

**INDEPENDENT EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMMES
AND COOPERATION OF THE FOOD AND AGRICULTURE
ORGANISATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS
IN ETHIOPIA**



EVALUATION REPORT

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Acronyms

A-FAOR	Assistant FAO Representative
ADLI	Agricultural Development Lead Industrialization Strategy.
AGP	Agricultural Growth Programme
ATVET	Agriculture Technical and Vocational Training
AU	African Union
BOARD	Bureau of Agriculture and Rural Development
BSF	Belgian Survival Fund
CAHW	Community Animal Health Workers
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CFSAM	Crop and Food Supply Assessment Mission (FAO/WFP)
CG	Consultative Group
CPF	Country Planning Framework (has replaced NMTPF)
CSA	Central Statistics Authority of Ethiopia
DAG	Donor Assistance Group
DRMFSS	Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector (MoARD)
DRM PoA	FAO Disaster Risk Management Plan of Action
DRRU	FAO Disaster Response and Rehabilitation Unit
ECTAD	Emergency Centre for Transboundary Animal Disease Operations
EFASA	Ethiopian Fisheries and Aquatic Science Association
EIU	Economist Intelligence Unit
ESE	Ethiopian Seed Enterprise
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization
FAOR	FAO Representative
FAO RAF	FAO Regional Office for Africa
FAO REOA	FAO Regional Emergency Office for Africa
FAO SRC	FAO Sub Regional Coordinator
FLH	Family Landholdings
FRETH	FAO Ethiopia
FSP	National Food Security Programme
GAFFSP	Global Agriculture and Food Security Programme
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
HAB	Household Asset Building (Component of FSP)
HPAI	Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza
HQ	FAO Headquarters
IA	Impact Assessment
IDA	International Development Association (World Bank)
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IGAD LPI	IGAD's Livestock Policy Initiative
IMF	International Monetary Fund

M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MNB	Multi-Nutrient Blocks
MoARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (now MoA)
MOSS	Minimum Operational Security Standards
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NFP	National Forestry Programme
NGO	Non Government Organization
NMTPF	National Medium Term Priority Framework (FAO)
NPDRM	National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management
NWFP	Non Wood Forest Products
OCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance
OED	FAO Office of Evaluation
OFSP	Other Food Security Programmes (now HAB)
OSD	FAO Office to Support Decentralization
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty 2006-2010
PCM	Project Cycle Management
PFM	Participatory Forestry Management
PIF	Policy Investment Framework
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Programme (component of the FSP)
REDFS	Rural Economic Development and Food Security sectoral working group
SFE	FAO Sub regional office for East and Central Africa
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Analysis
SLM	Sustainable Land Management
SNNPR	Southern Nations Nationalities and People's Region
SPSS-LMM	Sanitary and Phytosanitary Standards and Livestock & Meat Marketing
SPFS	Special Programme for Food Security
TCE	Emergency Operations and Rehabilitation Division, FAO
TOT	Training of Trainers
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WFP	United Nations World Food Programme

Executive summary

INTRODUCTION

The evaluation

The Ethiopia Country Evaluation has been an independent and forward looking process, providing FAO's stakeholders with a systematic and objective assessment of the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impacts and sustainability of the programmes and activities undertaken by FAO in Ethiopia. The evaluation considered all of FAO's work in Ethiopia during the period 2005- 2010, irrespective of the source of funding (regular programme or extra budgetary resources) or the location of project management (HQ, Regional Office or the FAOR). The evaluation also included an assessment of the activities of the FAO representation which are not necessarily carried out through projects. The team developed a wide ranging evaluation framework; in broad terms, FAO's performance was evaluated against the FAO corporate objectives, the draft National Medium Term Priority Framework (NMTPF), the draft FAO Disaster Risk Management Plan of Action (PoA) and by review of projects implemented in the country.

The evaluation involved several phases. These included the screening and preparation of background documentation, an inception mission, in-country impact assessments of two key programmes, a desk review of FAO's work in disposal and management of pesticides, a full three week country mission which included extensive field visits, a debriefing of in country FAO staff, GoE staff and donors, a debriefing of staff at FAO headquarters, and a debriefing of the Consultative Group in Rome.

The Ethiopian context

Ethiopia has a population of over 80 million people, and a GDP *per capita* currently estimated at around US\$ 360. The agriculture-based economy accounts for about 40% of national GDP, 80% of exports, and 80% of total employment. Production remains mainly rain-fed at a peasant, smallholder producer level. The principal crops include coffee, pulses, oilseeds, cereals, potatoes, sugarcane, and vegetables. Exports are almost entirely agricultural commodities, and coffee is the largest foreign exchange earner. There is also an increasingly important formal export of meat, and to a lesser extent live animals, from Ethiopia. Despite Ethiopia's agricultural enterprises, a high and growing human population, recurrent droughts and periodic floods, complicated by climate change and accompanied by severe soil and landscape degradation in some regions, all contribute to a situation of national food insecurity. Ethiopia's striking diversity and the equally diverse challenge it poses have led the GoE to adopt the valuable conceptualisation of "Three Ethiopias"; these are: Productive Ethiopia, Pastoral Ethiopia and Hungry Ethiopia. "Productive Ethiopia" (estimated to be 45 million people) has the potential to increase food availability and thus reduce prices. The challenge of "Pastoral Ethiopia" (estimated at 12-14 million) is to maximize productivity and increase resilience to shock (mainly drought) without upsetting the environmental equilibrium so essential to food security in pastoral areas. "Hungry Ethiopia" (estimated at 15-20 million) includes households with small farms on degraded soils and limited means of production.

FAO's PROGRAMMES IN ETHIOPIA

The management structure of FAO's Ethiopia programme comprises two elements; the Ethiopia country office itself, manned by a small staff which includes the FAO Representative (the only FAO regular-funding international position) which directly manage a small set of development-focussed extra-budgetary projects, and the Disaster Response and Rehabilitation Unit (DRRU), manned by some 70 staff including 5 internationally recruited staff managing a large set of emergency-focussed extra-budgetary projects. These two elements are complemented by the sub-Regional Office for Eastern Africa (SFE), which shares office premises in Addis Ababa, and which provides technical support to Ethiopia's country programmes in certain disciplinary fields, as well as to seven other countries of the region.

FAO's responses to food security and rural development priorities over the past five years have been delivered through a large portfolio (more than 100 projects valued at over US \$80 million) of extra-budgetary projects managed largely by the FAO Representative and TCE. This is complemented by FAO support for investment projects (typically financed through grants/loans from the World Bank, IFAD, AfDB, etc.) which has generated over three quarters of a billion dollars worth of external financing for the GoE. The main technical areas of intervention for FAO Ethiopia include plant production and protection (including desert locust), irrigation, animal production and health (including early warning for avian influenza and other hazards) and food security information and agricultural statistics. Other important areas of intervention have included environment/natural resource management (including land tenure, forestry and management of obsolete pesticides) and support for policy and programme formulation and agricultural investment. A handful of projects cover the management of water and genetic resources and global environmental challenges; another set of projects focuses on markets and rural development, and there are several consecutive projects covering nutrition and food security (in particular household asset building).

The most important donors to the FAO Ethiopia programme over the past five years have been Norway, OCHA/HRF (emergency), Italy, Spain, USA (emergency), Belgium, the European Union (emergency & development), and the Netherlands.

FINDINGS

Programme relevance

FAO's programmes have broad relevance to the humanitarian needs of Ethiopia and to the development aspirations of the GoE in the fields of agriculture and natural resource management. However, in the absence of a national planning framework for FAO in Ethiopia in the form of a CPF, the relevance of FAO's work is inadequately aligned with the updated needs of the country, and with FAO's comparative advantage. This deficiency is exacerbated by inadequate collaboration between the operational groups of FAO in Ethiopia.

With regard to the contributions of FAO in the area of food security and nutrition, FAO's draft NMTPF does not adequately reflect GoE's food security priorities or FAO's global strategic objectives. The NMTPF limits itself to direct assistance, and there is little analysis of how FAO might contribute to the core functions of knowledge generation, policy formulation or institutional capacity

development. There is no indication of how FAO will support emergency preparedness, or of FAO's vision on how the much discussed process of transition from relief to development will take place.

Many of the themes addressed by FAO's crop-related projects in Ethiopia are highly relevant to the country's needs (introduction of new technologies, promotion of marketing innovations, etc.) The continuing role of FAO in emergency seed distribution is more questionable. Concern has been raised about the relevance of this activity, including the extent to which some target populations are unable to acquire seed, the adequacy of some of the crop varieties provided, the wisdom or necessity of supplying seeds season after season in certain locations, and the failure to incorporate longer-term strategies to build resilience. Although there is widespread agreement (within FAO and GoE) on the need to move away from multiple emergency interventions and towards longer-term development programmes for crop production and marketing, there has apparently been little thought given to what a comprehensive development strategy might entail. Many of the resources available come from donor funds that are ear-marked for short-term use; the transition process attracts relatively little technical oversight from FAO or its donors; and the short-term projects are largely evaluated by FAO, donors and government agencies in terms of "outputs delivered" rather than "outcomes", "capacities built" and "lessons learnt". Finally there are built in incentives/disincentives within FAO's institutional framework that contribute to an inertia in changing the programming approaches.

Among the challenges facing the Ethiopian livestock industry, the greatest problems are; low genetic potential, poor feeding practices, poor health, water shortage (particularly in the pastoral areas) and underdeveloped market infrastructures. FAO's involvement in addressing these challenges has been largely emergency response-based and limited mostly to health and feed interventions. There is no long-term livestock development strategy within FAO Ethiopia, or a 'pastoral development' strategy. Furthermore, FAO has not engaged adequately in the area of understanding and promoting value chains to support the growing number of market (including export) orientated enterprises.

The activities carried out by FAO in sustainable land management were found to be relevant to the needs of the primary beneficiaries. Furthermore, analysis of the country's policy documents and the discussion with the government partners indicate that project activities were aligned to government policies and priorities, particularly as they are expressed in PASDEP. However, in many cases the interventions were built from scratch without adequate prior understanding of beneficiary needs. There were no relevant studies to establish typologies of farmers, farming systems and livelihood enterprises in order to develop a more targeted approach in delivery during the implementation phases. With regard to the disposal of obsolete pesticides, these activities were relevant because they addressed an important problem of the presence of significant stockpiles of dangerous pesticides in Ethiopia, and the corresponding need to build capacity to manage them.

Programme effectiveness

In general terms, FAO has made several significant contributions to the crop and livestock sectors and to improved food security and nutrition for chronically and acutely vulnerable households. Participatory forest management interventions in SNNPR effectively contributed to the protection and rehabilitation of some of Ethiopia's last remaining forests, and to new GoE policies. Capacity building within the Central Statistics Authority has contributed substantially to future improvements

in agricultural statistics. FAO's engagement with the threat of avian influenza strengthened the coordinated zoonotic disease preparedness and response capacities of GoE and international agencies. These successes have been due largely to the implementation of projects through MoARD, which has resulted in a high level of national ownership of the interventions, particularly at the regional level. There is little evidence to suggest that FAO efforts have contributed to gender equity (except perhaps in the case of the BSF project), largely due to a lack of any type of gender analysis. The concept of promoting livelihoods diversification in projects such as the promotion of temperate and tropical fruit trees in northern Ethiopia is applauded by the Evaluation Mission. However, while these activities are technically impressive, there is inadequate attention being given to market access for the emerging products from these initiatives, and to engaging appropriate counterpart staff (ideally from the growing rural private sector), so that they can be truly effective in diversifying livelihood options. At a broader level in both the crop and livestock fields, there has been inadequate attention given to exploring and developing market opportunities, linkages, value chains and private sector actors.

Behind the scenes, the FAO Investment Centre has played a crucial role in working with GoE and other development partners to try and ensure that budgetary aspirations are met, well articulated priorities are set in the form of proposals, and that emerging funding proposals are channelled to potential funding agencies in an appropriate way. GoE processes of priority setting have benefited substantially from the leadership in development policy planning displayed by the outgoing FAOR.

