors to take forward the SWAp and negotiate difficult political and institutional relationships. As a result, SWAp preparation can at times seem interminable (both to those inside and outside of the process) and there is a serious danger of momentum and support being lost along the way. Pavignani and Hauck (2002) found in Mozambique that:

“The huge costs of implementing certain pooling schemes, particularly SWAps, have probably offset actual and even potential returns. The length of time needed to establish a SWAp...is often underestimated. For ... (the agricultural sector) ... it took ... more than seven years of negotiation to reach the implementation

phase, as well as an enormous amount of expertise and resources on both sides to manage the process”

(iii) Lack of incentives in the civil service

SWAp also mean new challenges in scope, procedures and the reform agenda which requires government officials working in new ways. In particular, moving to a sector approach requires more systemic working across and within institutions. Support for institutional capacity strengthening as part of SWAp has tended to focus on building skills and technical competencies (for example training extension agents in new agricultural technologies or health officials in participatory approaches) to cope with new tasks, but less on the underlying incentives shaping the size and shape of the public sector workforce. At the same time those very same incentives come under pressure from civil service reform processes that require individual ministries to radically rationalise and streamline their workforces in line with new standards and pay grades. The result is often a mismatch between support for capacity at the sector level and what is happening at a system-wide level and difficulties in working cross-sectorally or forging close working relationships with key central ministries such as Ministries of Finance (Foster et al. 2000, Pavignani 2001, DfID 2005, World Bank 2000).

(iv) Tendency towards re-centralisation of policy processes

Whereas preparatory SWAp activities tend to take place at the central level, the focus of implementation almost inevitably moves to the periphery where implementation constraints and unforeseen events can often radically reshape the process originally envisioned during the planning phase. This can be a major source of frustration for SWAp designers and can undermine widespread acceptance of the approach and its potential value-added. This relates to the observation that SWAp often represent a re-centralisation of power and decision-making within national administrations, while capacity building at the local level is often overlooked. Centrally driven processes tend to encourage top-down planning that, often for efficiency reasons, circumvents local political processes (Shepherd 2001). The resulting danger is a dynamic in which SWAp and decentralisation processes end up pulling against one another precisely in those sectors where local government participation is so critical (ECDPM 2003).

(v) Disagreement over policy direction and role of the state

One of the main drivers behind the SWAp is the need to build coherence across the sector policy framework. Disagreements over key policy directions and ways of working nevertheless often persist as governments grapple with taking contentious policy decisions, such as an end to free universal health care or fertiliser subsidies (Foster et al 2001). The fact that SWAp are often at the centre of efforts to establish a new policy framework for the sector with, as is often the case, a reduced role for the state versus other sector actors, means that clarifying the government's policy direction is often one of the hardest things to achieve in the early phases of a SWAp.

(vi) Excessive focus on the SWAp process itself rather than on policy outcomes

A crucial consequence of disagreements and discontinuities in the way sector institutions are being encouraged to work is that donors tend to stay heavily involved in the detail of design, implementation and monitoring of the SWAp. Reviews of SWAp show that priority is often given to strengthening core management capacities of sector ministries in order to speed up the implementation of sector programmes and ensure good financial reporting; both necessary conditions for donor support (Foster et al 2000). Thus, what starts out as an initiative for improving government sector policy prioritisation, planning and resource management over the medium term can end up being dominated by the short term need of donors (and some ministry technocrats) for a better instrument for aid management. A key consequence is that SWAp have

often been slow to shift their focus from the processes of donor coordination towards the achievement of service improvement and poverty reduction.

(vii) Limited evidence on transaction costs reduction

The focus on aid management does not seem, however, to be associated with a reduction in donor-related transactions costs. A recent assessment of transactions costs in sector approaches in health and education in Zambia (Watt 2005) found that transactions costs had actually increased for ministries and donors. Expected improvements in recipient management systems have also been slow in coming, requiring extraordinary measures (sometimes in completely new areas) to keep the SWAp on track. This has increased the burden of work all round. Part of the reason is that problems of donor fragmentation persist. Despite the fact that the SWAp is intended to address weak or fragmented government capacity by moving towards a programmatic approach, some donors remain less than confident about transferring resources into the government account and therefore continue to provide project support on a bilateral basis or work through a complex mixture of programme and project support. While the literature increasingly focuses on the importance of some kind of joint financing arrangement for a SWAp, in practice many donors remain wedded to their own separate financing mechanisms. For country partner institutions this means that in a majority of cases they continue to be faced with a multiplicity of aid instruments and accompanying rules and procedures and a range of separate donor initiatives still lacking strategic direction and policy coherence (ECDPM 2003).

In summary, while there is tangible evidence of progress with SWAps, that progress has often been slow and has sometimes resulted in unintended consequences for the balance of power within and between government institutions and between government institutions and donors. Donor and recipient behaviours have been slower to change than initially expected. While SWAps have provided a vital forum for discussing and resolving some key policy differences (e.g. over user fees in primary education), disagreements continue to persist particularly in areas involving a reduction of state action. This appears to have been most evident in sectors where public-private roles are still evolving, as in health, agriculture and rural development. Slow progress in the preparatory phases has also kept donors heavily involved in the micro-management of SWAps with consequences for the extent of country commitment to the process and for transactions costs.

3. SWAps in agriculture and rural development – context and experience

The paper now turns its attention to the experience and prospective role for SWAps in A&RD. It examines the principles upon which sector approaches were developed in A&RD and how these have evolved in the light of changes in the global and sector context and key changes in the architecture of development assistance. The central question is whether SWAps have provided a useful framework for country partners and donors to manage increasingly complex institutional relationships in A&RD and what the implications are for ongoing efforts to improve development effectiveness in the sector over the coming years.

A current estimate of the total number of SWAps in A&RD is not available. The most recent estimate, dating back to 2002, puts the number at fifteen (compared with over ninety in the social sectors), each at various stages of decision making and implementation. Annex 1 summarises basic information that is currently in the public domain about each of these initiatives.³

Although still limited in number, the recent emphasis on donor H&A points towards an increase in coordination approaches to policy formulation and implementation to which SWAps are an obvious response. The history of A&RD SWAps points to a discernable evolution in approach. This began with agricultural sector investment programmes (ASIPs) in the early 1990s which were characterised by ex ante policy conditionalities and a primary focus on investment, to the early SWAps of the mid-to-late 1990s characterised by a partnership approach and a focus on sector policy dialogue (primarily with the Ministry of Agriculture) as well as investment. These, according to IFAD, paved the way for the more recent generation of sector approaches which go beyond the mandate of the Ministry of Agriculture to adopt a broader rural and inter-sectoral approach (IFAD 2005).

IFAD 2005 notes some features of the more recent A&RD SWAps:

- They are more outcome focused and driven by the requirements of their clients and other actors within the sector rather than by the existing configuration of organisations in the sector;
- They define the agricultural sector broadly to encompass a range of actors critical to agriculture-based livelihoods. Coordinating these actors, including the private sector is a key role for an A&RD SWAp;
- This approach places a premium on inter-sectoral coordination implying that it may not be suitable for a country with weak cross-sectoral mechanisms.

The background to these developments and the extent to which they provide an effective response to the challenges of agricultural and rural development can be seen from a review of the changing governance and investment context of A&RD and the influence of more systemic policy processes such as PRSs.

³ The Strategic Partnership with Africa's (SPA) latest tracking report on sector programmes in Africa covers just 3 SWAps in A&RD compared with 13 in education, 9 in health, 5 in transport, 4 in water and 2 in environment (SPA Secretariat 2005). The 3 sector programmes in agriculture are: Uganda PMA, Mozambique ProAgri and Tanzania ASDP. The Tracking exercise is carried out by the SPA Secretariat on behalf of the Sector Support Working Group of the SPA and is based on inputs from SPA members and partner countries. That there is not a current estimate of the number nor tracking of A&RD SWAps worldwide points to a gap that could be usefully filled by the GDPRD.

3.1 The context of A&RD governance

Over the last decades a series of important changes have occurred worldwide leading to a structural transformation in the modes of production and trade in A&RD and to new governance challenges. Some of these have generated significant pressure for the withdrawal of the state from direct engagement in economic affairs and prompted governance reforms and changes in the processes of interaction between governments, donors, the private sector and civil society. In the A&RD, the state has progressively withdrawn from direct intervention in production and marketing activities and sources of funding and budgets have been significantly reduced, not least because of the trimming of parastatal remits (Kydd and Dorward 2001; Dorward, Fan et al. 2004).

