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Third meeting  
Geneva, 28–29 January 2008  
Item 8 of the provisional agenda

**INTERACTIVE DISCUSSION: AFRICA**

**SUSTAINABLE GROWTH OF AFRICAN AGRICULTURE IN THE CONTEXT OF  
CLIMATE CHANGE AND DESERTIFICATION\*  
WHAT ROLE FOR DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS?**

Note by the secretariat

*Summary*

This document was prepared following the decision of the sixty-second session of the Economic Commission for Europe (E/ECE/1448, para. 23(b)) and will serve as an input to the Third Regional Implementation Meeting (RIM) in preparation of the sixteenth session of the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD-16) which will take place in New York from 5 to 16 May 2008. CSD-16 will assess progress made by Member States in the areas of agriculture, rural development, drought, desertification, land, and Africa. This document only covers Africa; the remaining policy areas are addressed in document ECE/AC.25/2008/3.

This document aims at informing the discussions of the Third RIM on donors' progress in supporting sustainable agriculture and rural development in Africa by assessing it against various commitments, goals and declarations. It provides an overview of the current status of implementation of international cooperation and development programmes, reviews obstacles, and puts forward recommendations to strengthen development cooperation efforts. It was prepared by the Africa Partnership Forum Support Unit of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development in cooperation with the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification and the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe secretariats.

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\* This document was submitted on the above date due to ongoing consultations with partner organizations.

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**I. INTRODUCTION**

1. The United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was set up to monitor the results of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development – the Earth Summit – in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. At its eleventh meeting, the Commission decided that every two years it would assess the implementation of Agenda 21 (A21), the Programme for Further Implementation of Agenda 21 (PFIA21) and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI). The United Nations Regional Commissions were encouraged to organize regional meetings for this purpose.

2. On the agenda of the forthcoming sixteenth session of CSD, to be held in May 2008, agriculture, rural development, land management, drought, desertification and Africa will figure prominently. The Regional Commissions will assess progress so far achieved by Member States in each of these areas.

3. Accordingly, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) will assess initiatives undertaken by African Governments and the support provided by their development partners. In parallel, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) will evaluate support initiatives provided by its member States to African Governments.

4. This report is therefore seeking to inform discussions of the forthcoming UNECE Regional Implementation Meeting on progress made by its member States in supporting sustainable agriculture in Africa, against the backdrop of climate change and desertification.

5. Agriculture, rural development, land management, drought and desertification in Africa are linked in several ways. In many regions, drought and desertification threaten agricultural and rural development, encourage migration and increase pressure on land and water resources. This pressure leads to resource degradation, which also undermines the long-term sustainability of agricultural production. Finally, all these interlinked issues are exacerbated by the growing effects of climate change.

### **An overview of African agriculture in the context of climate change and desertification**

6. Progress in agricultural production in Africa mirrors economic growth across the continent. Overall growth has significantly risen since 2000, with growth in the agricultural sector having almost doubled – from 2.7 per cent to 5.3 per cent – between 2002 and 2004. At the same time, a number of countries have diversified production, shifting from cash crops to horticulture and food crops (notably fruits and vegetables), a sector in which prices have been driven upwards by increasing global demand and expanding urban markets in Africa.