Despite these successes, there has often been inadequate coordination, communication and synergy between projects at both organisational and operational levels, so constraining programme effectiveness and efficiency. Achievements have been localised due to the limited geographical coverage in project design. Furthermore, despite attempts to promote continuity through the implementation of sequential emergency interventions in the same areas, and the results of this in terms of partnership and capacity building, the short duration of many projects has undoubtedly limited their effectiveness, in particular with respect to behavioural change and sustainability. With regard to the short term emergency projects managed by the DRRU, there has been grossly inadequate post intervention monitoring and synthesis, limiting the potential to learn lessons for future programming.

Finally on effectiveness, while recognising certain institutional collaborations and MoUs, there is a need for substantially stronger partnerships with national (and regional) research institutes to both strengthen the evidence base of interventions, and to engage a wider constituency.

Efficiency

In FAO's administrative and financial management in Ethiopia, there are recognised efficiencies through the centralisation of these services for the three elements of FAO in Ethiopia, which exemplifies the "One FAO" concept. However, efficiency on the operational side is not replicated in the technical fields, and with the possible exception of the livestock projects, there is inadequate integration of the long-term development and short-term DRRU managed activities, and the Ethiopia-specific contributions of the SFE; these shortcomings undoubtedly limit the efficiency of

programmes. In the DRRU, there appears to be efficient management of the multiple emergency response interventions themselves, and a solid data management of their operations, but these interventions are sometimes complicated by delays and inefficiencies in procurement and logistics. As far as partnerships are concerned, FAO's commitment to working through MoARD and the BoARDs at national, regional and *woreda* levels respectively is seen as an efficient strategy for responding to acute and chronic food insecurity, for promoting good practices and for ensuring ownership and sustainability. FAO has benefited from many partnerships with a wide range of local and international NGOs in livestock and crop emergencies. Nevertheless, these benefits have sometimes been limited by the high levels of staff turnover in both GoE and FAO.

The wide geographical dispersion of the FAO food security activities, as well as the staffing and project approaches, has reduced the potential synergies between interventions within the same regions. This has also had an impact on FAO's image because the results are not visible enough.

Impacts

FAO is broadly acknowledged in Ethiopia for having had impact in the past, through the building of institutions and the development of human capacity. This reputation for impact has faded substantially. Nevertheless, the Evaluation Mission recognises certain significant, although not necessarily widely recognised, impacts. These are in the areas of mobilising resources through the Investment Centre, and influencing national development policies. However, little emphasis has been given by FAO to quantitative impact assessment of its activities. This is particularly the case with *ex post* evaluation of DRRU projects, in which the feeds and seeds distributed are quantified, but the significance and impacts of the numbers presented generally goes unquestioned.

In the animal health field, there were recognised impacts in the building of laboratory capacity and inter-institutional dialogue for preparedness and response to avian influenza, and these impacts almost certainly have broader implications for other diseases. Unfortunately, some of the laboratory capacity built with FAO's assistance is now underutilised. Also in the livestock field, there is documented livestock survival and some performance-enhancing impacts from pilot interventions on the deployment of multi-nutrient blocks.

There are indications that the BSF project has had positive impacts on household assets and resilience (both in beneficiary households and their neighbours) and on community empowerment. At a policy level, the BSF experience has informed the design of the new National Food Security Programme.

Sustainability

The long term sustainability of programme outputs appears to be of general concern, and not just for FAO activities. While there is a policy of operating through MoARD to strengthen the chances of sustainability, the weakness of some arms of the GoE constrains this. There has been substantial turnover in both FAO and GoE staffing, which has resulted in inefficiencies and some discontinuity of efforts in terms of capacity building, policy advice; this has negatively affected the sustainability of

FAO's work. With FAO projects there have been mixed results with regard to long term capacity building and partnership development; some projects have performed better than others.

Nevertheless, some useful tools and methods have been developed, particularly by the BSF, CSA, LEGS and fruit tree projects, for instance, which will offer continuing benefits in Ethiopia. The revolving credit within the BSF project, for example, is creating sustainable physical and financial assets both at community and household levels. However, replication of the BSF model to other areas appears to have been constrained by a lack of engagement of regional and federal stakeholders in the pilot and phasing out projects.

Capacity development holds the key to many of the sustainability issues. The promotion of capacity development should be integrated into the job descriptions of all staff; it is of course particularly relevant for emergency staff where greater attention to developmental approaches is required. Capacity development should be an explicit objective in both the CPF and PoA.

Conclusions

- ***The global importance of Ethiopia.*** Ethiopia continues to hold its place in the global spotlight as a food insecure country, but one with the potential for agriculture to play a much more demonstrable role in development, food security and poverty reduction; FAO has a key role to play in helping Ethiopia to realise this potential
- ***FAO's achievements in Ethiopia.*** There have been some key milestones in FAO's recent achievements, evidence of the talent and institutional strengths existing in Ethiopia and elsewhere in FAO. These have been particularly in the areas of food security and asset building, infectious disease control, sustainable land use management, contributions to the Livestock Emergency Guidelines and Standards (LEGS), and resource planning and mobilisation. The visionary attributes of the outgoing FAOR and his contributions to the development policy debate are well recognised by all partners; regrettably these visionary attributes have not permeated FAO's programmes in Ethiopia
- ***The urgent need for a Road Map for FAO in Ethiopia.*** The Mission finds the absence of a shared vision for FAO's engagement in Ethiopia; this directly affects the effectiveness and efficiency of its contributions, and the image of FAO in the country. The draft NMTPF does not address key issues of mainstreaming disaster risk management (DRM), natural resource management (NRM) and gender; and the delays in developing the NMTPF are inexcusable. There is now an urgent need to pick up on this process, and develop a well articulated Road Map for FAO as a whole in Ethiopia, with clear priorities, action points, funding strategy and outcomes, developed through a structured dialogue with partners. The Road Map will demand time, extraordinary commitment, and above all engagement of key partners in the process. This will be a primary task for the incoming FAOR and his team.
- ***There is a disharmony between FAO's diverse contributions in Ethiopia.*** Notwithstanding the lack of a CPF built on a shared vision of FAO's role in Ethiopia, the Evaluation Mission concludes that inadequate attention has been given to harmonising the sometimes

disparate contributions of the emergency and development arms of FAO in Ethiopia in order to capture more effectively FAO's comparative advantage. This reflects on the inadequate cohesion and management of FAO's programmes in the country. Programmes are too dispersed and often undertaken in a piecemeal fashion, causing inefficiencies, reducing synergies and constraining the potential for demonstrable impacts.

- ***The role of the SFE in supporting national programmes in Ethiopia.*** The SFE is still searching for the appropriate balance in its national and regional responsibilities as it seeks to please its multiple clients and host country government. This apparent inadequacy in the mechanisms for prioritisation results in a lack of clarity in the roles and responsibilities of its contributions to the Ethiopia programme, .
- ***The unrealistic division of labour of the FAO Representative.*** The FAOR has six different positions, most of them beyond the role of head of FAO's country mission to Ethiopia. The overburdening of the FAOR, under the auspices of the decentralisation of FAO, places unrealistic demands on the bearer of this office, and at the same time reduces the credibility and effectiveness of FAO's representation to Ethiopia.
- ***Competitiveness and achievement in resource mobilisation.*** The Evaluation Mission concludes that there has been insufficient effort by, and capacity of, the FAOR and A-FAOR in fundraising. This has been compounded by an inadequate dialogue between FAO Ethiopia and the Investment Centre in Rome. While the DRRU has been successful in raising funds for emergency operations, some of which have had a strong development flavour, the development programme has not had the same success. Moreover, repeated short term funding is not appropriate for resourcing these types of capacity building interventions required for longer-term development & NRM issues. Key to this will be a visionary Road Map.
- ***Recognition of the strength of a sound evidence base to policies and strategies.*** The CSA project has contributed to improvements in institutional capacity to collect and analyse crop production statistics, a national resource in planning and evaluation. However, FAO needs to give greater consideration to a sound evidence-base of the multiple risks to which Ethiopians in different environments are exposed, and the use of such understanding in poverty reduction and food security planning processes. Sound data and well structured monitoring and evaluation systems are central to this. Furthermore, FAO's own system and capacity for monitoring, evaluation and analysis leaves much to be desired.
- ***The capacity to respond to market opportunities.*** FAO has concentrated in its emergency activities on the distribution of seeds, fertilizer, feeds, MNBs, etc, and in its development activities on diversification of livelihoods into fruit trees, etc. It is important that much greater attention is given to the sustainable production and marketing of input and output commodities of crop and livestock enterprises through a sound understanding of current and emerging rural value chains, and the appropriate engagement of private sector and/or cooperative actors.

Recommendations

1. **Develop a Road Map for FAO in Ethiopia.** FAO must urgently reignite the process of dialogue, both internal and with the GoE, to develop the CPF which will serve as a Road Map for the strategy FAO in its entirety in Ethiopia for the next 5 years aligned with priorities identified within the GTP. While the content of the Road Map will be developed through constructive dialogue on priorities and strategies, the Evaluation Mission identifies certain key areas which deserve consideration.
 - **Restructure the national portfolio.** A restructuring of the portfolio is necessary to feature a much stronger emphasis on longer-term development activities, while ensuring these are based on a sound conceptual framework comprising integrally linked processes of development, emergency response, recovery, rehabilitation and resilience building.
 - **Draw on key policy documents.** The Road Map should draw strongly on the GoE's new GTP, on the PIF, the FAO's strategic objectives, and on the TCE Operational Strategy for 2010 – 2013.
 - **Develop pillar-specific strategies.** FAO should have differentiated strategies within the CPF for addressing the three pillars of chronic food insecurity, acute food insecurity and economic growth. A resource mobilisation strategy for each pillar should be articulated based on the CPF.
 - **Strengthen market perspectives and commercial partnerships.** It is important that much greater attention is given to the sustainable production and marketing of input and output commodities of crop and livestock enterprises through a sound understanding of current and emerging rural value chains, and the appropriate engagement of private sector and/or cooperative actors.
 - **Include gender indicators.** Include gender indicators in all household level information gathering activities. Invest in gender analysis of the different livelihoods of, and roles played within those livelihoods, by males and females. Use this analysis in the design of interventions to promote improved gender equity.

From discussions with multiple stakeholders, the Evaluation Mission suggests that key technical areas that stand out as potential strengths for FAO to consider in the CPF process include:

- Support to Ethiopia's agricultural development and natural resource management policy agenda
- Enhancement of crop and livestock production and marketing enterprises through sound value chain analysis
- Support to developing the seed and fertiliser industries through innovative public private partnerships
- Support to land use and natural resource management
- Support for PSNP graduation through the promotion of effective household asset building interventions.

- Developing a sound conceptual framework that effectively links the processes of development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building, and spells out clear action points for the appropriate engagement of FAO.
2. **Engage proactively in programmatic resource mobilisation.** FAO should utilize its Road Map, and its international reputation, technical capacity, global networking and information capabilities and other attributes to better mobilize longer term resources for integrated risk reduction, resilience building and development interventions.
- **Strengthen links between TCI and FAO Ethiopia.** Much success has been achieved by the Investment Centre (TCI) with and on behalf of the GoE. A continuing dialogue between TCI and FAO Ethiopia should be established to ensure a mutual understanding of opportunities and modalities for increased funding to emerging Road Map priorities.
 - **Establish fund raising forum.** The country focus team (led by the Policy and Programme Development Support Division-TCS) and the relevant technical units of FAO should establish a forum to discuss fundraising for development in Ethiopia, and how the capacity for local fund mobilization by the FAOR/SRC and A-FAOR could be strengthened. This is particularly relevant in the context of increasing levels of decision making within donor organizations being delegated to the country level. Joint and collaborative efforts should be pursued by FAOR, DRRU and the multi-disciplinary team of SFE.
 - **Mobilize regular budget resources for the deployment of a FSN expert within the SFE MDT.** Given widespread food security issues in Ethiopia and the broader region, the SFE multi-disciplinary team should include a food security and nutrition expert, working in close collaboration with the REOA in Nairobi and with TC AGN, and ES in HQ. Funding for this position should come from regular programme resources to ensure sustainability.
 - **Engage with NFSP forums.** FAO should engage in NFSP forums and programmes, in particular HAB, advocating a broader package of support to chronically vulnerable households. This would exploit the increased interest by GoE and donors in HAB and potential resources available for interventions that promote PSNP graduation strategies.
3. **Unify FAO in Ethiopia.** The new incoming FAOR must use the Road Map to create a common vision within the FAO country team, complemented by management structures and systems for sectoral and thematic teamwork for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of FAO interventions. This will include:
- **Institutionalise information sharing.** Greater transparency should be established in the FAO Ethiopia by institutionalizing information sharing among the staff of FAOR, DRRU and SFE. An annual retreat should be established with the participation of all the staff for jointly reviewing collaboration and performance and identifying a common workplan and priorities for the coming year.