Within the context of these changes the important areas of state intervention and spending in A&RD are no longer the exclusive mandate of central Ministries of Agriculture. With state withdrawal from agricultural production and marketing, the key areas of public sector investment and service provision are now about rural infrastructure development (construction and maintenance of roads, transports, communications and irrigation), stabilising the economy (managing the exchange rate and maintaining fiscal discipline and low inflation), contract enforcement, and negotiating trade conditions with commercial partners (e.g. tariffs, bio-safety standards). At the same time power and resources are increasingly being devolved to lower levels of government as a way of increasing accountability and efficiency in service delivery. As a consequence, A&RD governance is a domain populated by an increasing number of actors in which central Ministries of Agriculture do not necessarily have a the lead role (Wiggins 2005). In this context, the coordination challenges in delivering, particularly pro-poor investment and services, are considerable.

But this structural transformation in A&RD governance has not been occurring without contestation or resistance. On their part, government agencies and Ministries of Agriculture in particular, have sought to resist reforms which would undermine their institutional structures and agency (not only internally but also in relation to other government agencies such as Ministries of Finance). The result so far has been a policy framework which lacks a clear sense of direction – this is illustrated by various policy statements which seem to be the product of a compromise between different and often conflicting views about development and the role of the state in the development process (Cabral and Scoones 2006).

The socio-economic characteristics of agricultural activity only add to the complexity of A&RD governance. The bulk of the activity in A&RD takes place within the private sector and this private sector is not a uniform domain but comprises a highly heterogeneous mix of players with different resources, interests and agency. Unlike other ‘pro-poor’ sectors, public expenditure is not the primary source of financing in A&RD. Likewise, A&RD production systems are extremely diverse, face many different constraints and thus require policy responses tailored to the specificities of the local agro-ecological context.

The need to create a forum for a coordinated multi-stakeholder interaction in policy formulation and implementation is precisely why governments and donors have looked to a sector approach. At the same time, however, the degree of contestation over the role of state institutions, the cross-sectoral nature of much A&RD support and the plurality of interests in the sector make it difficult to apply the SWAp concept in practice (Foster, Brown et al. 2000) (Bazeley 2005). These features lead many donors to argue that it is “... inappropriate to uncritically apply an institutional model developed for other sectors” (IFAD 2005).

3.2 Aid and public spending in A&RD

While the governance context has changed, the importance of agricultural investment to economic growth and poverty reduction in rural areas is well established (WorldBank 2005c); (DFID 2004b); (IFAD 2001). Empirical studies show a strong positive correlation between specific types of public spending in agriculture and economic growth and poverty reduction, particularly spending on research and rural infrastructure (Fan and Rao 2003). However, as a recent World Bank publication notes “despite strong connections ... international support to agriculture has declined sharply since the late 1980s” (WorldBank 2005c).

The global volume of official development assistance (ODA) to agriculture decreased by nearly two-thirds between 1980 and 2002 (from US\$ 6.2 billion to US\$2.3 billion), despite an increase of 65 percent in total ODA (DFID 2004). The share of ODA to agriculture fell from a peak of 17 percent in 1972 to 3.7 percent in 2002. In SSA, the reduction in aid to the agricultural sector was less dramatic but still sizeable – from US\$1.4 billion to US\$713 million (in 2002 prices) (DfID 2004d). Since 2002 there has been an upturn, but aid levels still remain below 1990 levels in real terms.

While ODA has declined the real value of public spending in agriculture has also declined. Data gaps make it difficult to present a fully up-to-date picture, but figures for the 1980s and 1990s show a 3 percent decline in the share of total government expenditures in agriculture across a sample of 43 developing countries (Fan and Rao 2003). When compared to developed country levels, agricultural spending as a share of agricultural GDP in developing countries is extremely low – on average, more than 20 percent in the former and less than 10 percent in the latter. Inter-country variation is also significant. In 1998 public spending as a share of total agricultural GDP was 45 percent in Botswana and 0.19 percent in Mali (DFID 2004c), while the size of the public budget for agriculture in Asia is greater than Africa and Latin America combined. Spending by type has also shifted with a reduction in support to agricultural inputs, services, education and research while spending on agricultural policy making and administrative support has increased. Recent calls by NEPAD to increase public spending in agriculture to 10 percent of country budgets reflect recognition of the weak public resource base available for agricultural development in much of SSA.

A key question is why is this happening and with what impact? Certainly the decline in aid and spending in the agricultural sector appears inconsistent with the proclaimed importance of agriculture to development (Bezemer and Healey 2006). Various explanations have been presented to explain the decline, including:

- Changes in the policy paradigm (as noted above);
- Increased competition for resources from other sectors. Some argue that the MDGs and PRSs have moved attention towards the social sectors and increasingly towards ‘rural services’, at a potential cost to the productive sectors. Bazeley (2005) and Eicher (2003) both argue that in an era of PRSs, agriculture and especially pro-poor agriculture is not really making it.⁴ In support of their claims recent work on PRSs and productive sectors finds that rural productive sectors have so far not made a significant impression on the policy content of PRSs. Instead PRSs tend to be biased towards public spending in critical public goods areas, while not yet providing an overarching framework for pro-poor growth (Cromwell, Lutterell et al 2005);

⁴ While acknowledging the importance of public spending in critical public good areas, Eicher (2003) argues that “rural social services cannot transform African agriculture.”

- The acknowledgement that many of the obstacles to agricultural growth need to be addressed outside the agricultural sector through such areas as energy and transport policy, infrastructure investment, tax regimes, international trade regulation;
- Changing aid modalities and the view amongst some that the new aid modalities not only focus less on agriculture (Eicher 2003) but also work less well in agriculture because of complexity and the risks involved;
- Loss of confidence in the sector due to poor performance of investments in agriculture. Several aid evaluations in the sector have produced unfavourable results with regards to cost effectiveness, impact and sustainability (DfID 2004c).

In a highly critical review paper of fifty years of international aid to African agriculture, Eicher (2003) argues that “after fifty years of experience, most donors remain confused about how to package, coordinate and deliver aid to accelerate agricultural and rural development in Africa.” He notes how different, and at times, conflicting traditions within the agricultural policy community have culminated in an overload of policy prescriptions and approaches that have not only often not worked but are, in some cases, in danger of being repeated. Eicher argues that in recent years the pendulum of professional opinion about what makes for effective aid has swung widely, including in agriculture. The result is that agriculture almost disappears in the transition from project to programme aid in the new aid framework:

“To summarize, the aid modality ‘overload’ is making it difficult for African policy makers and donors to develop a national agricultural strategy because agriculture virtually ‘disappears’ during the transition from project to sectoral and multi-sectoral programs and the addition of new aid modalities such as PRSPs, HIPCs and EHIPCs” (Eicher 2003).

Stagnating spend in agriculture has been noted as a major problem for growth and reaching the MDGs, but inadequate funding is not the only (nor necessarily the most binding) constraint facing A&RD. Poor management of available resources and the quality of expenditure is a major challenge. Much of the reason for lagging investment, particularly in A&RD in Africa, is the history of poor returns which are in turn linked to weak institutions (Jones and Stockbridge 2005). Longstanding problems of weak public financial management, combined with the size of off-budget flows in the sector are also a major concern. Rapid changes in the global context means new challenges for the spending and service delivery functions of A&RD institutions which arguably may not require more public funding but better and higher quality funding through partnerships with the private sector.

Nevertheless, Eicher’s concerns and others imply a policy and institutional context that is even more complex for building effective sector approaches in A&RD SWAps.

3.3 A&RD and wider policy processes

As the overarching policy framework for poverty reduction, the PRS provides the basis for agricultural and rural sector policy for poverty reduction. A key achievement of developing and implementing PRSs has been to trigger a focus on poverty and re-invigorate national planning processes with a link to the budget and implementation process.