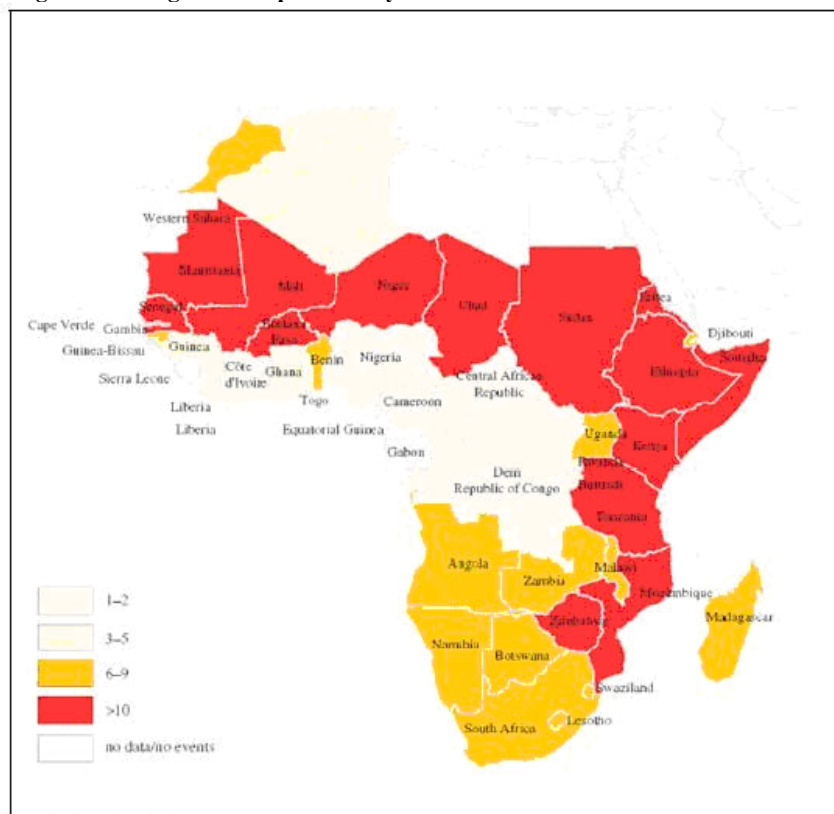
7. Despite this progress, almost 200 million Africans suffer from malnutrition, and the share of undernourished people in the continent (32 per cent) is significantly higher than in other regions (FAO, 2006). Growth in productivity based on an increase in investment is needed if this rate is to come down. Unfortunately, African agriculture is still characterized by underinvestment, as evidenced by low levels of capital stocks. Not surprisingly, this weakness has induced low yields per hectare.

8. In addition to these structural problems, new environmental risks threaten to undermine recent progress. Drought – essentially defined as a deficit in water – and desertification – i.e. soil degradation – are getting worse (Figure 1). In fact, the continent has recorded higher rates in the frequency and severity of drought – one of the worst climate-induced natural disasters – and climate change is likely to increase the incidence of climate linked natural disasters, particularly drought. One of the many possible scenarios linked to carbon dioxide emissions will be an increase in temperatures by between 3 and 6 degrees between now and 2100 in the Sahel and in parts of Southern Africa. In this case, North Africa, the Sahel and Southern Africa would experience a 20 per cent drop in rainfall as compared to 1990 levels. This will impact heavily: not only is 95 per cent of African agriculture rainfed, but two thirds of African soils, on which 485 million people rely, are poor soils (UNECA, July 2007).

9. Drought and desertification act as a spur to intraregional migration and rural exodus, both of which are already on the rise, given income differentials between urban and rural areas. The most significant population flows are between landlocked rural regions and regional metropolises/coastal areas. People from the Sudano-Sahelian belt, where birth rates are the highest in the world and where the impact of drought and desertification are the most severe, are migrating in large numbers to the Gulf of Guinea. While the fish stocks, land and water resources of this fragile ecosystem constitute one of the greatest hopes for Africa's development, these very resources are also being subjected to increasing pressure, which threatens their sustainable management. These complex transformations make the sustainable development of African agriculture a critical and complex issue necessitating a range of interventions on a number of fronts.

10. This report will assess donor progress in supporting sustainable agriculture and rural development (SARD) in Africa against various commitments, goals and declarations. It will also review obstacles and put forward recommendations to strengthen development cooperation efforts.

**Figure 1: Drought events per country from 1970 to 2004 within Sub-Saharan Africa**



*Source:* Adapted from Noojin, Leah 2006. factors that influence in Sub-Sahara African Countries

## II. SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE IN AFRICA: MONITORING PROGRESS AGAINST COMMITMENTS

11. Since the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), the international community has made major commitments in favour of SARD in landmark meetings and declarations. Agenda 21, the Programme for Further Implementation of the Agenda 21 and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation contain targets which have also been reinforced by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the World Food Summit (WFS). In addition to these global commitments, Africa has set its own objectives in the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), in particular the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) supported by the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development (GDP-RD).

12. In the context of efforts to enhance donor coordination and alignment to African countries' strategies to improve aid effectiveness, the CAADP framework should serve as a basis for selecting, from this range of commitments, those against which African Governments and their development partners will wish to track progress and allocate resources. CAADP directs

investment to four mutually reinforcing “pillars”: (i) extending the area under sustainable land management (SLM) and reliable water control systems; (ii) improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for improved market access; (iii) increasing food supply and reducing hunger; (iv) agricultural research, technology dissemination and adoption. In addition, it would be useful to select commitments and monitor progress against CAADP cross-cutting issues: (v) developing national and regional resources and capacity.