- **Develop clear guidelines for the engagement of SFE staff in Ethiopia issues.** All engagement of SFE staff in Ethiopia-specific programming and planning (rather than purely technical) activities should be undertaken under a clear set of operational guidelines and monitored by the FAOR, to ensure engagement at the right level, and appropriate commitment and follow-through.
 - **Establish a food security team.** Establish a food security and nutrition (FSN) thematic team within FAO Ethiopia to work on FAO's country level FSN analysis, strategy, approaches and key messages, and to provide a much more structured interface with WFP and UNICEF. Good practice in prevention, mitigation & response and recovery (DRM) should constitute the main thrust of FAO's strategy for tackling acute food insecurity. Good practice and lessons learned in household asset building should constitute the main thrust of FAO's strategy for tackling chronic food insecurity.
 - **Establish an agricultural development and economic growth team.** Within the FAO Ethiopia a team should be set up to follow up on the agricultural development and economic growth components of the new CPF. This team should establish regular dialogue with the food security team to ensure compliance with the development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building continuum.
 - **Establish a natural resource management team.** Within FAO Ethiopia a focal point should be established to ensure that crop and livestock development and emergency response initiatives are carefully shaped within a sustainable NRM framework.
 - **Integrate the IGAD-LPI programme into SFE.**
 - **Promote gender equity.** Proactively seek to promote gender equity within FAO human resources through the preferential recruitment of qualified female staff (in particular for field positions), the inclusion of gender training as a desirable qualification skill within job descriptions, and the establishment of a gender focal point within the country team with a clear mandate to mainstream gender equity within the programme.
4. ***Strengthen FAO's visibility in, and relevance to, Ethiopia.*** Given the multiple functions of the FAO representation, and the deleterious effect this has on the country representation to Ethiopia, and with a view to further strengthening the principles of the decentralisation of FAO's activities, FAO should consider options that would give greater strength to the FAO Ethiopia country office, and minimise the negative effects on Ethiopia of the double accreditation currently in place. These might include:
- The appointment of an internationally recruited A-FAOR and/or the assignment of a senior programme officer.
 - Soliciting donor support to appoint Junior Professional Officers to augment FAO representation professional staffing.

- Recruitment of national volunteers. Similarly, efforts should continue to seek the appointment of five technical counterpart officers in SFE on a secondment basis by the GoE.
 - Provide additional training opportunities to the A-FAOR by institutionalizing his participation in periodic meetings of A-FAORs and/or by allowing his participation in the periodic meetings of the FAORs in the region.
 - Identify specific senior professional staff within both the FAO regular programme and DRRU to systematically cover designated external policy and technical forums.
5. ***Increase the depth and moderate the breadth of FAO field activities.*** This recommendation centres on prioritization, to ensure greater relevance and impact. FAO should devote less effort to fund management of relatively small projects implemented by NGO and GoE partners. FAO should give greater attention to promoting innovative approaches in the areas of food security and rural development that can be scaled up through national programmes and widely disseminated as good practice guidance. Greater emphasis on capacity building, networking and technical backstopping to the emergency response and development interface would be much more conducive to FAO's comparative advantage.
- Seek funds for providing technical support and coordination to food security and economic development forums, such as the REDFS, DRMFSS Ag WG, HAB working group, etc.
 - Reduce efforts to raise funds for micro-projects; concentrate more on the design of field based activities for testing and documenting innovative approaches in a reduced number of locations.
 - With regard to seeds and crop diversification, change from a “distribution” mode to strategies that place greater emphasis on testing and demonstration, building extension and farmer capacities to recognize advantages and disadvantages of particular options and ensuring that there is widespread access to information on the various alternatives.
6. ***Strengthen the evidence base.*** Lack of reliable data remains a challenge in Ethiopia. FAO should review information system work completed to date and develop a clear plan for strategic support for capacity development in the area of food security and development statistics for the purpose of knowledge generation, sectoral M&E and policy support.
- **Strengthen FAO accountability.** FAO Ethiopia should investigate options for making FAO Ethiopia in general, and the DRRU in particular, more accountable in terms of synthesising results, substantiating impacts, assembling lessons learned, rather than merely enumerating delivered seeds and feeds. This will be to ensure greater long-term relevance of short-term funded emergency projects. Ideally each development project and programme should have an M & E system allowing for the systematic characterisation of available information on evolving good practices and summarizing lessons learnt.

- **Enhance the food security information system.** Support for food security information system development should continue; this will be highly relevant to the M & E framework for the new GTP, as well as NFSP. A particular contribution can be made in the re-analysis of chronically food insecure areas (the current criteria is a static analysis based on food aid history). To be more effective FAO should support ISFS data gathering in all of the key domains (not just production) and take full advantage of the recently updated livelihood atlas for Ethiopia.
 - **Include MDG hunger indicators.** FAO, together with UN partners, should advocate for the inclusion of the MDG hunger indicators (not just the poverty indicators) in the new macro-economic M&E framework (GTP).
7. **Raise the profile of SLM, forestry, pasturelands and fisheries management.** Due probably to the weight of emergency funding in FAO's project portfolio, attention to sectors other than crops is dramatically dwarfed, in spite of their importance in sustainable development and food security. Sustainable land and water management need to be streamlined in land-based development projects. Innovative methods to promote community-based natural resource management, including agro-forestry, soil and water conservation and land management with *kebele*, *woreda* and region involvement, should be promoted.
8. **Place greater emphasis on capacity building.** FAO needs to broaden its horizons in capacity building in Ethiopia, in line with FAO's core functions. Of particular relevance is capacity development in the areas of quality data assembly and synthesis, policy analysis and policy development. There is also a need for wider engagement with national (and regional) research institutes to both strengthen the evidence base of interventions, to engage a wider constituency, and to make a greater contribution to the rapidly expanding range of academic institutions in Ethiopia.
- Provide training (and with improved training materials) related to extension and agricultural technology, drawing on FAO's experience and normative products which target higher levels (such as ATVETs), so that the impact is broader and more sustainable.

In terms of seed production, recognize that many farmer seed producer groups have difficulty to emerge as independent commercial entities, but could have good prospects for becoming contract growers for regional or national seed enterprises, a few well-resourced cooperatives, or the private sector under the umbrella of bodies with the requisite skills, equipment and organization to market seed.

- Begin to work with appropriate seed enterprises to build their capacity to recognize and nurture good contract seed producer groups.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the evaluation

The evaluation of FAO's programmes and cooperation in Ethiopia in 2010 continues a series of national level evaluations of FAO's programmes that started in 2006. Country-focused evaluations examine all of FAO's work, including national projects, country participation in regional and global projects, the use made of normative products, and the performance of the FAO country representation. The key considerations in these strategic evaluations are the utility of the Organization's work to the Member Country and the extent to which this draws on FAO's comparative advantages.

In countries which have large portfolios of emergency and rehabilitation activities, programmatic evaluations are indicated¹ and in these cases the evaluations are often broadened to provide a country-wide perspective of FAO's contributions, including non-emergency activities. Since 2006 some eight country evaluations have been undertaken, which have included countries with large emergency programmes such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Tajikistan and Sudan².

The Ethiopia programme was selected for a country evaluation based on the overall size of the programme (> US\$55 million) and the fact that a large proportion of these activities are categorized as emergency-related and framed within a programmatic approach. Additionally, experience has shown that the usefulness of country evaluations are greatly enhanced when they are conducted at the time of a change in the FAO Representative, and when the National Medium Term Priority Framework (NMTPF)³, is under development. Both of these conditions apply in the case of Ethiopia. Based on all of the above considerations, Ethiopia was selected for a country evaluation during 2010, and the evaluation covered the 5-year period of 2005 – 2010. The original terms of reference are presented in Appendix 1.

1.2 Purpose and scope of the evaluation

The Ethiopia Country Evaluation has been an independent and forward looking process. It aims to improve the relevance and performance of FAO's interventions in the country, provide accountability, and advise on better formulation and implementation of future policies, strategies and activities. It provides FAO's stakeholders with a systematic and objective assessment of the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impacts and sustainability of the programmes and activities undertaken by FAO in Ethiopia, as well as of their performance in relation to cross-cutting issues such as gender mainstreaming, social inclusion, partnership and environmental conservation.

The evaluation considered all of FAO's work in Ethiopia during the period 2005- 2010, irrespective of the source of funding (regular programme or extra budgetary resources) or the location of project management (HQ, Regional Office or the FAOR). The evaluation also included an assessment of the

¹ Criteria: country programmes > US\$ 5 million

² <http://www.fao.org/pbe/pbee/common/ecg/380/en/SynthesisCountryEvaluations.pdf>

³ The NMTPF has been renamed the Country Planning Framework (CPF)

activities of the FAO representation which are not necessarily carried out through projects, as well as an examination of its capacity to perform efficiently and effectively.

1.3 Evaluation process

Given the significant investments by FAO in Ethiopia, and the large number of diverse projects and programmes undertaken over the period under review, the evaluation started with an in-depth preparatory phase during the first quarter of 2010, involving scoping interviews, documentation reviews, the creation of a project database and a portfolio analysis. The inception phase began with the recruitment of the independent team leader Brian Perry (BP). Documents prepared during the first phase were reviewed by BP, who undertook (accompanied by the evaluation manager Lori Bell) a one week inception mission to Ethiopia to brief staff and stakeholders on the evaluation, collect contextual documentation, and seek feedback from national stakeholders on key candidate issues for the attention of the evaluation team. Initial preparations were also made for launching two impacts assessments (Improving Nutrition and Household Security in Northern Shoa and Southern Tigray; and Improving Emergency Livestock Interventions in Pastoralist Areas).

An inception report was prepared by BP following the mission, which served to further refine the scope and methodologies for the evaluation. This document became the primary guidance for planning the work of the evaluation team (Appendix 3).

In the three months leading up to the evaluation mission, several specific data gathering and analysis activities were undertaken:

- An expert undertook a critical desk review of FAO's work in the management and disposal of pesticides. This was complemented by field verification during the main evaluation mission.
- Desk reviews of OED independent evaluations that have included Ethiopia were carried out to synthesize the main findings, conclusions and recommendations.
- Each team member prepared a 5-page desk review prior to the mission examining key opportunities and challenges in Ethiopia and FAO work within their specific sector or field of expertise; these contributed to the final evaluation framework.
- Impact assessments (IA) on the effectiveness of food security and nutrition (Tigray/Amhara regions) and livestock (Afar and Oromia regions) interventions using both qualitative and quantitative methods were completed (Appendices 8 & 9).

The main evaluation mission took place during the month of September 2010. This included interviews with programme stakeholders in FAO Rome, internal teamwork to discuss and further refine the evaluation framework, and interviews in Ethiopia over a 3 week period with a wide range of internal and external stakeholders in Addis Ababa and at multiple field sites. The field visits were undertaken to verify information collected through other channels as well as to obtain the views of primary beneficiaries and other stakeholders. A full programming for field visits is presented in Appendix 4.

At the end of the field mission, the team debriefed with both FAO and external stakeholders in Addis Ababa, and BP made a presentation of initial findings at FAO HQ. All team members contributed

information and analysis to this report, which has been compiled and edited by the Team Leader. A presentation of the final report will be made to the Consultative Group and to FAO at country level in January 2011 to allow for maximum dissemination and utilization of the information, analysis and recommendations made.

- *Evaluation criteria and framework for evaluation*

The team developed an evaluation framework that was progressively refined prior to the evaluation process in-country. This is presented in Appendix 5. In broad terms, FAO's performance was evaluated against the FAO strategic objectives⁴, the draft National Medium Term Priority Framework (NMTPF)⁵, the draft FAO Disaster Risk Management Plan of Action (PoA), and by review of projects implemented in the country.

⁴ A full listing of definitions, including FAO's strategic objectives and core functions, appears in Appendix 2.