There are, nevertheless, a number of challenges around the content and balance of PRSs, not least finding a suitable balance between direct pro-poor policies and policies aimed at stimulating and enabling productive sector growth as a basis for reduced income poverty (Shepherd, Fritz et al. 2005). In relation to agriculture specifically, Shepherd et al find that although PRSs widely recognise agriculture as a sector where growth is especially likely to lead to poverty reduction, the logic for focusing on agriculture is often not strong. In addition there is limited analysis of poverty dynamics – where and how public or enabled private investments contribute to opportunities for people to exit poverty in a sustained way. There is often only limited clarity on the best way of doing things, in particular what combination of direct (extension) and indirect measures (stimulating market demand) is needed to support and stimulate growth and future investment. And finally, PRSs tend to focus largely on supply-side interventions and delivery through the budget, whereas growth in the agricultural sector also requires good regulation and enabling actions (World Bank 2005b).

Donors argue that overall coherence between A&RD issues and PRSs have improved ((IFAD 2005; SPA 2005)). SPA tracking in 2005 notes specifically that alignment between sector approaches in A&RD and national PRSs is good or better in the three countries included in the sample. But others argue that while these linkages are firmly established in some contexts (Uganda), they are more tenuous in others (Tanzania) and a disconnect still remains on a range of difficult policy issues – rural finance, rural private sector development, risk and vulnerability and food security.

There is also some remaining doubt as to how far SWApS have in fact aligned sector support with the central modalities supporting PRSs, particularly the new forms of sector and general budget support, and how complementary they are with more systemic governance and public sector management reform processes. The latest SPA report on sector programmes in Africa points to the need to consolidate and deepen alignment between sector support programmes and national PRSs and budget support processes (SPA 2006).

Against this background the question inevitably arises of how far SWApS in A&RD are competing with or are complementary to these trends. In particular can SWApS in A&RD provide the kind of incentive and operational framework (which involves a coherent and comprehensive strategy supported by a prioritised medium term expenditure plan) needed to embrace this complex policy environment and build the necessary synergies between the different resource flows now entering into the sector?

3.4 Diversity in practice

As noted already, the SWAp sets out a path of change rather than a blueprint with pre-determined features. It is not surprising therefore that this path has taken alternative routes and progressed at a different pace depending on country, and sector policy and institutional conditions.

In A&RD the diversity of SWAp experience is characterised by differences in scope, supporting institutional structures and financing arrangements. Common is the attempt to derive a more comprehensive, coordinated and nationally owned policy framework for the sector capable of responding to wider policy changes including the introduction of PRS, the roll out of Public Financial Management (PFM) and civil service reforms, decentralisation, increased private sector participation and the shift towards budgetary support (Box 4).

Box 4: Agricultural Sector Programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa

The three agricultural ‘sector programmes’ identified in the 2005 SPA tracking report on sector approaches in SSA were noted as performing well in terms of alignment with the national PRS, but disconnects were also noted. In Tanzania, development partners commented that the current PRS (PRS 2) was designed after the sector programme was formulated and the link remains somewhat tenuous. In Mozambique, development partners proposed that the review scheduled for PROAGRI should be revised to contribute more directly to the PRS review process.

In terms of supporting the strengthening of PFM and relying on country systems only in the case of PROAGRI in Mozambique did development partners claim to be directly supporting reform programmes for building country partner systems for procurement and public financial management as part of the sector programme. This is compared to eighteen such cases in other sectors.

While project aid remains the dominant modality for supporting sector programmes, findings for 2005 point to a small decline in the share of project financing in favour of common basket support and sector budget support. This trend is matched in the agricultural sector where project aid constituted 34 percent of aid delivered through sector programmes (compared to 93 percent in environment and 97 percent in transport). Sector budget support constituted 24 percent of the total. Agriculture also boasts the largest share of aid going directly to non-governmental entities at 36 percent. However this data relates to only three agricultural sector programmes and cannot be taken as representative of trends in the A&RD sector globally.

Source: SPA (2005)

Ongoing efforts to align the A&RD policy approach with some of these wider policy processes are perhaps best illustrated in the case of three contrasting A&RD sector approaches in Africa. These are not representative ‘cases’ rather they serve to illustrate some of the different trajectories that sector approaches are on in the region and what are some of the outstanding challenges for governments and development partners.

In Mozambique, PROAGRI I which was originally launched in 1999 after a long preparatory phase in an attempt to create both a comprehensive policy approach and a common aid management approach aligned with national public financial management systems. The SWAp was introduced in response to a highly fragmented aid management and policy landscape populated by many different and often contradictory projects operating outside the budget and often unknown to the ministry. The development of a common funding mechanism (CFM) was therefore a crucial first step in phase one, including laying down common procedures for planning, budgeting, procurement, reporting and monitoring for all PROAGRI funding. Crucially the CFM is aligned with national public financial management procedures, although some donors maintain specific additional provisions within the PROAGRI framework. Along with the CFM, PROAGRI I focused heavily on improving planning and financial management systems within the agricultural sector at central and provincial levels and improving dialogue and coordination between government and donors and between donors themselves.

An evaluation of PROAGRI I carried out at the end of 2002 (Republic of Mozambique 2003) acknowledges PROAGRI's achievements in the above areas, but also noted a series of shortcomings including excessive focus on capacity building of central administration, limited participation of beneficiaries, weak inter-sectoral coordination, weak alignment with the Mozambique PRS and continued funding by donors outside of the programme's framework. PROAGRI, it was argued, had been more successful in improving management systems than in achieving better results on the ground (Republic of Mozambique 2003)

PROAGRI has now entered its second phase (as of 2005) and it is interesting to note its evolution from a narrow institutional capacity building approach centred around what was then the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MADER) to 'a framework for interventions' bringing together agriculture, infrastructure, financial services, health and education. PROAGRI II is looking to provide a much more simplified bureaucratic structure,⁵ stronger emphasis on inter-sectoral coordination and decentralised policy formulation and implementation. What remains to be seen is how this new approach finds translation on the ground.

Uganda's agricultural sector programme is a more recent innovation and is defined by the 2001 Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA). The PMA was initially led by the Ministry of Finance (unusual in the history of SWAs) and was intended to address agricultural growth and poverty reduction through a restructured sector governance framework. Possibly learning from early experiences such as PROAGRI, the PMA saw agricultural reform as a matter to be tackled by a range of different policy actors beyond the Ministry of Agriculture. Again unlike some of its predecessors, PMA emphasised decentralisation and empowerment of local communities as well as encouraging private sector provision of goods and services. In contrast with PROAGRI, PMA has a very strong connection with the national poverty reduction policy (PEAP) and has a strong focus on targeted service delivery for poorer subsistence farmers.

The PMA is financed through a combination of government, donor and NGO specific funds. Donor support to the sector comprises direct funding of projects, indirect financial support through general budget support (GBS) and earmarked support. Unlike PROAGRI there is no common financing mechanism specifically for PMA.

A recent evaluation of the PMA (OPM 2005) points to strong and genuine ownership by government of the programme; widespread adherence to the PMA objectives and principles across government; better dialogue between the donor community and government and strengthened donor coordination and harmonisation in the sector. However, roll out of the seven pillars prioritised for action under PMA has been very uneven with a potential loss of synergy between them and frustration for key stakeholders. Only NAADS, the National Agricultural Advisory Services pillar, appears to be having clear results on the ground (Box 5). Other problems reported include weak buy-in from line ministries other than Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF) which feel that the PMA is mainly a framework for agriculture which gives limited benefit to other ministries. The PMA is also seen as being too donor driven.

Although substantial progress has been made at the policy level under the PMA and sector priorities are fully aligned with the medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF), the PMA financing remains somewhat fragmented. This confirms the importance of integrating macro and sector level reforms as part of the sector approach.

⁵ The rural development functions of MADER have gone to the Ministry of Planning.

Box 5: Delivering results under the PMA

Limited baseline data makes it difficult to measure progress under the PMA. However a survey undertaken as part of the recent Evaluation provides some insight into what is being achieved on the ground. A selection of findings point to the relative success of the National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS) over some of the other elements of the PMA:

- In districts where either NAADS, NSCG (Non-Sectoral Conditional Grant) or AAMP (Area-based Agricultural Modernisation Programme) is present there is evidence of improved access to improved seeds, cuttings or improved livestock breeds;
- There is no pattern in the extent to which individuals received extension services. However, a high percentage of members of farmer groups received advisory services either from NAADS or NGOs;
- Almost all households surveyed felt that district roads had improved and a smaller percentage felt that community roads had also improved;
- NAADS farmer groups were 3 times more likely to have a demonstration site within 3 km of them and NAADS groups were 3 times more likely to believe access to agricultural technology had improved;
- Gross margin analysis undertaken by NAADS indicated positive returns to improved technologies while an IFPRI study showed participation in NAADS groups was associated with a 15 percent increase in the value of crop production per acre, mainly due to the promotion of higher value crops.