#### **A. Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems**

##### **Commitments, goals and targets**

13. A21 recognizes inappropriate and uncontrolled land use as a major cause of degradation of land resources while the CAADP first pillar acknowledges Africa’s challenge to meet basic water and sanitation needs, and therefore aims to expand the area under sustainable land management (SLM) and reliable water control systems (UNECA, August 2007).

14. The JPOI calls for actions to strengthen the implementation of the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) to address the causes of desertification and land degradation in order to maintain and restore land (UNECA, July 2007).

15. All the developed countries that are Parties to the UNCCD Convention have confirmed their support to assist affected African countries in their efforts to combat desertification and mitigate drought, and their related action programmes under the UNCCD framework should be incorporated within national development and poverty reduction strategies. It is also recognized that more sustained consultation with affected African countries should be given the priority they deserve, either by the national political authorities of the affected African countries or by the Public Development Aid (PDA) decision makers for developed countries. The involvement of local populations in Africa is increasingly being channelled with partnership agreements through development non-governmental organizations (NGOs), North and South, or what are commonly referred to as international solidarity organizations (ISOs). Developed countries are increasing their support in Africa for alert systems and drought and desertification monitoring and assessment projects, for large-scale water management projects, and for the development of sustainable agricultural production and stockbreeding methods.

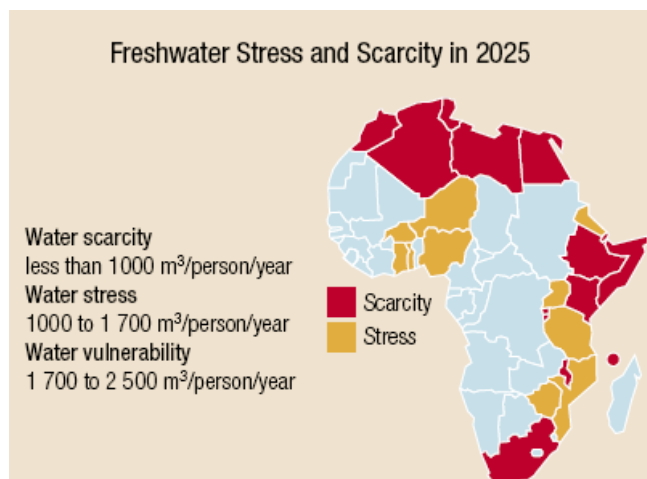
16. Land and water degradation are caused by human as well as environmental factors which also need to be addressed. Climate change is now widely considered as a key driver of drought and desertification (IPCC, 2007). A21 and the JPOI recognized the importance of mitigation efforts as well as the need to assist African countries to adapt to the adverse effects of climate change (UNEP, 2006).

##### **Bottlenecks**

17. By exacerbating drought and desertification, climate change is putting huge direct and indirect pressure on land and water resources, particularly in coastal areas.

18. Half of Africa is expected to face water stress because of climate change. Three quarters of Africa are zones where small drops in rainfall levels could cause significant reductions in river water. By 2020, between 75 and 250 million people will be exposed to an increase in water stress due to climate change (IPPC, 2007).

Figure 2: Freshwater stress and scarcity



Source: Fourth Water Forum - Africa

19. Over 95 per cent of Africa agriculture is rainfed. As a result of climate change, arable land, the length of the growing season and yield potential, particularly along the margins of semi-arid and arid areas, are likely to decrease (APF, 2007e). In some countries, yields from rainfed agriculture could go down by up to 50 per cent by 2020 (IPCC, 2007).

20. Drought and desertification, made worse by climate change, are encouraging emigration from landlocked rural areas, particularly in Sahelian countries, towards regional/coastal metropolises. The high rates of urbanization in Africa are also putting enormous pressure on freshwater and arable land, particularly in coastal areas. In addition, sea levels are rising as a result of climate change and this is threatening the coasts, lagoons and mangrove forests of both East and West Africa (APF, 2007e).

21. Adapting to these changes is essential, yet institutional resources for the implementation of land and water management projects are often stretched. The scarcity of data on water resources is a key factor hampering planning and monitoring at the national and regional levels. The lack of reliable climate data makes it difficult to correctly anticipate changes and mainstream adaptation to climate change in land and water management strategies.

22. Analysis shows that donor projects and programmes can be negatively affected by climate risks (OECD, 2005). Yet existing environmental guidelines consider only the impact of a project on the environment and not the impact of climate risk factors on the project (APF, 2007e).