⁵ The 4 strategic pillars of the draft NMTPF include: Policy advocacy for balanced developmental interventions and for accelerated production and productivity enhancement; Sustainable natural resources management; Enhancing public and private investment in agriculture and rural development; Seeking early and sustainable exit from persistent dependence of food security on emergency assistance).

2. The Ethiopia setting

2.1 *The enigma of a unique environment encompassing history, culture, independence and potential while embraced by poverty*

Ethiopia presents a unique environment with a history going back at least 3.2 million years when the Australopithecine lady Lucy inhabited the Awash Valley. Christianity arrived in the northern Axumite kingdom in the 4th Century, the written language of Geez dates back to the same era, and Islam has been present in Ethiopia since the early 7th Century. In more recent times, Ethiopia remained independent⁶ during the European scramble for Africa in the late 19th Century (save 6 years of occupation by the Italy from 1936 – 42).

The country was thrust into the world's gaze in 1973 with a dramatic famine, a situation which recurred in 1984 – 85 when the estimated death toll, questioned by some, was put at 1 million people. And there have been more famines, which have been widely reported, sustaining the unfortunate image of Ethiopia as the epitome of the African basket case country. But famines are not a 20th century phenomenon in Ethiopia; Brian Perry⁷ (1986) emphasised that there had been some 23 major famines between 1540 and 1800, and the most devastating famine of 1888 – 92 reputedly killed one third of the Ethiopian population. The country, and indeed the region, is prone to dramatic fluctuations in rainfall which, when combined with a growing and extremely poor population, have dramatic consequences.

But there is of course another side to Ethiopia. The country has a diverse set of agro-ecologies suitable for the production of staple crops, livestock, fruit, coffee, among many other commodities, and a historical and cultural heritage ideal for tourism. It is enjoying a period of political stability and economic growth, and there is a “wind of change” in both government and donor communities from a “coalition for food security” which followed the 2003 drought to a newly established “coalition for growth”. This is being accompanied by a new wave of initiatives for development and investment, in which agriculture is central.

2.2 *Seeking the balance between food security and economic development*

Ethiopia has a population of over 80 million people⁸, and a GDP *per capita* currently estimated at around US\$ 360⁹. The agriculture-based economy accounts for about half of GDP, 80% of exports¹⁰, and 80% of total employment. Within the agricultural sector, crops comprise 30% of GDP, livestock 40%¹¹ and forestry 4%. Production remains mainly rainfed at a peasant, smallholder producer level.

⁶ Liberia also remained independent, although the country had only been founded and colonized by freed American slaves 1821-1822.

⁷ Perry, B.D. (1986). The real cause of Ethiopia's problems. *Nature*, 319, 183.

⁸ <http://data.un.org/CountryProfile.aspx?crName=Ethiopia>

⁹

<http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2010/02/weodata/weorept.aspx?sy=2008&ey=2015&scsm=1&ssd=1&sort=country&ds=.&br=1&c=644&s=NGDPDPC%2CPPP%2CPPP&grp=0&a=&pr.x=65&pr.y=4>

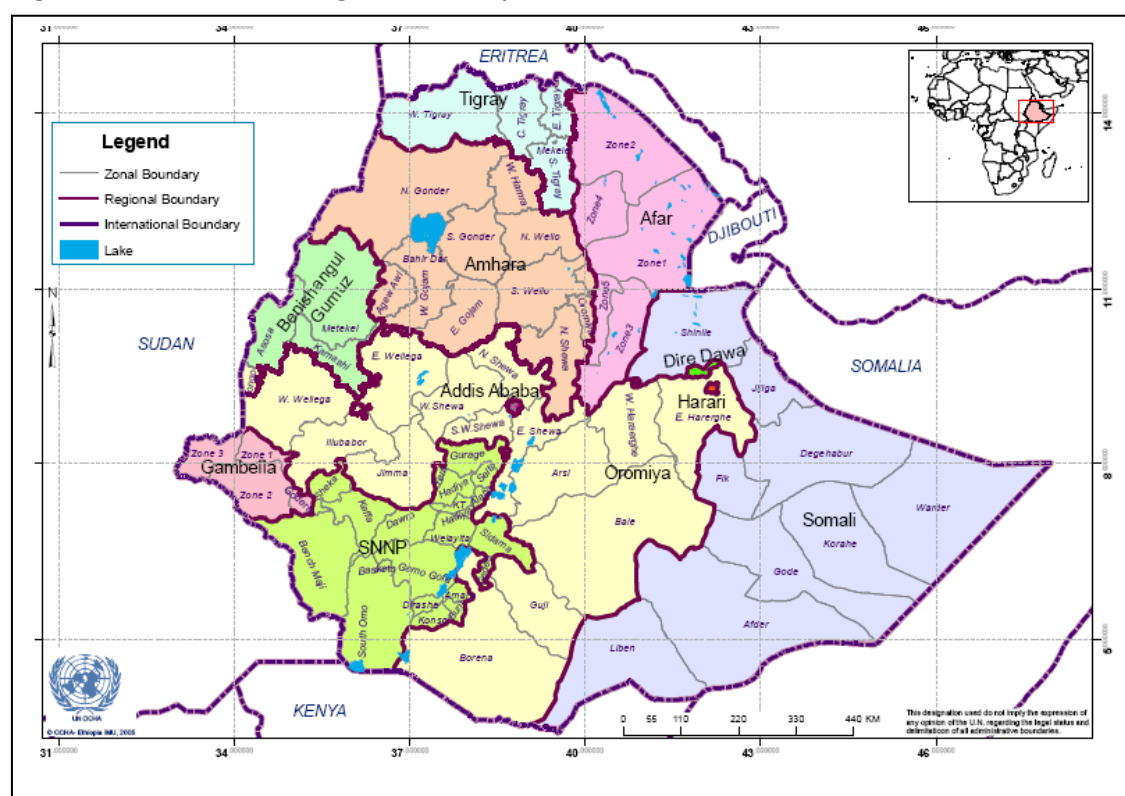
¹⁰ <http://www.nationsencyclopedia.com/economies/Africa/Ethiopia-AGRICULTURE.html>

¹¹ http://www.igad-lpi.org/publication/docs/policybriefs/IGADLPI_Brief_7.pdf

The principal crops include coffee, pulses, oilseeds, cereals, potatoes, sugarcane, and vegetables. Exports are almost entirely agricultural commodities, and coffee is the largest foreign exchange earner; there is also an increasingly important formal export of meat and to a lesser extent, live animals from Ethiopia. Ethiopia's relatively new flower industry is becoming an additional source of revenue. For 2005/2006 Ethiopia's coffee exports represented 0.9% of the world exports, while oilseeds and flowers each contributing 0.5% to the world market.

Despite Ethiopia's agricultural enterprises, a high and growing human population¹², recurrent droughts and periodic floods, complicated by climate change and accompanied by severe soil and landscape degradation in some regions, all contribute to a situation of national food insecurity. Most of the food-insecure areas are found in the marginal cropping zones of eastern and southern Tigray, eastern Amhara, lowland areas of eastern Oromia, the pastoral zones of Afar, the northern and south-eastern Somali region, the Gambela region and most of the low-lying zones of southern and central Southern nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR; see map of administrative regions of Ethiopia below).

Figure 1. Administrative regions of Ethiopia



With such a large population to feed, Ethiopia suffers from a structural or chronic food deficit. Ethiopia's Food Security Programme (FSP) combines a system of safety-nets, designed to close household food gaps and eliminate distressing asset sales, with food security interventions aimed at building household assets as a mechanism to pull households out of chronic food insecurity. On

¹² The human population is estimated at over 80 million, population growth is $\geq 2.6\%$ and population the estimated density is 73 persons/km².

average 10% of the population are benefiting from social assistance at any time, and Ethiopia has been the focus of a national safety-net experiment in which over 7 million people per year receive a combination of cash and or food assistance as direct support, or in exchange for labour in public works. The country has more than 80 ethnic groups, and diverse agro-ecologies ranging from temperate highlands to the below sea level environments of the Danakil depression. This diversity, and the contrasting challenges it poses, has led the GoE to adopt the valuable conceptualisation of “Three Ethiopias”; these are: Productive Ethiopia, Pastoral Ethiopia and Hungry Ethiopia¹³. The classification is an expression of differing household livelihood capacities, each of which may contribute to growth and development in different ways, and each of which must be addressed accordingly. “Productive Ethiopia” (estimated to be 45 million people) has the potential to increase food availability and thus reduce prices. The challenge of “Pastoral Ethiopia” (estimated at 12-14 million) is to maximize productivity and increase resilience to shock (mainly drought) without upsetting the environmental equilibrium so essential to food security in pastoral areas. “Hungry Ethiopia” (estimated at 15-20 million) includes households with small farms on degraded soils and limited means of production. Some households in this latter group can likely achieve sustainable food security through integrated and diversified agricultural enterprises alone. Others require a combination of on- and off-farm activities to survive. Exclusively off-farm activities present the main opportunity to achieve food security for the remainder.

The strategic planning framework for Ethiopia has been in place for the past five years; the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP)¹⁴, runs from 2006/07 to 2010/11. The updated PASDEP, renamed the 5 year Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP), was released in draft form in September 2010. Linked to the PASDEP and GTP, the UNDAF 2007-2011 was developed with the participation of FAO, with FAO contributing specifically to defining the cooperation strategy for enhanced economic growth. An important civil service reform programme, linked to the Government’s strategy for decentralization and to a GoE-donor programme to build public sector capacity¹⁵, has been in operation over the last decade. Other key strategies in the area of food security and rural development include the recently approved Ethiopia Strategic Investment Framework (ESIF) for sustainable land management and the Agricultural Development Lead Industrialization (ADLI) Strategy.

2.3 Development and trade aspirations

The GoE has overseen the emergence of several key development initiatives, covering agriculture, rural development and industrialisation. The ADLI strategy is the GoE’s overarching policy response to Ethiopia’s food security and agricultural productivity challenge. Its distinctive features include:

¹³ http://www.feedthefuture.gov/documents/FTF_2010_Implementation_Plan_Ethiopia.pdf

¹⁴ <http://www.eap.gov.et/About-MoARD/Strategy.asp>

¹⁵ Public Sector Capacity Building Programme: PSCAP Mid-term Evaluation Inception Report Final draft – 18th November 2007. The objective of the Public Sector Capacity Building Program (PSCAP) Support Project for Ethiopia is to improve the scale, efficiency, and responsiveness of public service delivery at the federal, regional, and local level; to empower citizens to participate more effectively in shaping their own development; and to promote good governance and accountability.

- commercialization of smallholder agriculture through product diversification;
- a shift to higher-value crops;
- promotion of niche high-value export crops;
- support for the development of large-scale commercial agriculture;
- effective integration of farmers with domestic and external markets; and
- tailoring of interventions to address the specific needs of the country's varied agro-ecological zones.

The strategy promotes the use of labour-intensive methods to increase output and productivity by applying chemical inputs, diversifying production, and utilizing improved agricultural technologies. ADLI also emphasizes the importance of distinguishing agro-ecological zones and tailoring strategies as well as interventions for optimal development outcomes. This distinction guides the differentiated interventions needed to promote cross-sectoral and integrated growth.

2.4 Investments in agricultural growth and food security

2.4.1 International donor cooperation. Over the past five years, net international donor assistance to Ethiopia has steadily grown. In the agriculture, food security and rural development sector, an estimated USD 3.7 billion¹⁶ has been made available annually through both national programmes and individual projects¹⁷. Five donors have provided 80% of this aid (USAID, WB, WFP, DFID, CIDA). Roughly two-thirds of this funding is made available through GoE, with NGOs being the next largest category of recipients. Multi-lateral agencies receive only an estimated 3% of the envelope. At present only 12% of the funding is allocated for the agricultural production area (agricultural growth and sustainable land management), with the vast majority of funds being provided to support the national FSP (in particular the PSNP component).

However, the balance of funding is shifting. Significant donor commitments have been made against the GoE National Agricultural Growth Programme (AGP - the total programme is estimated to be US\$ 253 million). The Global Agriculture and Food Security Programme (GAFSP) Trust Fund¹⁸, a multilateral financing mechanism administered by the World Bank to assist in the implementation of pledges made by the G8+ leaders at the L'Aquila Summit in July 2009, has committed US\$ 51 million to the AGP. In addition, in September 2010, WB committed an additional US\$ 150 million in credit (75%) and grant (25%) from IDA funds for the AGP¹⁹.