OPM 2005 Evaluation of PMA

Experience in Ghana provides perhaps the strongest contrast to the other two cases. Agricultural policy in Ghana is currently defined mainly by two policy documents: the Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP) and the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS). FASDEP is the agriculture sub-component of the GPRS, which provides the strategic framework to address agricultural growth and food security. Key areas of intervention include: human resource development and institutional capacity building, development and dissemination of appropriate technology, financial services, infrastructural development and access to markets. FASDEP implementing agencies include the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MoFA), the Ministry of Environment and Science (MES) and the Agriculture Research centres. Unlike the other two cases however, donor support to agriculture is provided through various mechanisms, only some of them with SWAp-like features.

Currently there are three such mechanisms claiming to have SWAp like features - the World Bank's Agricultural Services Sub-sector Investment Programme (AgSSIP), designed between 1998 and 2000 to operationalise the Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Development Strategy (AAGDS) MoFA's long-term social and economic development plan for agriculture; Food and Agricultural Budgetary Support (FABS) led by CIDA to provide budgetary support to MoFA for the implementation of FASDEP; and a DfID led Support to Agricultural Sector Harmonisation programme due to start in 2005/6 aimed at harmonising agricultural sector policy and improving its effectiveness through the revision of FASDEP, improved inter-ministerial coordination, improved policy coherence and institutional reform and donor harmonisation. A large part of this programme will be financed through on-budget sector budget support to be harmonised with the CIDA Food and Agriculture Budgetary Support (FABS) mechanism.

Though there have been several attempts, it seems that so far it has been hard to move forward to a joint donor support arrangement aligned at the sectoral level. The AgSSIP was designed as an agricultural sector programme but in practice has failed to put in practice many of its SWAp-like

features, namely alignment with national planning and budgeting processes and coordination and harmonisation between donor agencies. An example of the latter was the unilateral decision by the World Bank to take out from the programme the infrastructure and rural finance components following the 2000 AgSSIP appraisal (World Bank/OED, 2003). This is said to have created strong resentment among other donors and might have encouraged CIDA and DfID to embark on their own SWAp experiments. In the meantime, other donors hold on to their projects and parallel implementing structures and arrangements, carrying with them significant transactions costs. A critical question is whether there is still space for a truly joint donor supported agricultural SWAps and what steps Government of Ghana needs to take to assume greater leadership of the policy and aid management process?

4. Emerging issues and challenges

There are a number of emerging issues and challenges facing A&RD SWAp. The paper now focuses on what might be called the SWAp ‘*model of change*’. Each element defines an area or domain in which the SWAp is looking to bring about lasting change. Drawing on the literature the most important of these are:

- Improved aid management - H&A
- Improved policy coordination and implementation
- Stronger institutional capacity and government leadership
- Improved expenditure management and more equitable service delivery
- Enhanced public-private interface

By viewing the SWAp in this way we are able to compare experience thematically as well as focusing in on specific country contexts. We are also treating the SWAp as a dynamic process (by looking at trajectories of change) rather than as an agglomeration of essentially static inputs (e.g. strategy documents, annual expenditure frameworks, and monitoring and evaluation frameworks).

4.1 Aid management – efficiency and effectiveness

A SWAp is first and foremost an approach designed to overcome fragmentation and inefficiencies in the allocation and management of aid. Hence, the reduction in the costs of transactions has since its inception been one of the approach’s driving objectives. But to what extent have SWAps in A&RD been actually able to reduce transaction costs? And to what extent have governments, and particularly Ministries of Agriculture, been able to take effective leadership of aid management as part of the SWAp?

The assumption that donor harmonisation and alignment in resource planning and management under a SWAp or SWAp-like approach would automatically generate improvements in the efficiency and effectiveness of aid has never been challenged, nor fully demonstrated (Watt 2005). This is partly because there is very limited information available to assess and monitor performance in resource allocation and use.⁶ Yet, it is widely recognised that many of the countries implementing SWAps (if not all) have poorly performing planning and financial management systems and limited resource absorptive capacity, and that these constrain substantially public spending performance and hence service delivery. It has also been noted that far from relieving donor agencies from management functions the SWAp has added a range of unexpected and undesirable roles, increasing donor interference in national policy making (Pavignani 2001). As the experiences reviewed illustrate, the SWAp has introduced an additional burden to both government and donor agencies through the creation of special committees and other management structures and procedures, often operating in parallel to national systems and to the plethora of project-based arrangements which have kept on functioning – some donors have maintained a diversified portfolio of aid modalities or have not bought into the SWAp approach at all.

Hence, it is debatable whether the SWAp is contributing to the simplification and rationalisation in procedures and costs, or whether, instead, it is adding on to the complexity of public financial

⁶ Assessing the composition, efficiency and impact of public spending in agriculture (and indeed in other sectors) is made difficult by weak public expenditure management and accountability systems (DFID 2004c).

management systems, while not securing improvements in service delivery (See section 4.4 below). Furthermore, SWApS and other sector or sub-sector support mechanisms are viewed by many as second-best or even transitional solutions to the increasingly preferred practice of delivering general budget support (GBS). Flowing directly into the national financial management system, GBS ensures stronger alignment with national planning and budget processes and improves national ownership in the allocation and use of resources. The downside of GBS is that it potentially amplifies vulnerability to fiduciary risk (which is significant in poorly performing financial management systems) while distancing beneficiaries from the policy and decision making process. While GBS proponents argue that an improved fiscal connection between states and citizens could be one of the longer term outcomes of GBS, it is acknowledged that this may be one of the less tangible, less measurable aspects of GBS in the short to medium term. The risk that the policy distance between central government and citizens will grow under GBS is particularly worrying in A&RD which is less prone to standardised policy prescriptions and which, by its own nature, requires a closer interaction between the state and the diversity of private operators which constitute the bulk of the sector.

Emerging questions for Phase 2 include:

- To what extent have SWApS in A&RD identified clear and feasible mechanisms for increasing harmonisation and alignment and thus reducing transactions costs? How is success being defined in this area and what are some of the key elements of that success?
- To what extent have governments assumed effective leadership in the SWAp process? What have been some of the successful approaches to strengthening the capacities of national institutions to assume this leadership role?
- What are some of the implications of the growing trend towards GBS on the scope and format of a SWAp? Are there potential tensions between working at the sector level and working systemically to improve the quality of public expenditure and management for results across the whole of government?

4.2 Policymaking and planning – coordination, coherence and accountability at central and local levels

SWApS also aim at improving the coordination between different players operating in a sector and enhance policy coherence across policy making processes. The notion of a ‘wide’ approach indicates precisely the need for bringing together under the same policy framework, a wide range of players whose action impinges on the sector. The SWAp approach also puts significant emphasis on monitoring and evaluation systems to enhance the structures of democratic accountability. But how much policy coordination, coherence and accountability has the SWAp triggered?

In A&RD these principles, or objectives, are difficult to pursue. Policy coordination is made difficult by the existence of many different interests and agendas in a sector populated by a diversity of public and private sector operators. Policy coherence is challenged for the same reason with often multiple or inconsistent policy agendas. Also, as noted before, the specific characteristics of agricultural production systems make the sector less amenable to one-size-fits-all solutions, requiring instead tailored policy responses to the specificities of the local context. All these make policy coordination and coherence particularly challenging.

In practice, the challenges of coordination have meant that SWApS end up departing from the original ideal of a consolidated vision of the sector to one which over-identifies with the organisational structure of the Ministry of Agriculture. Hence, the SWAp tends to be shaped by

what the MoA *does* rather than by what the agricultural and rural sector *needs*; which inevitably goes well beyond services provided by MoA.

In terms of accountability, despite the recognition in the SWAp of the importance of effective monitoring and accountability systems, experience seems to point to little progress (IFAD 2005). Accountability tends to be directed almost exclusively upwards towards the donors supporting the SWAp (mainly through joint donor progress reviews), with very little being done about the interaction with national constituencies and local beneficiaries. An ECDPM study of SWAps and decentralisation found examples in Uganda and Tanzania of a contradiction between, on the one hand, enhancing service delivery through centrally managed sector programmes and, on the other hand, promoting a process of devolution which has as its aim the transfer of responsibilities (and accountabilities) away from central government to local government (ECDPM 2003). Getting the right balance between accountability at central and local levels is a major challenge for SWAp processes.