23. Irrigation is critical for alleviating the adverse effects of climate change and desertification as well as for mitigating climate risks such as drought and floods. However, in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) only 4 per cent of the area under production is irrigated, compared

with 39 per cent in South Asia and 29 per cent in East Asia. Moreover, irrigation is still not part of most water infrastructure development initiatives in Africa.

24. According to estimates of investment requirements by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), only \$0.5 billion of the projected \$9.9 billion has so far been invested as part of the NEPAD-CAADP Pillar 1 for the period 2001–2005.

### **Progress**

25. Numerous initiatives related to land, water management and fertilizer access have been launched by African Governments. Eighteen countries have undertaken or are currently undertaking major land reforms. These efforts are also backed by development partners through several important processes and frameworks that show the strong commitment to achieve progress on SLM and, to a lesser extent, on water control.

26. UNECA and the African Development Bank (AfDB) are developing a Pan-African Land Policy Framework. Under this initiative, launched in 2006, regional economic communities are expected to facilitate the harmonization of policies and legislation for the better management of land resources within their region. This is an important step forward towards increasing vertical integration of agricultural production chains and economies of scale at the regional level.

27. Launched in 2005, the TerrAfrica initiative intends to provide a collective response to desertification and land degradation by promoting partnerships between African Governments, their development partners and other stakeholders, such as research institutions, civil society and the private sector. Through its Strategic Investment Program (SIP), TerrAfrica has secured about 50 per cent of the Global Environment Facility's support to sustainable natural resource management in Africa through the SLM scaling-up programmes.

28. Since 2004, the AfDB, in collaboration with the African Ministers' Council on Water (AMCOW), has been developing the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Initiative (RWSSI). RWSSI aims to provide safe water and sanitation to 80 per cent of the rural population in Africa by 2015, and offers its services to countries that have defined a national water strategy on agriculture and rural development (UNECA, August 2007). However, water and sanitation projects are still not sufficiently focused on rural development and almost exclusively rely on public investments. This is why the AfDB is now sponsoring a study on "Investment in Agricultural and Water Management in SSA", together with NEPAD, FAO, International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), IMWI (International Water Management Institute) and the World Bank, to look at opportunities for private sector participation in agricultural water development in SSA.

29. Mitigation efforts and adaptation to climate change are also vital to reducing the adverse impact of climate change on desertification and land degradation. Important steps have been taken on the mitigation side in Europe, but cooperation of all major greenhouse gases (GHG) emitters is needed. The UNCCD Global Mechanism has been instrumental in mobilizing technical and financial support for African Governments' efforts aimed at fighting desertification (UNECA, July 2007), but more needs to be done to reduce deforestation – which is a powerful means for mitigating the impacts of climate change.

**Critical next steps**

30. The international community should increase its support for SLM and water control policies such as the Pan-African Land Policy Framework. Reforming and enforcing policies and legislation to harmonize and guarantee clear legal ownership and access rights to land, water and other natural resources remains a daunting task. The absence of a clear legal framework guaranteeing ownership rights to land is one of the main reasons the poor are unwilling to invest in sustainable land and forestry management practices such as reforestation, agro-forestry, and land and water conservation measures (UNECA, July 2007). Bringing land policies and the performance of land institutions within the framework of the Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) could be a useful way of reinforcing the momentum for reform (UNECA, October 2007a).

31. Development partners need to provide more support for national and regional initiatives for sustainable forestry management (e.g. the NEPAD TerrAfrica initiative) and to address barriers to sustainable forest management practices affecting the supply of wood fuel. Deforestation is responsible for 20 per cent of annual global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and constitutes the main source of GHG emissions from many developing countries. Compensating the avoidance of deforestation is another way to limit GHG emissions, but avoiding deforestation is currently not eligible under the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) or the European carbon market (APF, 2007e).

32. In addition to information on public aid flows, it would also be worthwhile in the future to have more information on decentralized cooperation and private capital flows and on the sort of private investments that could be made in the field of desertification control in affected African countries that are Parties to the UNCCD Convention. It would also be useful to have some long-term projections of possible developments in the area of desertification and their social and economic consequences both in affected countries and in developed countries.

**B. Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for improved market access****Commitments, goals and targets**

33. A21 calls for strong political support and adequate funding for the agricultural sector. It is also reinforced by the 2005 Hong Kong Ministerial Declaration of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), which agreed, subject to the conclusion of the Doha Round, to substantially reduce domestic support for agriculture and eliminate all forms of agricultural export subsidies by the end of 2013, and to implement duty and quota-free market access for 97 per cent of imports from least developed countries.