2.4.2 Other international development investments. One of the arms of Ethiopia's growth programme is opening the door to larger scale investment in agriculture, both domestic, diasporan and international. Ethiopia has already committed to providing some 1.7 million hectares of arable

¹⁶ Representing 12% of total ODA

¹⁷ REDFS Presentation - August 2010

¹⁸

¹⁹ <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTARD/0,,contentMDK:22598008~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:336682,00.html>

¹⁹ <http://www.gafspfund.org/gafsp/content/ethiopia>

land (of the 2.7 million hectares designated as available) to foreign investors²⁰. Countries such as Saudi Arabia, India, and China has already invested in sub-sectors such as floriculture, meat, biofuel production, rice cultivation, tea, sugarcane, cotton and oil production.

2.4.3 Coordination of development assistance. Donor partnership with, and investment in, Ethiopia continues to play a hugely important role in the country's development and emergency response, and FAO is one of many players in this arena. It is important to recognise however that GoE positions itself very squarely in the driving seat, ensuring that it leads from the front on policy and strategy development. While this is understandable and admirable, it means that all engaged in Ethiopia's development must play by the GoE rules.

The donors have a long established tradition of intra-donor information sharing, having established in 2001 the Donor Assistance Group (DAG)²¹. The DAG has established a number of thematic sectoral working groups. While there has been a multi-donor programme and coordination mechanism for food security for some time now (in particular the PSNP), it was only in 2008 that a broader agriculture working group was established, the Rural Economic Development and Food Security (REDFS) sectoral working group. The REDFS SWG includes three technical committees: agricultural growth, sustainable land management, and disaster risk management and food security. The REDFS secretariat includes one GoE and one donor representative. Until recently the donor representative was provided by FAO and housed in the FAO office; with the recent departure of the FAO staff member, the donors have decided to recruit the new representative directly under a World Bank contract, and to be housed at the World Bank in Addis Ababa.

2.4.4 Funding of humanitarian aid. Humanitarian aid is financed through separate funding mechanisms. The EC/ECHO and USAID/OFDA are the largest donors to emergency responses. While most donors fund implementing agencies directly, there has also been the establishment of a response funding pool called the "Humanitarian Response Fund (HRF)". The process for replenishment of this fund is through semi-annual needs assessments which result in the development of a Humanitarian Requirements Document (HRD); this is a joint GoE and partner appeal for food and non-food aid financing. The HRD developed for 2010, for example, identified the need of food and non-food emergency assistance for over 5 million people, and made a funding requested for USD 340 million. However the GoE has indicated in the new GTP that reducing food aid is an important priority; the DRMFS announced in November 2009 that only people in the 'survival' deficit category would be targeted with emergency food assistance.

2.4.5 The United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). In alignment with the GoE's PASDEP, the UN agencies formulated a four-year (2007-2011) UNDAF. Five inter-related areas of cooperation emerged as of particular importance for UN support. These are:

- Humanitarian Response, Recovery and Food Security
- Basic Social Services and Human Resources

²⁰ Weissleder, L. (2009). Foreign Direct Investment in the Agricultural Sector in Ethiopia in ECOFAIR TRADE DIALOGUE, Discussion Papers, No.12/October 2009 http://www.ecofair-trade.org/pics/en/FDIs_Ethiopia_15_10_09_c.pdf

²¹ DAG includes 26 bilateral and multilateral donors to Ethiopia. UNDP acts as secretariat to the DAG.

- HIV/AIDS
- Good Governance
- Enhanced Economic Growth (FAO lead agency)

An important approach consistent with the principles of alignment and harmonization is the use of National Execution as the main modality for GoE/UN cooperation under the UNDAF. Interviews with FAO and UN agencies in Addis Ababa indicate that FAO administrative rules are not flexible enough to allow FAO to comply with NEX guiding operational principles. Under the UNDAF, several joint programmes have been formulated. The UN in Ethiopia does not lead in the area of humanitarian aid coordination (such as using the Cluster approach²²), unlike the situation in many other countries that experience recurrent emergencies. Instead UN agencies support the DRMFS early warning, safety net, and other preparedness and response capacities.

2.5 *The food security dilemma*

Although there has been significant economic growth in Ethiopia since the end of the civil conflict almost 20 years ago, the country is still not self sufficient in staple food production. This is due in part to the high and growing human population, poor soil fertility, environmental degradation in some regions, and inadequate investment in agriculture. Recurrent shocks such as drought and sometimes flooding also regularly affect food production.

GDP is increasing and there is domestic commercial expansion due to significant GoE investments in rural infrastructure. Nevertheless the purchasing power (effective demand) of rural households remains weak with almost 40% of the rural population living in poverty. Urban areas are somewhat better off and food balance sheet gaps are filled in part by commercial imports of staple foods, in particular wheat (0.5 million tonnes imported/year). However, a large part of the food gap has been filled historically by food aid imports. Ethiopia is WFP's largest country programme globally (600-800 million US\$/year) and they currently provide food assistance to over 9 million people²³ (approximately 10% of the population) through relief distributions to households affected by disasters such as droughts and floods, and as support to chronically food insecure households assisted by the national PSNP. Even when there is enough food produced and/or the population has sufficient income to purchase food, there are other important factors that affect food consumption and nutritional status that are related to food habits and health status. Lack of diversity in food consumption contributes to the high prevalence of micro-nutrient deficiencies, in particular iodine, vitamin A and iron/folic acid, which result in conditions such as goitre, night blindness and anaemia and adversely affect child development. Almost half of Ethiopian children²⁴ suffer from stunting and/or are underweight for their age due to a combination of the above factors.

²² <http://ochaonline.un.org/roap/WhatWeDo/HumanitarianReform/tabid/4487/Default.aspx>

²³ www.wfp.org/countries/ethiopia

²⁴ Protein energy malnutrition in boys is more common than in girls, is more frequent amongst rural households, and exhibits regional variation with highest rates being found in Tigray and Amhara. (World Bank, 2001).

Table 1. Ethiopia: Grain supply/demand balance, 2009 (1,000 tonnes)

	Teff	Wheat	Barley	Maize	Sorghum	Finger Millet	Others	Total cereals	Pulses	Cereals & Pulses
Total production	3 058	2 654	1 642	4 398	2 955	536	129	15 373	2 012	17 385
<i>Meher (long rains)</i>	3 028	2 589	1 522	4 098	2 934	533	114	14 819	1 966	16 785
<i>Belg (short rains)</i>	30	65	120	300	21	3	15	554	46	600
Total utilization (needs for food, seed, feed, losses and export)	3 080	3 142	1 672	4 555	3 065	536	141	16 191	2 067	18 258

Source: GIEWS-CFSAM 2009

In 2004 the GoE, together with development partners, launched a large scale consultation process called the New Coalition for Food Security. Debates at the time sought to differentiate better between the underlying causes of food insecurity and malnutrition. This led to the development of the national FSP 2005-2009. The core objectives of the FSP were (a) to assist 5 million *chronically* food insecure people attain food security, and (b) to improve significantly the food security of up to 10 million additional food insecure people within five years. This programme had three main elements (all coordinated by DRMFSS section, MoARD):

- **Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP)**, involving cash and/or food transfers during the hungry season to approximately 5 million chronically food insecure households, either through direct assistance or through public works projects in 263 chronically food insecure *woredas* in eight regions.
- **Voluntary Resettlement** of chronically food insecure households to areas where there are availability of land, some inputs and service provision (i.e. water, roads, public services). To date approximately 150,000 households have been resettled.
- **Other food security projects (OFSP)**, which include credit and extension services to build household assets for another 10 million chronically food insecure households.

In its implementation, much focus was placed on the PSNP component and the target of 5 million beneficiaries was eventually surpassed (today an estimated 7.8 million households receive PSNP assistance). Unfortunately, evaluations and reviews of the PSNP carried out in 2009 indicated that there had been no significant “graduation” of PSNP beneficiaries; while there has been a shift away

from a dependence on emergency relief, there now seems to be a dependency on the institutionalized safety net assistance²⁵. This is said to be due in part to a lack of focus on OFSP/HAB support for PSNP beneficiaries.

In terms of disaster risk reduction and management, the GoE has focussed on strengthening the early warning, surveillance and monitoring system, and on response mechanisms (such as the management of the Ethiopian Strategic Food Reserve, and the coordination of food and relief distributions for the *acutely* food insecure). The main GoE entity responsible for addressing emergencies has been restructured several times over the past 10 years, and is today housed within the Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector (DRMFSS) of the MoARD.

A draft National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management (NPDRM) was prepared at the end of 2009 and is currently pending approval. The main objectives of the NPDRM²⁶ are:

- Reduce disaster risks and vulnerability that hinder development. This will be achieved by focusing on proactive measures, establishing a culture of risk reduction in regular development programmes, and by addressing the underlying causes of recurrent disasters.
- Save lives and protect livelihoods in the event of disasters, and ensure the recovery and rehabilitation of all disaster-affected populations.
- Promote the resilience of people vulnerable to disasters and thereby combat dependency on relief resources.
- Ensure that institutions and activities for DRM are mainstreamed to all sectors, coordinated, integrated in regular development programmes and implemented at all levels

Over the last few years, both GoE and donors have adjusted their position away from food security (with its focus on vulnerability) towards economic growth. The new GTP 2010-2015 promotes a vision of agricultural modernization and large scale commercial farming as a means of increasing household income and safeguarding food security. The new programme envisions an expansion of extension services to support HAB as a strategy for “graduating” as many households as possible from the PSNP (the target is to reduce PSNP beneficiaries from 7.8 million to 1.3 million by the end of the period). This phasing out of direct assistance will require careful monitoring of household vulnerability. The draft GTP has an indicative list of macro-economic and social indicators within its monitoring framework within which many of the MDG targets have been incorporated. Unfortunately key indicators of food insecurity, hunger and malnutrition (MDG1), have not yet been included²⁷.

²⁵ 56,895 households have been graduated off the PSNP. The concept and benchmarks (asset based) for graduation are not clear and the new FSP states that a new approach needs to be considered. Food Security Programme 2010-2014. Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. August 2009.

²⁶ Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management (Draft Document; Version 8). December 2009

²⁷ The new FSP does, however, include food access and malnutrition, i.e. by 2015, 80% of all households in rural Ethiopia access sufficient food at all times for an active and healthy life in the absence of PSNP transfers [food security]; by 2015 malnutrition among children under 2 years of age decreases by 1.5% per year on average.

2.6 The crop sector

Agriculture represents over 40% of Ethiopia's GDP and provides more than 80% of employment. Cereals alone account for 75% of cropped area and average land holding is very small, with half the farms under 1 hectare (and a third of them less than 0.5 ha). Ethiopia has been following the ADLI strategy for nearly two decades, and the new GTP for 2011-15 still sees the agricultural sector as the principal engine of growth.

An example of the government's commitment to agriculture is the very high investment in agricultural extension, with the assignment of development agents (DAs) to every *kebele*. The extension services face many challenges, including resource constraints and a wide range of technical and administrative responsibilities that leave little time for actual technology transfer. The GTP envisions that the number of extension beneficiaries will nearly triple in the next five years and that agricultural research-extension linkages will be strengthened substantially.

Although the GTP promotes market-orientated agricultural production, much of the emphasis is on private-sector investment in large-scale agribusiness through land leasing or similar arrangements, with smallholder participation through modalities such as contract farming. The place of small- and medium-scale agribusiness is not well articulated in the GTP, and the cooperative system remains the backbone of government aspirations for a "transparent and efficient agricultural marketing system" for smallholder output. Currently less than 20% of staple crop production is marketed, and surveys show that autarky (neither buying nor selling) characterizes the position of about half of grain-growing households²⁸.

Irrigation and water management for agriculture also receive attention in the GTP. Currently there is little more than 1% of cropped land under conventional irrigation, and a slightly larger area under what is called "traditional irrigation"²⁹. There are plans to bring more land under conventional irrigation schemes as well as support for small-scale irrigation methods.