Emerging questions for Phase 2 include:

- Does the scope of the SWAp determine how issues of policy coherence and coordination are tackled? Is phasing a SWAp a good way to ensure increasing coherence and coordination over time?
- Where do A&RD SWAps feature in relation to other public sector planning and management instruments - PRSPs, national budgets and MTEFs? How can these linkages be strengthened to generate more sustained results?
- What accountability mechanisms are put in place to ensure the right balance in financing and implementation between central and local levels? What happens where sectoral spending is managed through parallel systems?

4.3 Institutional capacity – roles, structures and incentives

Conceptually, the sector wide approach introduced a significantly different approach to public sector management and the way in which ministries relate to one another and to non-state actors. Despite the ground-breaking impetus of the approach, in practice the underlying institutional framework (organisational structures, rules and procedures) has been slow to respond and adjust to the new challenges. Lack of incentives to reform and wide ranging capacity constraints are commonly offered as explanations for the slow pace of change.

It has also been noted that, despite their intentions at the outset, agricultural SWAps have ended-up concentrating heavily on the manner in which resources are channelled to the MoA to the exclusion of policy dialogue and cooperation with other sectoral ministries and agriculture stakeholders (Bazeley 2005). The fact that some of the more important roles for the state in supporting A&RD lie outside the mandate of the MoA (Cabral and Scoones, 2006), including policy decisions relating to taxation, infrastructure investment, exchange and interest rates, security and contract enforcement, means that the latest generation of SWAps are under considerable pressure to find more effective ways of working multi-sectorally. Some have argued that the incentive for such change is only likely to come if the SWAp is located with the Ministry of Finance rather than with the Ministry of Agriculture. This is because the main motivation for moving to a SWAp for sector ministries is to gain direct control over supplementary funds, whereas the overseeing ministry has an institutional interest in introducing and consolidating good procedures in public financial management, administration and the focus on results (Pavignani 2001). Nevertheless, even if Ministries of Finance do need to take a stronger role the question still remains as to how MoAs can gain greater control over fragmented donor assistance, including technical assistance and in-kind support, to promote more strategic sector working.

As well as the challenges of working strategically, SWAps face the challenge of working within increasingly decentralised systems. A study by ECDPM in 2003 identifies the significant challenges of reconciling the centrist focus of most SWAps with devolving systems of governance and institutional capacity. As (Pavignani 2001) has noted “a fully-fledged SWAp looks to be the central planner’s ultimate dream: sector goals, strategies, players, inputs and outputs brought together into an elegant, consistent and holistically managed framework.” The experience with the first phase of PROAGRI in Mozambique illustrates precisely how a SWAp can lead to an excessive focus on central agricultural administration capacity building at the expense of provincial governance offices and ultimately at the cost of target beneficiaries - the farmers themselves.

Emerging questions for Phase 2 include:

- Is the MoA the appropriate location for a multi-sector SWAp? What are some of the lessons learned about ways and mechanisms to secure active participation by Ministries of Finance in close collaboration with sector ministries, such as through coherent sectoral MTEFs and sector expenditure reviews?
- How do SWAps address roles and responsibilities of central and local institutions in A&RD?
- Are SWAp and decentralisation processes complementary or conflicting? What are some of the ways in which SWAps are tackling the challenge of more devolved planning and budgeting processes?
- To what extent are institutional structures and technical capacity at central and local levels a major focus of the SWAp? How well does donor-led technical capacity assist in strengthening institutional capacity? What alternatives are available to support long term institution building?

4.4 Improved expenditure and equitable service delivery

Less discernable from the secondary literature is any evidence on the contribution of SWAps in terms of public investment and service delivery. A few issues have been identified in the generic literature, but information is limited in relation to A&RD. So far there is very little evidence to produce an informed judgement on these very important matters.

What is clear is that while there are genuine concerns about the quantity of public funding for agriculture, the focus has shifted towards the quality (productivity) of public expenditure and the ability of ministries to deliver effective services within sectoral ceilings, targeted at those who need them most. A general question is the degree of complementarity between reforms to bring about generalised improvements in the quality of public expenditure, through amongst other things support to the central budget process, and efforts being led through sector specific approaches. Experience would suggest both need to be closely coordinated, but how successfully this is being done is less clear.

A key theme in some of the more prescriptive literature is the importance of “quick-wins” in the implementation of sector approaches. These include, most frequently, tangible gains perceived by users of services, for example, improved maintenance of critical road networks or more active and engaged extension workers. The record on generating such gains and the perceptions of service users of the value added of the sector approach remains unclear.

Significant attention is also given to public procurement. In many countries, public procurement is an endemic source of corruption at both local and central government levels. In this context improving the quality of service delivery is often contingent on major changes to the system of public procurement. Nevertheless experience shows that such changes have often proved elusive and SWAp have had to rely heavily on special procurement measures which effectively go around government systems. One implication is that SWAp need to give greater attention to supporting capacity in key areas such as procurement and financial management and monitoring and evaluation to enable effective expenditure management and service delivery.

Emerging questions for Phase 2 include:

- Are areas for public action in service delivery clearly defined? Is there a consensus around priorities within the SWAp? Are poverty and equity issues fully articulated?
- Is improving the quality (rather than the quantity) of A&RD investments and recurrent expenditure a reasonable focus for the SWAp?
- How do generalised approaches to public financial management reform and managing for results across government fit with the sector approach? What can be done to secure improvements in A&RD investments and service delivery?
- How do SWAp address the role of local governments, CSOs and private sector agencies in improving sector outcomes? How do SWAp address the role of non-state actors in supporting service delivery at local levels?

4.4 Public-private interface - strengthening private sector participation

As already noted, despite the original intent, the SWAp is largely about the way the Ministry of Agriculture mobilises and uses resources and very little about how it relates to other state and non-state actors and institutions. Yet, there are numerous private sector agencies and private foundations operating in the agricultural sector and working closely with them has been identified as crucial task for public sector agencies seeking to support an enabling environment for growth and development.

While private investment is increasingly regarded as the main driver within the agricultural sector, a recent paper by (Jones and Stockbridge 2005) on agriculture and rural enterprise in Africa points to the near stagnant levels of aggregate private investment in sub-Saharan Africa since the 1980s and the relatively luke-warm response of private investors to processes of privatisation of marketing, processing and production in the agricultural sector. While investment is clearly well below the level required to achieve accelerated agricultural growth, the authors urge caution in concluding that there is an 'investment gap', pointing instead to the problem of low returns to investment predicated on weak institutions and poor infrastructure in the sector.

In addressing issues of the public-private interface the literature points to the importance of understanding the effectiveness and efficiency of different types of public expenditure in improving investment returns in the sector, and in drawing on the whole range of public policy tools to enhance the pay-off to public expenditure and consequently the prospects for private sector participation.

Emerging questions for Phase 2 include:

- How does the SWAp seek to build synergy with the resources and efforts of private sector actors and institutions? Is there any evidence that SWAp have provided a catalyst to increased private sector investment in A&RD? What are some of the political obstacles to increased private sector participation in SWAp?

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

- Are clear mechanisms for interaction and partnership with the private sector in place and put into practice? How do systemic governance reforms impact on the interaction between government and private sector actors in A&RD?
- How do SWAps balance the need for more effective public action for the poor with the need to create an enabling environment for private sector investment? How can this balance and investment composition be better reflected in sector budget processes (such as MTEFs)?

5. A conceptual framework and next steps

5.1 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 presents the five themes in relation to the kinds of strategic outcomes and results that donors and governments are trying to achieve within A&RD (OECD 2006). The figure is purely illustrative at this stage but is useful for linking (at least conceptually) anticipated SWAp change processes and higher order results.