34. A21 also calls for specific efforts to be made in the energy field to enhance productivity and to promote sustainability and a better environment. It is generally acknowledged that energy is central to the MDGs.

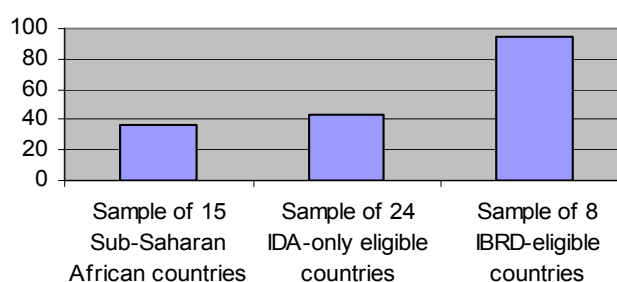
## Bottlenecks

35. There is evidence that investment in energy infrastructure positively influences growth. However, while more than 500 million people in SSA lack access to electricity, national averages also mask huge geographic variations between urban areas (with about 40% coverage) and rural areas (with less than 5%). As a result, 80 per cent of Africa's population relies on traditional biomass for household fuel, much of which is harvested unsustainably, resulting in a loss of forest cover and increased forest silting.

36. If funding – public and private, domestic and foreign – for energy projects in Africa has dramatically increased over the past few years, rural electrification is still lagging behind. In only a few countries has access to electricity for the poor been an important policy consideration. A small number of countries have established rural electrification agencies and funds, but results have been limited (UN-Energy/Africa, 2006).

37. In Africa, only 30 per cent of the rural population lives close to an all-season road (within 2 km). Inadequate transport infrastructure and services in rural areas increase the costs of marketing and hamper the growth of domestic as well as export markets (APF, 2007d).

Figure 3: Percentage of rural population within 2 km of an all-season road (2004)



Source: UNECA, Transport and Millennium Development Goals in Africa, 2005

38. African exporters of agricultural goods are still prevented from climbing the value chain due to inadequate supply-side capacities as well as tariff peaks and tariff escalation in some Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and emerging markets (APF, 2007b).

39. The level of agricultural subsidies in OECD countries remains very high – about \$268 billion in 2006 (OECD, 2005). This undermines the competitiveness of African exports of agricultural goods in both domestic and export markets.

## Progress

40. Expanding access to energy is critical to increase agricultural production and reach the MDGs. In 2004, five UN agencies (UNECA, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) and the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)) created United Nations-Energy/Africa (UNEA) as a subsidiary of

United Nations-Energy. UNEA has promoted micro/mini hydropower capacity development and investment projects to increase electricity access to rural people in Africa. The UNIDO Initiative on Rural Energy for Productive Use intends to remove obstacles that hinder the access to affordable energy in Africa. The Africa-UNEP Programme on Rural Energy Enterprise Development (AREED) promotes use of clean, efficient and renewable energy technologies by the private sector. Efforts are still needed to address water (particularly irrigation) and transport infrastructure – in road transport, length of roads per 1,000 people has been declining.

41. While there has been some progress made regarding non-traditional exports of agricultural products, particularly food crops (such as horticulture, live stock or fish), African farmers are still mainly exporting basic commodities that are processed overseas.

### **Critical next steps**

42. Assisting Africa's development of its largely unexploited hydropower potential would help to meet its objective of increasing energy access while limiting GHG emissions. Larger official development assistance together with foreign and local private sector participation is needed (APF, 2007e).

43. Donor harmonization and flexibility on conditionality – delivering assistance within the country strategy framework rather than on a fragmented project-by-project basis – is required to achieve energy commitments in Africa (UNECA, August 2007).

44. More efforts are needed to include irrigation within the Infrastructure Consortium for Africa, the International Water Facility and the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Initiative.

45. The international community should also take into account the impact of climate change in support programmes for infrastructure, including the transfer of new technology that supports climate adaptation and climate risk management (APF, 2007e).

## **C. Increasing food supply and reducing hunger**

### **Commitments, goals and targets**

46. A21's advocacy of increased agricultural production on land already in use and improved farm productivity in a sustainable manner (UNCED, 1992) is reinforced by the CAADP Framework's call for 6 per cent growth in agricultural production in Africa.