The use of commercial seed is quite low, except for hybrid maize, and although the proportion of fields using modern varieties (MVs) is relatively high for a few crops, including bread wheat and maize, most of the varieties are quite old. Fertilizer use is also quite low³⁰. Seed and fertilizer are marketed almost exclusively through primary cooperatives. Most credit for inputs is provided in kind, managed through cooperatives, local government offices and microfinance institutions, but it is in short supply.

The government maintains considerable control over seed production and marketing and even the few private seed producers must provide their production data and submit to government seed allocation directives. There are several emerging regional seed enterprises and the well established

²⁸ J. Pender and D. Alemu (2007) *Determinants of Smallholder Commercialization of Food Crops: Theory and Evidence from Ethiopia*, Washington, DC: IFPRI.

²⁹ S. Awulachew, D. Merrey, B. van Koopen., A. Kamara,, F. Penning de Vries, E. Boelee (n.d.) *Roles, Constraints and Opportunities of Small Scale Irrigation and Water Harvesting in Ethiopian Agricultural Development: Assessment of Existing Situation*, IWMI.

³⁰ D. Byerlee, D. Spielman, D. Alemu, M. Gautam (2007) *Policies to Promote Cereal Intensification in Ethiopia*, Washington, DC: IFPRI.

national Ethiopian Seed Enterprise (ESE), but there is an emphasis on local seed production organized by cooperatives or agricultural bureaus and the GTP emphasizes that “as much as possible the necessary inputs will be produced by the farmers themselves”.

2.7 *The livestock sector*

Within agriculture, livestock comprises an extremely important sector of the Ethiopian economy, contributing an estimated 18.8% to the national GDP and 40% to the agricultural GDP³¹, supporting the livelihoods of up to 70% of the country’s population. Ethiopia has a wide ranging livestock resource comprising multiple species kept under several different and often contrasting production systems and environments. These differences are driven mainly by agro-ecology, socioeconomic circumstances and market access. The estimated livestock population is approximately 43 million cattle, 23 million sheep, 18 million goats, 1.7 million camels, 34 million chickens, 4.8 million beehives, 6.5 million equines and 40,000 t of annually harvestable fish (CSA, 2008).

In general terms highland areas are dominated by smallholder production systems with relatively small herd and flock sizes, often at a subsistence level, while the lowlands are characterized by larger multi-species herds kept under pastoral and agro-pastoral systems. Livestock productivity in both highland and pastoralist production systems are low and severely constrained by complex interacting factors of poor nutrition and health care, low genetic potential of the indigenous breeds, under-developed infrastructure, subsistent production mode and poor market linkages for value addition. The absence of a clear policy and strategy, to turn the huge resource into a viable economic industry, has also hampered the development of the livestock subsector.

Ethiopia had been exporting live animals, animal products, and various bi-products (including leather goods) since the 1950’s to many countries. The country currently exports live animals to Yemen, Sudan and Djibouti, and chilled sheep and goat carcasses to Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Yemen, Djibouti and Congo Brazzaville.

Both highland and pastoral systems are constrained by many infectious and vector-borne infectious diseases, and characterised by weak animal health services to address these. However, Ethiopia has made substantial progress in boosting its veterinary service capacity over the last few decades. At the time of the fall of Haile Selassie there were 28 vets in the country³², all trained overseas; there will apparently soon be 11 veterinary schools in Ethiopia (which brings a different set of challenges) and Ethiopia has taken a leading role internationally in recognising and setting standards for a diversified animal health service that includes Community Animal Health Workers (CAHW).

Over the last 50 years, various national livestock development projects have been carried out. The First Livestock Development Project (F1LDP), known as the Addis Ababa Dairy Development Project, was started in 1972 with loan from the World Bank. It was designed to set up small and medium sized individual dairy farms in *woredas* around Addis Ababa. More recently, the National Livestock Development Project (NLDP), the Pan-African Programme for the Control of Epizootics (PACE), and Farming in Tsetse Infested areas (FITCA) have been operational at the national level. NLDP is now

³¹ http://www.igad-lpi.org/publication/docs/policybriefs/IGADLPI_Brief_7.pdf

³² The independent evaluation team leader was one of them

being implemented throughout the country in both highlands and pastoral areas. With a soft loan from the African Development Fund, it has three main components: animal health improvement; strengthening of artificial insemination services to develop the cattle improvement programme; and forage development. Several other livestock development projects are also underway currently with support from various sources³³. These include the Integrated Livestock Development Project (ILDP) in North Gondar financed by the Austrian Government; various USAID supported projects (such as the Ethiopian Dairy Development Project implemented by Land O' Lakes; the Sanitary and Phytosanitary Livestock Meat Marketing Project led by Texas A&M University; and the Ethiopian Sheep and Goat Productivity Improvement project implemented by Prairie View A&M University in Texas and the American Institute for Goat Research of Langston University, Oklahoma). In addition, there is the Pastoralist Livelihood project (PLI) supported by the World Bank, and various projects implemented by NGOs.

Animal health status. Ethiopia has many infectious and other diseases of livestock, constraining livelihoods, productivity, market access and international trade in livestock and livestock products. Until quite recently this included rinderpest, which entered Africa from India in what is now Eritrea in the late 1880s, spreading south to Cape Town and devastating the African cattle and wildlife populations. Rinderpest was last observed in Ethiopia in 1995, and the country Ethiopia has been certified free of the disease since May 2005. The Pan African efforts to control rinderpest provided substantial support and impetus to the development of veterinary services in the country

Other major diseases endemic in the country include contagious bovine and caprine pleuropneumonia (CBPP; CCPP), foot-and-mouth disease (FMD), Peste des Petits Ruminants (PPR), sheep and pox, anthrax, blackleg, haemorrhagic septicaemia, brucellosis, bovine cysticercosis and bovine tuberculosis. The tick-borne diseases of babesiosis, anaplasmosis and heartwater are widely distributed, but East Coast fever (*Theileria parva* infection) does not occur despite the apparent suitability for its vector the brown ear tick. Tsetse-transmitted trypanosomiasis is endemic in certain western parts of the country. Rabies is endemic in much of Ethiopia, where it has another dimension as causing the decline in the endangered Ethiopian wolf populations of the Bale Mountains.

Other animal health constraints in Ethiopia include the erratic availability of therapeutic drugs, the widespread misuse of drugs, and the difficulties in controlling the use of inefficacious generic drugs. Often difficult to measure, one of the indicators of this is the widespread resistance to acaricides, antibiotics and chemotherapeutics.

The country's veterinary services have elements at federal, region, woreda and kebele level. These include various institutions under the control of the veterinary department such as the National Animal Health Research Centre at Sebeta, and the National Veterinary Institute in Debre Zeit, responsible for producing vaccines for a number of livestock diseases. Under the Quarantine, Inspection and Veterinary Public Health office are 5 export abattoirs (Debre Zeit, Mojo, Metahara),

³³ Source: Tegegne, A., Gebremedin, B., Hoekstra, D. (2010). Livestock input supply and service provision in Ethiopia: challenges and opportunities for market oriented development.
<http://mahider.ilri.org/bitstream/10568/1988/1/WP%2020.pdf>

abattoirs under construction (Bahr Dar, Jimma, Mekelle), 3 operational quarantine stations (Adama, Dire Dawa, Metema) and 3 border check posts (Jigjiga, Moyale and Bole Airport).

2.8 *Natural Resource management*

2.8.1 Land, land tenure and land management in Ethiopia.

Constitutionally, land belongs to the state. The on-going land reform aims to improve access to land and strengthen the security of land tenure through the issuance of land-use or lease certificates. This process has started in rural areas. A Federal Rural Land Proclamation was enacted in 2005 to consolidate the process of land certification. However the process is currently based largely on informal demarcation of land in the absence of cadastral surveys for permanent certification. The right to sale, mortgage or exchange is prohibited, which may make banks reluctant to provide credit to farmers.

As far as land management is concerned, the problems facing Ethiopia are mainly due to rapid population growth³⁴ and inappropriate land management practices, soil erosion, deforestation, water resource depletion, loss of biodiversity, and degradation of fisheries resources³⁵.

With regard to the administration of natural resources, the federal government structure, involving decentralization of political power, provides a good framework for participatory natural resource management. However, there are overlaps and gaps in responsibility (federal, regions, *woreda*) in deciding the management, conservation and use of state owned natural resources such as forests, and enforcing protection and conservation laws. On the political level (federal, regions, *woredas*, *kebeles*) there is a good understanding of land degradation and environmental scarcity issues.

2.8.2 Forestry

Ethiopia's forests cover only about 13 million ha (11.9% of its land). Another 44.6 million ha are under "other wooded land". The estimated rate of annual deforestation is 1.1%. The net annual decrease in forests between 1990 and 2005 was 141,000 ha. The drivers of deforestation include:

- Demographic pressure and socio-economic conditions in the rural areas;
- Bushfire particularly in the drier parts of the country;
- Conversion to agriculture by encroachment and resettlement, especially in the south and east;
- Cutting for firewood and rural house construction;
- Poor management and illegal cutting;
- Livestock overgrazing³⁶.

³⁴ 524 inhabitants per square km of arable land

³⁵ The main instrument for financing SLM over the period under review has been the PSNP (watershed protection). More recently GoE has developed a new ESIF for SLM (March 2010) to which FAO contributed.

³⁶ About 25% of Ethiopia's livestock populations graze in the rangelands that are found in the dry lowlands of the east, southeast, and south, while the remaining 75% are kept in the highlands, leading to serious overgrazing in areas already under high agrarian pressure.

Existing information indicates that in 2006 forests contribute 5.2% of the country's GDP³⁷. The GoE is planning to develop a new National Programme in collaboration with FAO based on the review of the previous action programme for forestry. In December 2007, the Government established a partnership agreement with the National Forest Programme (NFP) facility.

2.8.3 Water

The rainfall in Ethiopian highlands is high and adequate for food crop production and pasture. The estimated annual surface runoff is close to 122 billion m³. The potential for irrigation is high and it is believed that irrigation can help reverse the diminishing productivity of these highlands where it is estimated that irrigated areas cover no more than 3-5%.

The geographical and temporal distribution of these water resources is uneven. Between 80-90% of the country's surface water resources are found within four major river basins. The GoE policy is aimed at achieving higher water contribution to the national economy through the development of the country's water resources and expansion of irrigation schemes so that agriculture production is improved. In the MoARD strategic planning framework³⁸, there is a sub-component on community-based participatory development of water resources for irrigation and aquaculture, with a focus on those areas where soil and water resources have the potential to support sustainable rural livelihoods based on medium to large scale (100-200 ha).

2.8.4 Fisheries

Even though Ethiopia is a land locked country, it has several lakes and rivers with the potential for fisheries; these are becoming a valuable asset and contribute to the national economy. Annual catches are still below the estimated potential yields, although some lakes are known to be heavily exploited due to weak enforcement of the existing regulations.

Ethiopian fisheries specialists recognize the potential to integrate fish farming with agriculture, animal husbandry and irrigation practices. This integration can lead to better utilization of water resources, improve livelihoods and contribute to food security. An additional advantage would be the reduction of pressure on the land; and a contribution to the reduction of land degradation.

The fisheries and aquaculture strategy is spelled out in the Government's strategy as follows (Ministry of Water Resources, 2001): Undertake proper assessment, preservation and enrichment of aquatic resources in rivers and lakes; and incorporate aquatic resources development in large scale water resources master plan studies.

2.8.6 The problem of obsolete agricultural pesticides

Lack of pesticide management capacities in Ethiopia has resulted in the accumulation of large stocks of obsolete pesticides³⁹, giving the potential for heavy soil contamination with direct impact on

³⁷ Information from a note prepared by the Forestry Department of FAO in January 2010 under the title "Summary Brief on the Forestry Sector in Ethiopia".

³⁸ Ethiopian Strategic Investment Framework for Sustainable Land Management, MOARD, March 2010

³⁹ Estimates of hazardous pesticide stockpiles targeted for disposal are approximately 5,000 MT.

public health and side effects on biodiversity and natural ecosystems. Furthermore, there has been a steady increase in the volume of pesticides that Ethiopia imports to address the problem of low productivity of its agricultural sector. In spite of the increasing pesticides imports, the registration and post registration schemes lacked efficiency and this results in substandard and hazardous pesticides continuing to circulate in the country, and being exported. The high level of pesticide residues not only jeopardize external trade, but also constitute a food safety threat to consumers.