Figure 1: Linking the SWAp change model with results

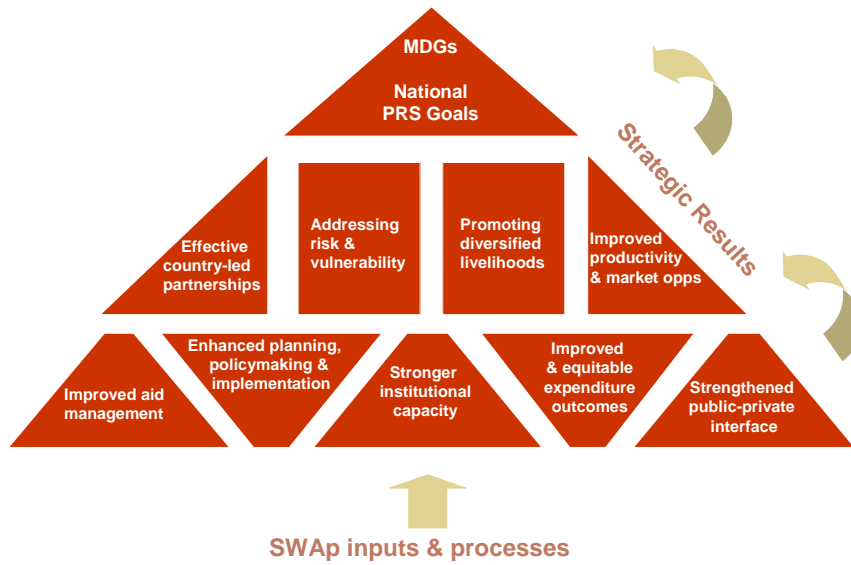
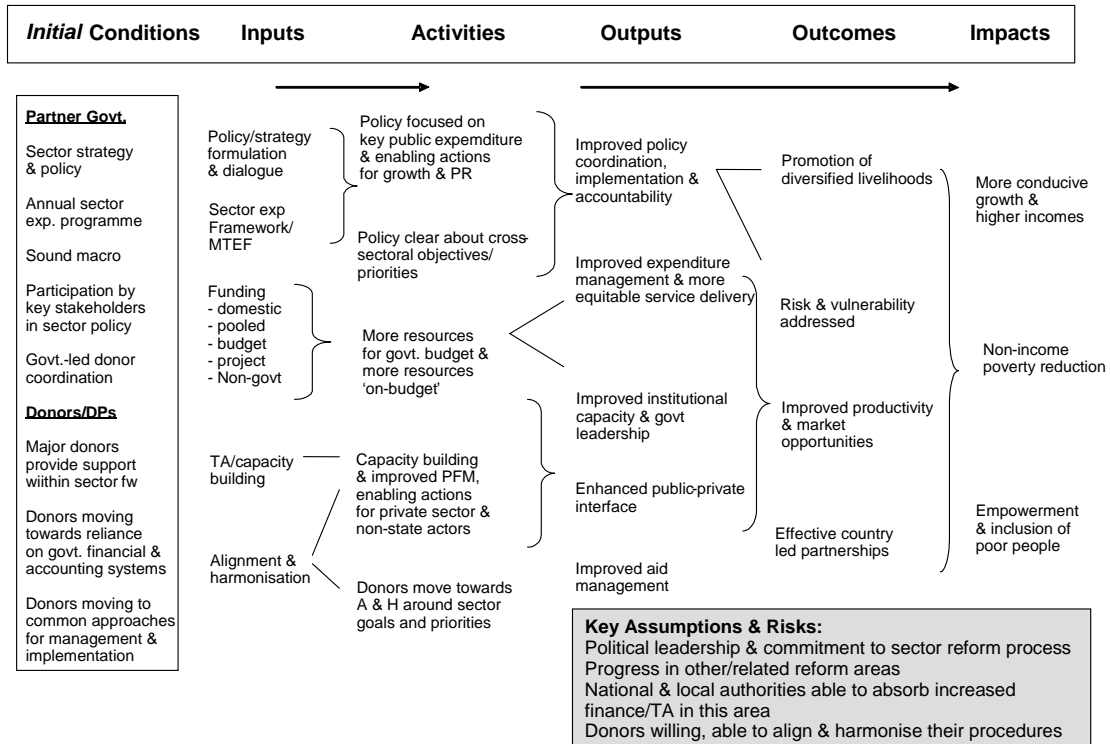


Figure 2 goes a step further and links the five themes with what are widely understood to be some of the necessary preconditions for moving to a SWAp and some of the specific processes and inputs vital to support medium to long term change. Figure 2 provides the basis of a simplified logical framework that will be used to guide Phase 2.

Figure 2: The change model underlying the SWAp process.



The framework is not definitive, nor is it expected that all the issues will be investigated in full. Rather it is intended to be a tool for organising issues and evidence in a logical and comparable way that will in turn support the production of a synthesis of findings and lessons in Phase 3.

5.2 Country SWAp selection

The limited sample of countries reviewed in this paper was sufficient to illustrate the diversity of experiences with A&RD SWAp. The three cases explored illustrate different stages and also different conceptions of the SWAp. Hence, it is essential that the country analysis in Phase 2 is able to capture this diversity while providing an opportunity for more systematic lessons learning across specific contexts. Against this background and building on the themes of the desk review, the proposed criteria for country selection are:

- **the importance of agriculture in the economy** – the potential of SWAp is possibly greater in environments where agriculture is still an important contributor to national income;
- **the degree of aid dependence** - SWAp are usually associated with high aid dependence (Foster, Norton et al 2000) but more recently SWAp have been initiated in countries with relatively low levels of aid dependence. A contrast between the two types of aid context will be useful for generating new insights about the sector approach;
- **the scope of A&RD SWAp or SWAp-like approach** – whether it is multi-sectoral, sectoral, sub-sectoral is likely to significantly affect its prospects for broader systemic change;
- **the degree of maturity of the A&RD SWAp or SWAp-like approach** – as the review has shown, A&RD SWAp are at very different stages of development. Some of the more longstanding SWAp, such as PROAGRI, are now generating lessons of critical relevance to

the later SWAp, while these later SWAp are being implemented in contexts that are potentially more complex and challenging. The study aims to captures some of this contrasting experience as a way to track changes in the SWAp concept over time, and finally but crucially;

- **the general receptivity of the country’s sectoral representatives to collaborating in the study.**

The selection criterion makes no claims about being representative (in the statistical sense). By ensuring some structure to country choice, however, it does allow us to pinpoint issues and lessons that have some comparative value as well as being country specific. To expand the breadth of the study and thereby increase the possibility of drawing interesting comparative lessons it is proposed that Phase 2 comprise both a field-level and desk-level component. The field component will involve 4 country studies. The desk component will include a further 3 or possibly 4 countries based on a detailed analysis of the secondary literature for those countries, including one country – possibly Kenya – where there is currently no SWAp but a strong desire by donors at least to move in that direction. Based on the criterion above, Table 1 provides a list of suggested countries for inclusion in Phase 2.

Table 1: Country selection (preliminary)

Country	Agriculture as % of GDP	Aid dependency - ODA as % of GDP	Degree of maturity of the A&RD SWAp	Scope of the A&RD SWAp
1. Field Studies				
Tanzania	...	16.2	ASDS approved 2001 ASDP commencing 2006/7-2012/3	Sectoral (5% of funding on cross-sectoral issues)
Mozambique	26	23.9	Second phase of PROAGRI (initiated in 1999)	Sectoral
Nicaragua	18	20.4	ProRural. Pre-SWAp. Starting 2005.	Sectoral
Vietnam	22	4.5	Forestry SWAp ongoing.	Sub-sectoral
2. Possible Desk Studies				
Uganda	32	15.2	PMA – approved in 2001	Multi-sector?
Ghana	35	11.9	ASSIP/FABS/SAHS (currently 3 separate initiatives)	Sector & sub-sector
Bolivia	15	11.8	SIBTA 1999 (Research & Extension) Planned to end 2005	Sub-Sector
Cambodia	35	12	LMAP 2002 (Land Management)	Sub-Sector
Burkina Faso	31	10.8	CCPDR 2005 (Cooperative Framework for Rural Development)	Multi-Sector?

Sources: for quantitative data - Human Development Indicators 2005 and World Development Indicators 2004 (<http://publications.worldbank.org/WDI/>).

5.3 Method and Approach

The country studies in Phase 2 will serve three main purposes:

- to examine the significance of the various elements underlying the change model, and stakeholder perceptions of progress and emerging results
- to identify additional issues not captured by the scoping review with relevance to the future of A&RD SWAps
- to draw out lessons learned with operational relevance to the country-level SWAp process in collaboration with development partners and country officials.