47. Chapter 14 of A21 establishes increased food production and enhanced food security as the major objective of sustainable agriculture and rural development. The MDGs' target of halving by 2015 the proportion of those suffering from extreme poverty and hunger has also been reinforced by the WFS commitment to reduce the number of malnourished persons by 50 per cent by 2015.

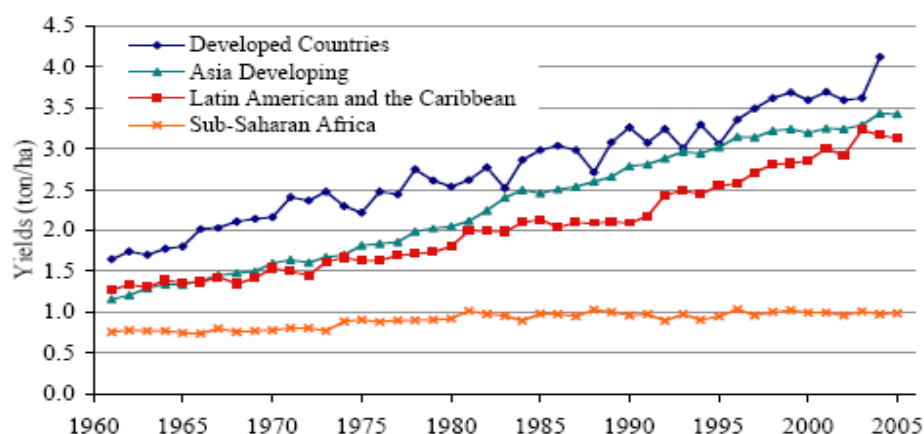
## Bottlenecks

48. Together with Africa's population growth, underinvestment in agricultural activities themselves – as well as in rural infrastructure, notably irrigation, transport and energy – remains one of the key causes of food shortages in the region.

49. African agriculture is one of the most undercapitalized in the world. An analysis of agricultural capital stock in the 1990s showed that in Africa capitalization was one sixth of that in Asia and a quarter of the levels seen in Latin America (APF, 2007a). On average, farmers use only 8 kg of fertilizer per ha of arable land in SSA, which is only 9 per cent of the world average of 93 kg/ha. The number of tractors per 1000 ha of arable land is three times greater in Asia and eight times greater in Latin America (UNECA, October 2007b).

50. As a result, at around 1 ton/ha, average agricultural yields in Africa account for between 25 and 30 per cent of yields in other developing regions, and the continent has increasingly failed to feed its population (UNECA, October 2007). Between 1993 and 2003, the growth rate of food production (1.5%) was lower than the population growth (2.73%), leading to declining production per capita (UNECA, August 2007).

Figure 4: Cereal yield by region, 1960–2005



Source: World Bank (2007)

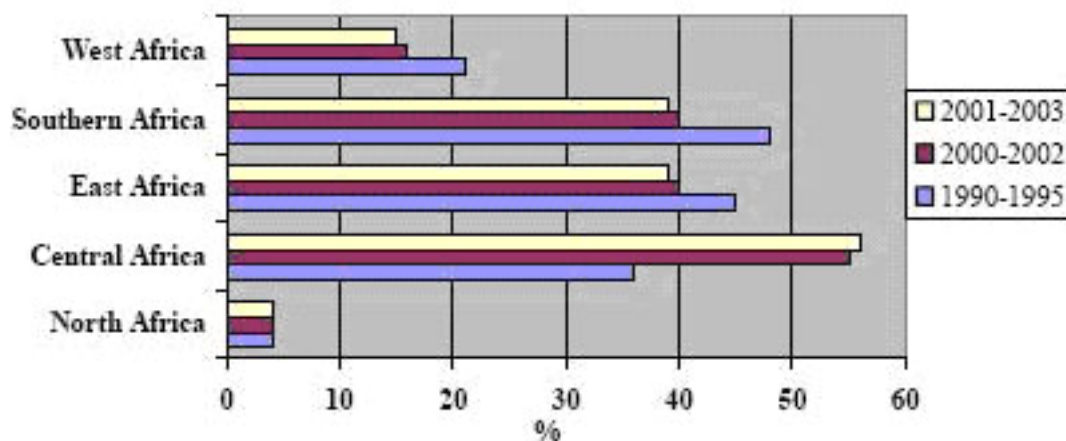
## Progress

51. While the proportion of undernourished people in SSA has remained static at 32 per cent (FAO, 2006), the absolute number is increasing significantly – from 176 to 210 million over the period 1992–2002. Nevertheless, there has been a strong performance in some regions (South, East and West), which was substantially offset by a major increase in Central Africa.