2.9 NRM in Ethiopia's development context

The PASDEP defined an overall strategic frame that can guide programmes for sustainably using and managing the country's natural resources in these overarching directions:

- Ensuring prudent allocation and use of existing land;
- Integrating development activities with other sectors;
- Pursuing a geographically differentiated strategy.

In watershed development, major activities in the areas of natural resource management include sustainable land use and forests development, soil and water conservation, and water management for irrigation development. In soil and water conservation, conservation-based resource management is to be pursued to control soil erosion losses from cultivated lands with varying slopes.

In forest resource management, the plan aimed to introduce tree cover to about 4.7 million hectares of degraded areas (about 5% of the total area) during the 5 years of its duration. It also intended to survey and map 1.44 million ha to better understand the extent and spatial distribution of dense forests, as well as to determine their capacity and implement a sustainable management plan.

In water management for irrigation, the plan calls for an effort to promote and strengthen small-scale irrigation schemes, and improved water use efficiency, including strengthening water harvesting and utilization practices through provision of appropriate technologies. An area of 487,000 hectares of land are planned to be cultivated by the use of irrigation.

In sustainable land management, the aim has been to develop and strengthen the natural resource information system, with a database established at *woreda* level in 550 *woredas*. To utilize natural resources in a sustainable manner, the preparation of land-use plans has analysed the suitability of land in 18 watersheds. In the period of the Plan, the 6,783,181 households without a first level land certificate are designated to receive it in four regions (Amhara, Oromia, SNNPR and Tigray).

In fisheries development, the activities to be undertaken revolve around the introduction of appropriate technology that provides for proper care of existing lakes, as well as produce fish without damaging the natural balance of the fish population. Fisheries development will be undertaken in water bodies where the potential is not fully exploited.

In pastoral areas, the plan mentions interventions aimed at pastoral development, such as the provision of water supplies for the community and their livestock. It considers that the provision of drinking water and grazing land and extension services for livestock production are an essential component of support to the pastoral communities.

3. FAO in Ethiopia: Programmes and management

3.1 Strategic Framework and Priority Setting for FAO Ethiopia

During the period under review the FAO governing bodies undertook a vigorous, extensive and far-reaching reform of FAO, the implementation of which still continues. This is aimed at making FAO as a whole closer and more relevant to its stakeholders, and more efficient and effective in delivering its mandate and services to the international community of agriculture. One aspect of the FAO reform has been to accelerate decentralization, in theory transferring greater authority and resources to the regional, sub-regional and country offices. Country level strategic planning has been promoted as an important tool for designing the FAO cooperation framework.

In Ethiopia, the FAOR initiated the preparation of a draft NMTPF, setting forth the vision and priorities of FAO Ethiopia for the next five years. Although the draft NMTPF was prepared almost two years ago, the process of finalization has been discontinued as the FAOR felt that he could not accommodate the diverse internal views, and felt that the quality of the resulting draft was poor⁴⁰. It has been neither approved by HQs nor by the relevant authorities of the GoE. The evaluation team was told by one FAO source that the GoE had advised FAOR to delay finalization of the NMTPF so it could be done in alignment with the new medium-term strategic framework of the GoE⁴¹ (which was made public in September 2010 during the visit of the Evaluation Mission). Although such advice from the GoE is understandable, it is difficult to accept this as the only and true reason to halt the NMTPF process in view of the fact that other UN agencies, including UNDP, have developed their own sectoral strategic frameworks with the due endorsement of the relevant authorities of GoE. Furthermore, the MoARD expressed to the mission their keen interest in discussing with FAO their strategy in Ethiopia. Importantly, a meeting between the two institutions was held in March 2010 at which the MoARD expressed concerns about the large number of small and apparently fragmented emergency projects of FAO. The conclusions and recommendations of the meeting were published in the MoARD newsletter. Although this high level meeting ended with an agreement to continue a dialogue on the ways forward for better partnership, the mission was advised that FAO had not followed up on this, and no subsequent meetings or discussions had taken place.

The Evaluation Mission reviewed the draft NMTPF. The document is indeed in a draft form and incomplete; not only is the opening statement (preface) of FAO not formulated, but certain figures are blank and the indicators and resources required are not provided, among many other inadequacies. According to the guidelines for the preparations of NMTPFs issued by HQs, it should be prepared in consultation with a broad group of stakeholders in the country and with the inputs of relevant technical units of HQs and the Regional Office. However, the Evaluation Mission found little evidence of seriousness in FAO as a whole in jointly supporting and launching the NMTPF for Ethiopia; the relevant technical units of HQs and RAF do not appear to have offered any significant contributions to the draft document. The TC led 'country focus team' in Rome has not formally reviewed the document or provided feedback. It does not appear that adequate consultation with the relevant government entities, UN sister agencies and donor and NGO partners have taken place. The government officials and partners whom the Mission interviewed were not aware of FAO's

⁴⁰ *Ipsa dixit*, Mafa Chipeta, at the mission debriefing in FAO HQ on 4th October 2010.

⁴¹ "Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) 2010/11-2014/15"

intention to launch its NMTPF, including the Director of UN Agencies & Regional Economic Cooperation Directorate, Ministry Finance and Economic Development (MoFED).

The evaluation team heard a view from the UN Resident Coordinator that FAO could amply elaborate its strategic visions and priority programmes within the UNDAF without the need for a separate document. As the new UNDAF for the next five years (2011-2015) is currently being formulated, FAO can indeed take this opportunity to advance its priorities for the next five years in the UNDAF. Nevertheless, it is the view of the Evaluation Mission that FAO should endeavour to clarify, establish and confirm its comparative advantages, visions and priorities through a clear Road Map (in the form of the CPF), which should support the GTP of the GoE and specific agriculture strategies and national programmes (AGP, FSP, ADLI, SLMP) and be in line with the new UNDAF. Its importance in promoting the image and comparative advantage of FAO for the purpose of securing its role at the policy table and leveraging development resources should not be underestimated.

The mission also reviewed the DRM Plan of Action (PoA). Similarly to the NMTPF, the PoA has been a document in progress for some time. Formulated in 2009, it was still only in draft form during the mission in October 2010 (albeit in much more advanced form than the NMTPF). Interviews with staff indicate that there has been considerable tension created by the development of this planning and programming tool. Originally understood to be a TCE Ethiopia emergency plan, the FAOR reportedly saw this as contrary to the One FAO image and approach that he was endeavouring to create. In the latest draft version of the document, it more clearly reflects FAO Ethiopia's approach to disaster risk management (and the FAO corporate guidance related to TCE's role in coordinating, but not necessarily managing, emergency prevention, preparedness, response and recovery work under Strategic Objective I⁴²).

3.2 Technical focus of FAO in Ethiopia

The FAO programme in Ethiopia has amounted to approximately US \$ 80 million over the past five years, channelled through 100 mostly short term extra-budgetary projects. These provided technical support, capacity building, information and statistics, policy advice and direct inputs at the household level. In addition, FAO has provided technical support for the development of investment projects in the areas of irrigation and drainage, pastoral community development, strategic food security planning, crop diversification and marketing development, agricultural productivity, participatory forestry management and rural capacity building. This support has contributed to resource mobilization by the GoE, and increased external investment to the country of more than three quarters of a billion dollars (Appendix 10).

⁴² See Appendix 2 for FAO's Strategic Objectives

Table 2. Ethiopia Portfolio Analysis

Extra budgetary country projects

Project Type	Total Budget
OSRO	\$ 41,056,765
GCP	\$ 18,783,641
UTF	\$ 5,067,385
TCP	\$ 3,919,743
UNJP	\$ 3,090,122
GTFS	\$ 2,999,998
GCSP	\$ 1,866,123
MTF	\$ 1,007,100
UNDP	\$ 957,000
SPFS	\$ 613,388
GDCP	\$ 345,318
Telefood	\$ 215,894
Grand Total	\$ 79,922,477

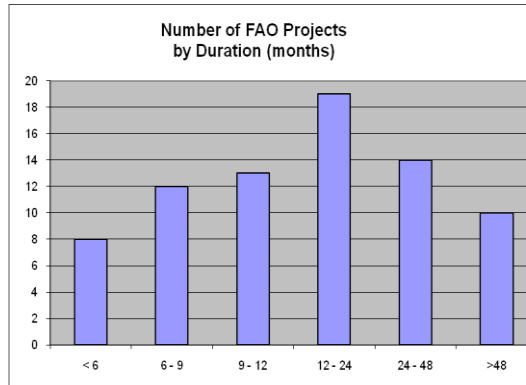
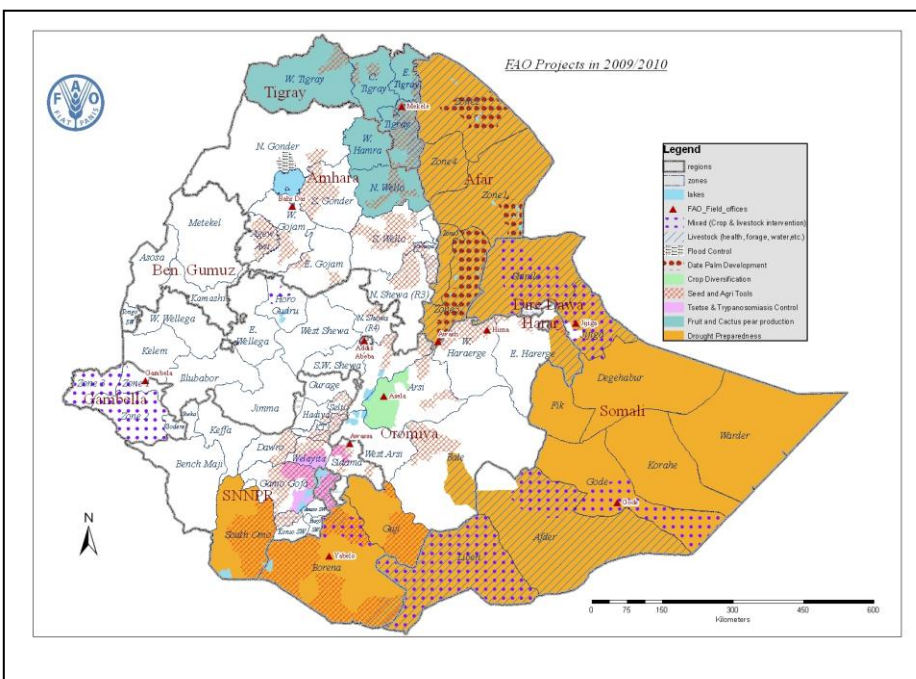


Figure 2. The number of projects by different categories of project length

The main technical areas of activity for FAO Ethiopia include plant production and protection (including desert locust), irrigation, animal production and health, household asset building and nutrition, and food security information and agricultural statistics (including early warning for HPAI and other hazards). Other important areas of intervention have included environment/natural resource management (including land tenure, forestry and management and disposal of obsolete pesticides) and support for policy and programme formulation and agricultural investment. There are no dedicated fisheries or forestry projects.

Overall there has been a high level of geographic dispersion of the programme; however areas of agricultural potential (the so-called “productive Ethiopia”) have received relatively less support attention (see Figure 3 below). Apart from 3 projects that have a national scope, most efforts have been concentrated in vulnerable areas in 4 regions: Amhara, Oromyia, SNNPR and Tigray.



As with many of the technical agencies operating in Ethiopia, FAO's activities in recent years have been influenced by a continuing series of crises in the country, brought on by climatic stresses exacerbating underlying poverty and food insecurity. There has developed an emergency response mentality, aided by the attention of the international media on the humanitarian crisis faced by many in the population (see for example Gill, 2010⁴³). While on the one hand this has attracted substantial international financial and technical support, it has arguably detracted somewhat from the longer term development needs and aspirations of Ethiopia.

The most important donors to the FAO Ethiopia programme over the past five years have been Norway, OCHA/HRF (emergency), Italy, Spain, USA (emergency), Belgium, the European Union (emergency & development), and the Netherlands.