The field studies will involve a combination of interviews with local stakeholders, document analysis, focus groups and in-country workshops. Work will be conducted in four stages: (i) scoping of contextual issues and a mapping of key stakeholders and data sources; (ii) in-country data collection and key informants interviews; (iii) preliminary data analysis; and (iv) feedback on preliminary findings through in-country workshops.

In the light of the proposed conceptual framework and a brief review of the country A&RD policy and aid management setting, a set of country specific hypotheses and questions will be laid out to guide enquiry at the country level. Each set of hypotheses and questions will be country specific but reflect the core themes of the conceptual framework. In addition, and in collaboration with the national consultant(s), a tentative mapping of key stakeholders and data sources will be produced to help structure the field work. Where appropriate a strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats (SWOT) type analysis will be undertaken to draw out initial hypotheses about the strengths and weaknesses of the SWAp or SWAp-like process which will be further tested in the field during focus groups and workshops.

Field work will consist mainly of semi-structured key informants interviews and secondary data collection. In addition to the interviews, the studies will involve other forms of consultation with local stakeholders, linked not only to the agriculture sector but also to wider policy processes such as PRSPs, public sector reforms and decentralisation. Where SWAp working groups or joint donor committees exist, the teams will seek to use these fora not only for data gathering but also to test emerging hypotheses and discuss findings. Furthermore, an in-country workshop will be used to discuss preliminary findings and recommendations.

The country studies will be conducted by teams comprising one international expert, one or more national experts and a member of the FAO Investment Centre. The country field study teams will liaise closely with FAO representative staff in-country to encourage cross-fertilisation of ideas and experiences and to gain access to local knowledge.

The desk studies will be based on a similar set of questions drawn from the conceptual framework but will rely entirely on a combination of secondary policy and evaluative documents and telephone interviews with relevant, largely donor personnel, including FAO representative staff in-country and the relevant donor working group, to build a broad assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the SWAp process. The desk studies cannot aim to provide the same depth as the country studies, but they do provide the opportunity to extend the breadth of the sample and therefore to test some of the central hypotheses across a wider range of country experiences. Only those countries for which there is a sufficient paper trail will be included as part of the desk study.

The use of the common conceptual framework in Phase 2 will provide the basis for moving towards a synthesis of key features and lessons in Phase 3. Each of the country studies will stand

alone to ensure maximum relevance to the country context, but the synthesis will aim to draw out comparative findings as far as possible to ensure both conceptual and operational value-added of the study as a whole.

Annex 1: Summary of A&RD SWAp (work in progress)⁷

	A&RD Policy/ Programme	Year	Sector Support Programme (Name)	Multi-Sector; Sector;	PRS alignment	PRSC or bilateral GBS programme in place?	Funding Modalities				Implementation stage		Comments
	Sub-Sector?			Project			Common Pool/Basket	Sector Budget Support	Non-state entities	Ongoing/ maturing	Stalled/ Ended		
Benin													
Ghana	Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy (FASDEP), and (L16) Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Development Strategy (AAGDS)	Designed from 2001 / 02	(ASSIP 1998)	Sector-wide	Yes, FASDEP derived from GPRS. AAGDS prepared prior to PRSP	PRSC					FASDEP designed 01-03, unclear on progress to date		
Kenya	Strategy for the Revitalisation of Agriculture (SRA) (and Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC/ERS))	1994, and 2004 (ERS 2003)	Agricultural Sector Investment Programme (ASIP) 2004 - 5 year Economic Recovery Programme (Rural Development Strategy)	Cross-Sector - Involves Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries Development, Ministry of Cooperative Development and Marketing	ERS incorporates PRSP - and in many ways has become the focus for implementation of PRSP as it is more specific over what needs to be done (U13)		DfID (Website) is not providing any budget support to Kenya				Agricultural Sector Unit Co-ordination Unit established 2005. Intended to run 2004-2014		
Lesotho		1996											

⁷ At this juncture it is difficult to provide more detailed or comprehensive information on the SWAp like initiatives included in this Annex mainly because there is currently no global data base summarising SWAP activities in A&RD. It is proposed that the G DPRD initiate such a task so as to develop a clearer and more accurate picture of numbers and trends.

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

Malawi	Agricultural Ministry only recognises projects and govt structures as delivery tools for Agricultural Programmes.												
Mozambique	Agriculture Sector Development Programme (PROAGRI)	1999	PROAGRI I	Sector / Main Sub-Sector	Good or Better' as per Overall assessment of how well aligned the Sector is with PRS.	PRSC, PRBS	Prior to 1999 mostly Project Support. In '03 still some Project Support.	Euro4m ('99) Euro35m ('03)		Some elements of Outsourcing	Ongoing		
		2004	PROGARI II										
Senegal													
Tanzania	Agriculture Sector Development Strategy (C8)	Approved 2001, Proposed commence 2006	Agriculture Sector Development Programme	Sector (but with 5% funding to be spent on Cross-Cutting and Cross Sectoral Issues)	Aligned with NSGRP. Aim for implementation of District Agricultural Development Plans to implement 75% funding. 'Good or Better' as per Overall assessment of how well aligned the Sector is with PRS	PRSC, PRBS		Limited initially providing funding for part for part of agricultural MTEF, incoherency over whether eventually aiming to be fully basket funded (C33) / or partially (C38)			Commencing 2006/07 -- > 2012/2013. 15 Year Programme Horizon		

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

Uganda	Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA)	2001	A Framework to address poverty	A Framework within a Sector with some Multi-Sector aspects, "a strategic and operational framework for eradicating poverty through multi-sectoral interventions (including agriculture) for transformation of the agricultural sector" (B9)	PMA as a component of PEAP, which together with MTCS (Medium Term Competitiveness Strategy), SEP (Strategic Export Programme), focuses on poor rural households. Good or Better' as per Overall assessment of how well aligned the Sector is with PRS	PRSC	155 Projects - were PMA relevant between 01-04, and "development partners have directly funded almost 60% of total expenditure on PMA projects" (B59)	No improved co-ordination leading to an increase in basket fund use. Per P Bazeley (W25) Watering down of cross-sectoral investment channels, and lacking legal mandate, and basket fund --> Steering Committee have limited powers.	40% equivalent between 01-04 for "indirect financial support through GBS and earmarked sector support." (B59)	15% through NGO's - (though unclear whether this is specific to Uganda). (B60) Also Outsourcing	Ongoing, Objectives aims to be achieved 2017		2005 a major evaluation was completed.
Zambia	Support Mid-Term, Long-Term	1996	Agriculture Sector Investment Programme 1996	17 sub-sectors. 'In principle there is much cross-sector, but in practice?' (K48)	ASIP Pre-dates the PRSP. Focus is not on poverty reduction.		180 projects!						Ended 2001. No second phase. GoZ's 2001 Ag Commercialisation Programme yet to attract donor funding
			14 donors										
Zimbabwe		1997											
Cambodia													
Vietnam		2005		Sub-Sector - Forestry and Community Development		PRSC PRBS supporting P135						Early Stages	

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

Bolivia	National Strategy for Rural Development (ENDAR)	1999	SIBTA	Sub-Sector - covers Agricultural Research and Extension Subsector	Part of Bolivian PRSP (EBRP), and National Strategy for Rural Development (ENDAR)			"Funding in the form of a co-ordinated donor basket fund, (sufficient) to cover all of its aspects" (K49). European bilateral agency funds (E18m/E60 m) (provided in a common basket) together with IDB (E18m/E60 m) are managed by an Executing Unit under the supervision of the Ministrymand under IDB regulations (E5).				Planned to end 2005	
El Salvador	Strategy for Rural Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction	2005 Preparation discussion for a sub-SWAp in process	5 Measurable goals based around 8 Pillars	Cross-Sectoral	Indirectly. Vision of 'Secure Country 04-09' based on reduction in vulnerability of poor.							Pre-SWAp discussions still underway	
Honduras	State Policy for the Agrifood Sector and the Rural Milieu (2004-2021)	1	4 Programmes: PRONADERS, PRONAGRO, PRONAPAC, PRONAFOR	8 sectoral policies. 3 multi-sectoral approaches, and	Derived from PRS, Medium term goals (2007-2015) integrated with	PRSC	Pre-2004 mostly Project Support. Funding					Running 2004-2021 (although currently in v early	