52. Productivity-driven growth of agricultural production has been shown to have had a positive impact on the rural economy, leading to increased food availability and a reduction of food prices in domestic markets. Alongside this, investment is the main driver of productivity growth, which illustrates the importance of improving the investment climate for agribusinesses, including through developing rural infrastructure, expanding rural credit and

promoting land reform (APF, 2007a). However, limited progress in a few countries, particularly in East Africa, cannot conceal the overall lack of investment in African agriculture.

**Figure 5: Progress in the proportion of undernourished in total population**



Source: FAO database

### Critical next steps

53. Support to agriculture-related supply-side policies could help to increase agricultural investment, productivity and output. The development of cross-border infrastructure, together with the harmonization of land policies at the subregional level and the creation of Free Subregional/Regional Investment Zones (for example, around river basins) could stimulate the vertical integration of production, processing and marketing chains at the subregional and regional levels (UNECA, October 2007b).

54. Increased investment is needed for the development of both rural infrastructure and farm production. This calls for higher levels of public spending, a reversal of the past trend of declining Official Development Aid (ODA) for agriculture and sustaining African Governments' efforts to increase public expenditure in the sector. However, public investment on its own will clearly neither be sufficient to stimulate productivity and production at the farm level nor to fill the enormous gap in rural infrastructure in Africa. Improving the investment climate is crucial. Higher levels of private investment will generate more rural infrastructure and improve productivity at the farm level.

### D. Agricultural research, technology dissemination and adoption

#### Commitments, goals and targets

55. A21's advocacy of the development and transfer of appropriate farm technology and the improvement of farm productivity in a sustainable manner (UNCED, 1992) underlines the role of agricultural research in SARD.

### **Bottlenecks**

56. Farmers' needs are currently not the key driver of agricultural research, which consequently suffers from a lack of relevance.
57. Technological improvements in crop varieties are not sufficient to reach smallholder farms in Africa. In addition, there is a need to promote greater access to rural infrastructure.
58. The reforms of extension services have left an "institutional void" which could hinder access to agricultural innovation (UNECA, August 2007).
59. Integrated pest management (IPM) in Africa has had a limited impact in raising agricultural productivity. Poor access to IPM knowledge and the lack of interactive networking have been major constraints to its development. The NGO, Committee of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), has identified inadequate participatory planning in IPM and research, as well as insufficient training and communication, as key obstacles to IPM in Africa.
60. Only a few African countries have benefited from aid support to facilitate the safe destruction of persistent organic pollutants. Given current trends, the process of eliminating obsolete pesticides from Africa could take 50 years. There is a need for concerted international action to tackle this problem (UNECA, August 2007).
61. The annual growth rate in public agricultural research spending in Africa declined by 0.3 per cent per year in the 1990s. Africa invested in agricultural research \$0.70 for every \$100 of agricultural output in 2000, lower than the \$0.84 in 1981. At the same time, donors funding to agricultural research has dramatically declined. For example, the World Bank funding of African agricultural research dropped from a peak of \$120 million in 1991 to \$8 million in 2002 (UNECA, August 2007).

### **Progress**

62. Official development partners have supported and/or undertaken a number of initiatives to improve and increase crop varieties in Africa (the Pan African Cassava Initiative, New Rice for Africa, etc.). Recently foundations and the private sector have also played an important role in this field. The Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa (AGRA), a joint initiative of the Rockefeller Foundation and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, is investing \$150 million to support the Program for Africa's Seed System (PASS) to help develop improved crop varieties, train scientists and ensure that improved seeds reach smallholder farms.
63. The Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa (FARA) has developed the Framework for African Agricultural Productivity (FAAP), which aims to strengthen agricultural knowledge systems so that they can deliver profitable and sustainable technologies that are widely adopted by farmers (UNECA, August 2007).

### **Critical next steps**

64. More official support is needed for initiatives aimed at improving agricultural research and development, such as the Forum for Agricultural research in Africa, which is taking the lead in implementation of CAADP Pillar 4, or the Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa, a broad-based partnership dedicated to improving the productivity, food security and livelihoods of small-scale farmers (APF, 2007c).

65. A clear redefinition of the respective roles of governments, the private sector and civil society in SARD will ensure that the process is demand-driven. This is particularly important for improving research and technology dissemination.