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

	Strategic Agroforestry Sectoral Plan 2004-06			and (Focused on 58 short-term measures)	integrated with PRS		Funding moving from Projects to Programme based on key sub-sectors: technology (SNITTA); Small Farmer Development & Mkt Chains, PRONAGRO, Forestry PRONAFOR, and animal & plant phytosanitary PRODEC				v early stages)		
Nicaragua	PRORURAL	2005	7 Components, links with PND-O (05-09)	Sectoral Approach (1 st phase)	Aligned but developed separately		Several donors providing project level support within the PRORURAL framework	MOU for Common Fund signed by 3 donors			Started 2005		

References

- Anson, R. (2005). The Role of the Sector Wide Approach to Sustainable Rural Development in Central America - Working Document prepared for RUTA.
- Batley, R. (2002). Mozambique: a country case study. Study for the OECD-DAC Task Force on Donor Practices, Birmingham University.
- Bazeley, P. (2005). What's agricultural reform got to do with a Ministry of Agriculture? Future Agricultures, Lunchtime Meeting Series. ODI.
- Bezemer, D. and J. Healey (2006). Something of a paradox: the curious neglect of agriculture in development - draft paper.
- Brown, A. (2000). Current Issues in Sector-Wide Approaches for Health Development: Mozambique Case Study. Strategies for Cooperation and Partnership, WHO.
- Cabral, L. and I. Scoones (2006) 'Narratives of agricultural policy in Africa: what role for ministries of agriculture?', paper for the Future Agricultures Consortium workshop, Institute of Development Studies, 20-22 March 2006.
- CIDA (2003) 'Risk based audit framework for the Ghana Food and Agriculture Budgetary Support (FABS) project', December.
- Cromwell, E., C. Lutterell, et al. (2005). Poverty Reduction Strategies and the rural productive sectors. ODI Working Paper, ODI.
- DfID (2004a). Agricultural Trade and Poverty Reduction: Opportunity or Threat., DFID Agriculture and Natural Resources Team.
- DfID (2004b). Agriculture, Growth and Poverty Reduction, DFID, Agriculture and Natural Resources Team.
- DfID (2004c). Effective policy and public expenditure reform for pro-poor agricultural development. Working paper for the Renewable Natural Resources and Agriculture Team, DFID Policy Division., OPM.
- DfID (2004d). Official Development Assistance to Agriculture. Working paper produced by the Agriculture and Natural Resources Team, London.
- DfID (2005a) Review of Health and Education Progress in Selected African Countries (RHEP SAC): Synthesis Report. Africa Policy Department, May.
- DfID (2005b) 'Project Memorandum: Ghana Support to Agriculture Sector Harmonisation (SASH)', Department for International Development, September.
- Dorward, A., S. Fan, et al. (2004). "Institutions and policies for pro-poor agricultural growth." Development Policy Review 22(6): 611-622.

EC (2003). Guidelines for European Commission Support to Sector Programmes. EuropeAid.

ECDPM (2002). Sector Wide Approaches and Decentralisation - Towards Greater Policy Coherence. Concept Paper for a Research Project., ECDPM.

ECDPM (2003). Relating Sector-wide Approaches and Decentralisation. Towards Greater Policy Coherence. A Preliminary Synthesis of Issues.

Eicher, C. (2003). Flashback: Fifty Years of Donor Aid to African Agriculture. Paper presented at InWent, IFPRI, NEPAD, CTA conference - *Successes in African Agriculture*, Pretoria.

Fong, M. (2002). Gender in sector wide development policies and programs. III World Congress of Rural Women. Madrid.

Foster, M., A. Brown, et al. (2000). What's different about agricultural SWAs? Presented at DFID Natural Resources Advisors Conference July 2000. ODI.

Foster, M. (2000) New approaches to development co-operation: what can we learn from experience with implementing Sector Wide Approaches?, Working Paper 140, ODI.

Foster, M., A. Norton, et al. (2000). The Status of Sector-Wide Approaches. ODI, Ireland Aid.

Garrido-Mirapeix, J. and P. Toselli (2002). "Agricultural sector programmes from theory to practice: the experience of 'Proagri' in Mozambique." The Courier ACEP-EU(195).

Harrold, P. and e. al (1995). The Broad Sector Approach to Investment Lending: Sector Investment Programs, World Bank Discussion Papers 302, Washington DC.

IFAD (2001). Rural Poverty Report.

IFAD (2005). IFAD Policy on Sectoral Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development.

Jones, S. (2000). Increasing Aid Effectiveness in Africa. The World Bank and Sector Investment Programs.

Jones, S. and M. Stockbridge (2005). Agriculture and Rural Enterprise in Africa: Is there an Investment Gap? Oxford Policy Management.

KPMG (2003). Institutional reform of MADER: functional analysis and restructuring strategy. Draft report. Maputo.

Kydd, J. and A. Dorward (2001). "The Washington Consensus on poor country agriculture: analysis, prescription and institutional gaps." Development Policy Review **19**(4): 467-478.

Lavergne, R. and A. Alba (2003). CIDA Primer on Program-Based Approaches. CIDA.

OECD (2004). Draft Outline of the Good Practice Paper on Providing Harmonised Support to Sector Approaches - Room Document 5., OECD / DAC Working Party on Aid Effectiveness and Donor Practices. Task Team on Harmonisation and Alignment.

OECD (2006) Promoting Pro-Poor Growth - Agriculture. *To be published in the DAC*

Guidelines and Reference Series as a DAC Reference Document.

OPM (2000). The role of the state in rural poverty reduction: where do sector wide and sustainable livelihood approaches fit in? OPM.

OPM (2005). The Plan for the Modernisation of Agriculture: Evaluation Report, Oxford Policy Management.

Pavignani, E. (2001). Swamped in a SWAp? Experience-inspired remarks about Sector-Wide Approaches.

Pavignani, E. and V. Hauck (2001). Polling of technical assistance in Mozambique: innovative practices and challenges. EDCPM Discussion Paper, no. 39. Maastricht.

Republic of Mozambique (2003). PROAGRI evaluation, Final Report, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Maputo.

Republic of Mozambique (2004). PROAGRI II Strategy Document. Vol I - III, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development.

Shepherd, A. (2001). Study on the Relationship between Sector Wide Approaches and Support to Decentralised Governance and Development., IDD, University of Birmingham.

Shepherd, A., V. Fritz, et al. (2005). Key issues in sharpening the rural production focus of Poverty Reduction Strategy processes: Literature review for IFAD Issues Paper.

SIDA (2000) Sida's Policy for Sector Programme Support.

SPA (2005). Towards Sector Support Alignment and Harmonisation - SPA 2005 Sector Program Tracking Report. S. Secretariat.

SPA (2006) Towards Alignment and Harmonization of Sector Support. Co-Chairs' Review of Activities, Results and Perspectives in 2003-5. SSWG, January.

UNCTAD (2004). The Least Developed Countries Report - Overview by the Secretary General, UNCTAD. Geneva.

Watt, P. (2005). Transactions Costs in Aid: Case Studies in Sector Wide Approaches in Zambia and Senegal. Occasional Paper 2005/26. H. D. R. Human Development Report Office, Human Development Report Office.

Wiggins, S. (2005). Innovation in agricultural and rural development: should we return to the learning process, Paper presented at IMI workshop, IFAD, November.

World Bank (2000) 'Project appraisal document on a proposed adaptable programme credit in the amount of SDR 50.9 million to the Republic of Ghana in support of the first phase for an Agricultural Services Subsector Investment Project', June, Africa Regional Office.

World Bank/OED (2003) 'Evaluation of the Comprehensive Development Framework: Ghana case study', a multi-partner evaluation of the Comprehensive Development Framework, Operations Evaluation Department, World Bank.

Sector-Wide Approaches in Agriculture and Rural Development: A Desk Review of Experience, Issues and Challenges

WorldBank (2004). Sectorwide Approaches (SWAps) - Salient Features, Implementation Issues and Challenges. Presentation made in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

WorldBank (2005a). Agricultural Investment Sourcebook, World Bank, Washington DC.

WorldBank (2005b). A review of rural development aspects of PRSPs and PRSCs, 2000-2004. W. B. Agriculture and Rural Development Department. Washington D.C.

WorldBank (2005c). Agricultural Growth for the Poor: An Agenda for Development. Directions in Development, World Bank.

WorldBank/IFPRI (2005). Agriculture and Achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

World Bank (ed) Education and Health in Sub-Saharan Africa - A Review of Sector-Wide Approaches. Human Development, Africa Region.