### **E. Developing national and regional resources and capacity**

#### **Commitments, goals and targets**

66. A21 calls on countries to maintain and develop plans, programmes and policies to enhance sustainable food production and food security within the framework of sustainable development (UNCED, 1992). Together with the JPOI, A21 also calls for people's participation and greater community control over the resources on which they rely. In addition, it advocates decentralization policies and the strengthening of rural organizations for SARD.

#### **Bottlenecks**

67. Progress in implementing CAADP at the country level has proven challenging. While some countries have established clear development strategies for their agricultural sectors, aligned with CAADP principles and mainstreamed in their national development strategies (UNECA, August 2007), many have registered little progress so far.

68. A number of multilateral and bilateral agencies are working to adopt the CAADP principles, in line with the principles contained in the 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, to progress towards harmonizing and aligning ODA. However, some development partners are still creating parallel processes and pledging arrangements (APF, 2006c).

69. At the same time, there are many other constraints hampering the development of SARD in Africa, including the magnitude of natural disasters (droughts and floods) in a context of climate change, as well as conflicts, the spread of HIV/AIDS and some of the highest rates of urbanization in the world. The latter is putting enormous pressure on freshwater and other natural resources, particularly in coastal areas (UNECA, August 2007).

#### **Progress**

70. The CAADP initiative and its implementation to date (e.g. country roundtables, FAAP, school-feeding, etc.) are an evidence of Africa's progress in developing resources and capacity at the regional level.

71. The Global Donor Platform for Rural Development, which comprises representatives from donor countries and accounts for some 80 per cent of total ODA in the field of rural development, is collaborating with the NEPAD in supporting the CAADP. It promotes the harmonization of donor procedures and practices in agricultural development.

72. African countries have increasingly begun to integrate local government into public expenditure procedures. Decentralization programmes, supported by donors, are found in most countries. Many countries are also ready for the full integration of community-driven development, while numerous capacity-building projects operate at the community level. Burundi, Cameroon, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Sudan and Uganda have launched concrete reforms aimed at involving farmers in decision-making (UNECA, August 2007).

### **Critical next steps**

73. Building on regional and country level initiatives and aligning donor support with national plans and the CAADP framework is necessary (e.g. the African Union/NEPAD Partnership Platform Meeting held on 28 and 29 September 2006).

74. Building national and regional capacity to track expenditure is also critical. A tracking system has been tested in 19 African countries, but data collection is still a challenge in others (APF, 2006).

**Annex I**  
**List of abbreviations**

<b>AfDB</b>	African Development Bank
<b>AGRA</b>	Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa
<b>APF</b>	Africa Partnership Forum
<b>AREED</b>	Africa-UNEP Programme on Rural Energy Enterprise Development
<b>AMCOW</b>	African Ministers' Council on Water
<b>APRM</b>	Africa Peer Review Mechanism
<b>CAADP</b>	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
<b>CDM</b>	Clean Development Mechanism
<b>CGIAR</b>	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
<b>FAAP</b>	Framework for African Agricultural Productivity
<b>FAO</b>	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
<b>FARA</b>	Forum for Agricultural research in Africa
<b>GDP-RD</b>	Global Donor Platform for Rural Development
<b>GHG</b>	Greenhouse gases
<b>IFAD</b>	International Fund for Agricultural Development
<b>IMWI</b>	International Water Management Institute
<b>IPM</b>	Integrated Pest Management
<b>JPOI</b>	Johannesburg Plan of Implementation
<b>IPCC</b>	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
<b>MDGs</b>	Millenium Development Goals
<b>NEPAD</b>	New Partnership for African Development
<b>ODA</b>	Official Development Aid
<b>PASS</b>	Program for Africa's Seed System
<b>PFIA21</b>	Programme for Further Implementation of Agenda 21
<b>RWSSI</b>	Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Initiative
<b>SARD</b>	Sustainable agriculture and rural development
<b>SLM</b>	Sustainable land management
<b>SSA</b>	Sub-Saharan Africa
<b>UNCCD</b>	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
<b>UNCED</b>	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
<b>UNCSD</b>	United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
<b>UNDP</b>	United Nations Development Programme
<b>UNEA</b>	UN-Energy/Africa
<b>UNECA</b>	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
<b>UNECE</b>	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
<b>UNEP</b>	United Nations Environment Programme
<b>UNIDO</b>	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
<b>WFS</b>	World Food Summit
<b>WTO</b>	World Trade Organization

## Annex II

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