3.3 Structural and organizational aspects of FAO in Ethiopia

3.3.1 Sub Regional Office for Eastern Africa. As part of the decentralization process, eleven sub-regional offices were established, including the Sub-regional Office for Eastern Africa (SFE) in Addis Ababa in 2007. As a result of the establishment of the SFE, the member countries of eastern Africa, including Ethiopia, can now draw on FAO's technical advice and support from Addis Ababa, without having to seek these from FAO HQs in Rome or from the Regional Office in Accra. The SFE office has responsibility for 8 countries namely Ethiopia, Sudan, Kenya, Somalia, Uganda, Djibouti, Rwanda and Burundi. The SFE office includes 19 officers within the multi-disciplinary team and support staff plus 7 regional project staff.

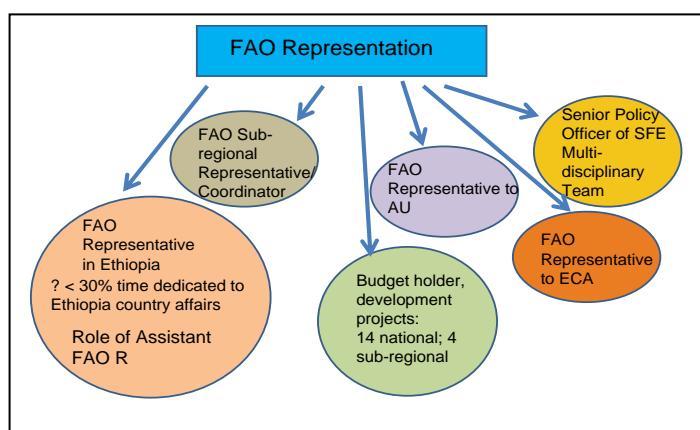
3.3.2 FAO Ethiopia. The FAO Representation in Ethiopia includes a Representative⁴⁴ (who is also the Coordinator of the SFE, and the outgoing FAOR was the policy officer within the MDT), and an Assistant FAO Representative (who is a national of Ethiopia). The FAOR/SRC is currently responsible for the implementation of 14 national projects (total value of US \$19 million) and 4 sub-regional projects (valued at US \$5 million). In addition, the FAOR is responsible for the implementation of a dozen or so micro-projects (so-called TeleFood projects) which also require a significant amount of staff time. The country representation in Addis Ababa has few permanent support staff. These are complemented by a dozen posts which are cost-shared with the SFE office (which is co-located in the same premises). The regular programme budget allocated for the running of the FAO Representation are very modest – varying by year but never more than US\$250,000 annually.

There is clearly a legitimate question as to whether FAOR can fulfil all of his different and wide-ranging regional and national responsibilities, and concerns in this regard were expressed to the evaluation team by many of those interviewed. It is estimated that less than 30% of the FAOR's time is dedicated to Ethiopian affairs.

⁴³ Gill, P. 2010. *Famine and Foreigners: Ethiopia since Live Aid*. Oxford University Press, 280 pp.

⁴⁴ Until recently the FAOR/SRC is also been acting as the FAO Representative to the African Union (AU) and to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UN/ECA).

Figure 4. Divisions of labour of the FAO representative in Ethiopia



In practice, the supervision and coordination of the national (non-emergency) projects are largely entrusted to the A-FAOR, supported by two national Programme Clerks. Some donors expressed concern and doubt as to the programming and delivery capacity of the Representation with the present human resources. Donor views in this regard may be indicated by the low level of development programme funding that FAO Ethiopia is receiving. Of the 12 extra-budgetary development projects that are currently under implementation in Ethiopia, only 1 is under the direct budgetary and management supervision of the FAOR.

Box 1. A missed opportunity in strengthening Monitoring and Evaluation

The mission was briefed on a US\$1 mil UNDP funded project entitled “Strengthening Local Capacity for the Achievement of the MDGs” (Aug07-Dec08) managed by the FAOR. At the time of the evaluation mission, 20 months after the envisioned end date, only half of the funds had been expended (largely on IT equipment and a vehicle). While the project document is quite vague, what became clear to the evaluation mission from interviews conducted is that while a number of activities have taken place, this project to strengthen the M&E system of MoARD has achieved very little due in large part to a lack of oversight and technical input. The team reviewed a very large “training manual” which was more about software than the essentials of setting up a comprehensive M&E system. No demonstration of the software developed could be made by FAO staff. No linkages had been made with other FAO information system work. The mission concludes that there is no sign that the objective of establishing a functional MoARD M&E system will be reached through this project.

The FAO Office also hosts an emergency coordination unit (ECU), which is now renamed the Disaster Response and Rehabilitation Unit (DRRU). The name change reflects the discomfort of the GoE with long-standing “emergency” programmes, and an ensuing dialogue between FAO and GoE on revising its nomenclature. The present portfolio of the on-going DRRU projects in Ethiopia comprises 13 projects with a total value of \$14.6 million. This portfolio is implemented by a staff of some 65-70 people under the supervision of the DRRU Coordinator. The emergency operations team currently includes 5 international staff with expertise in crops, livestock, food security and many other related disciplines. All of these staff are employed on a short-term contractual basis, of generally not more than 6 months. The DRRU Coordinator has changed 3 times during the period under review; the new coordinator has been in place for a little over 6 months.

Ideally and logically, the tripartite structure is designed to ensure delivery to Ethiopia of FAO’s quality services as “One FAO”. The FAO Representation can draw on the multi-disciplinary technical expertise of the SFE for programme support and backstopping. FAO’s emergency and recovery

interventions should be linked to the Representation's national strategy and priorities, supported by technical expertise of the SFE, ensuring that FAO's emergency interventions in Ethiopia have a strategic transition to rehabilitation and sustainable development. However, the evaluation mission gained the impression that that FAO Ethiopia struggles to put this value chain into practice, and to obtain optimal synergy of the three units in the FAO structure. This is strongly dependent on the three different funding source drivers, namely regular FAO programme funding (supporting the office of the FAOR and the SFE); extra-budgetary funding for development projects; and the predominant extra-budgetary funding for emergency response operations⁴⁵.

While the evaluation mission recognises attempts by the outgoing FAOR to unify the activities of FAO in Ethiopia, the mission finds that there remains an overwhelmingly strong line management function between the DRRU and TCE in HQ. As found in previous evaluations, including the Independent External Evaluation of FAO, country ECU units frequently act independently of the FAO Representation. With respect to reporting, the DRRU maintains a direct line of command with TCE, while also reporting to FAOR routinely. As TCE is the Budget Holder for most of the emergency projects, DRRU directly consults with, and receives relevant instructions from, TCE as regards operational aspects. In reviewing the process of preparation of the NMTPF and PoA, the mission finds a lack of collaboration and common vision evident. The FAOR indicated that he is only perfunctorily consulted on recruitment decisions for DRRU international staff appointments. These findings *de facto* establish a dichotomy of authority in the FAO office in Ethiopia.

The mission recognizes, however, that efforts have been made both at a corporate and country level to address this issue. The standard job description of the ECU Coordination now states that s/he is under the overall supervision of TCE HQ but the direct supervision of the FAOR. In Ethiopia, the mission notes recent efforts by both the FAOR/SRC and the DRRU/ECU Coordinator to improve working relations between them, and the mission recognises that the situation is much better than it was before the arrival of Mafa Chipeta. For example, as mentioned above, most administrative and financial transactions, including local procurement, contracts, payments, etc. of emergency operations, are now processed by the administration unit of FRETH/SFE and approved by the FAOR/SRC, within the limitation of his delegated authority. The DRM PoA⁴⁶ has been reformulated in 2010 to reflect an FAO Ethiopia approach to disaster risk management. The outgoing FAOR appears to have successfully established a senior management team comprising the head of Administration, Programme and the ECU Coordinator.

The evaluation team has been faced with a question as to the value of the SFE to Ethiopia, and this is seen as a very important issue to the GoE, which hosts the SFE in Addis Ababa. Although the team was not able to identify the exact financial burden born by the GoE in hosting the SFE, the host government is clearly paying a significant amount of the tax payers' money for FAO. Through the

⁴⁵ "A fundamental issue is the incentives FAO offers to donors: its TCE-led programme is easier for them to deal with, is less bureaucratic, faster on delivery, charges far less overheads. For the long-term programme, the opposite is true in all three aspects. FAO should not be surprised that donors prefer to fund emergencies and not its long-term work". Mafa Chipeta, Terminal Report, 2010.

⁴⁶ DRM PoA June 2009: "The Plan of Action (PoA) is a planning and management tool conceived to concretely and efficiently set an appropriate framework for interventions by the FAO Emergency and Rehabilitation Coordination Unit (ECU) in Ethiopia for the period 2008/09"

many interviews with stakeholders, the team was frequently informed that the SFE Technical Officers are invariably not available to assist the programming and backstopping for Ethiopian projects on the grounds that they are not exclusively for Ethiopian affairs, and/or that they are frequently out of the country on mission. The team also observed that the technical profile of the SFE Technical Officers is not specific to the needs of Ethiopia (nor necessarily to individual needs of other countries of the sub-region), lacking the technical expertise in certain sub-sectors such as fisheries, farming systems, nutrition and food security, land tenure, etc., all of which are of critical interest to Ethiopia (and indeed to other countries of eastern Africa)⁴⁷. Overall, there is a substantial gap between the expectations of the Ethiopian stakeholders (government, FAO colleagues, development partners, etc.) and the capacity of the SFE Technical Officers to fill the needs of Ethiopia. This is also a dilemma for the SFE Technical Officers, who wish to be able to assist Ethiopian affairs as demanded, while also meeting their duties and responsibilities to the other countries of the sub-region.

3.3.3 Sub national offices of FAO. There are currently nine sub-national offices within Ethiopia established and maintained by DRRU (usually within BoARDS); the number of the regional offices varies according to the range and scope of emergency operations. The role of these offices is to liaise with regional stakeholders (in particular BoARD, FAO's main implementing partner), provide technical assistance, monitor implementation of projects, and support regional coordination in the agriculture and livelihoods sector. The extent to which the sub-national offices can fulfil these roles is dependent on their capacities: in most of these offices, there is only one officer (a National Field Monitor). The mission observed contrasting performance in the country. In Bahir Dar the office was appropriately located within BoARD, and effectively coordinated both development and emergency projects (presenting a unified image of FAO). In Mekele there was no overall coordination of FAO activities, and for the two large development projects, one Project Manager was based in Mekele and the other in Addis Ababa. In addition, some of the development projects have staff based in the project sites rather in the regional capital. The mission felt that these structures were not conducive to creating synergies between projects managed by DRRU and those managed by the FAOR/A-FAOR – or to maximizing resources for representation at regional levels⁴⁸.

3.4 Functions of the FAOR

3.4.1 Representing the Organization, Policy Positions and Advocacy

The former FAOR (Mafa Chipeta) was recognized as a visionary representative, with strong analytical skills, and substantial expertise in policy matters with regard to Ethiopia's long term development. He had taken strong positions on several important issues, such food importation prices and fertilizer subsidies, and had been an important contributor to policy debates on economic growth in the country. He was not seen as such a strong advocate for humanitarian assistance, a position

⁴⁷ The outgoing FAOR noted in his Terminal Report that the "socio-economic characteristics of the sub-region were not fully reflected in the combination of SFE staff profiles, and this has not been corrected; in fact, with some staff erosion, the inadequacy and imbalance has worsened".

⁴⁸ The mission found, for example, that the O60/BEL project, which is implemented in two districts in Tigray and two in Amhara, has not been able to systematically engage regional authorities in the project; important gaps remain in translating lessons learned from project level to inform national initiatives.

reflected in the draft NMTF and SFE strategies. His contributions were almost universally recognised and praised by GoE leaders and staff whom he had interacted.

FAO has been instrumental in supporting Ethiopia's strategic development policies such as PASDEP, the SLM Investment Framework, UNDAF and FSP. The FAO/SFE policy dialogue has influenced Ethiopia's agricultural investment, helping to shift the disproportionate share of funding in degraded low potential areas towards areas with high potential for agricultural development. This dialogue, extended to the donor communities, has started bearing fruits with the procurement of some US\$ 300 million from donors for the new Agricultural Growth Program (AGP). FAO has also been actively involved in the UN country team's preparation of concept notes on prioritized development of Agriculture-led Economic Growth Corridors (assuming a leadership role), and in the formulation of a support mechanism from the UN through the new UNDAF.

On a less positive note, however, GoE, UN agencies and donor partners indicated that FAO is often absent from important policy forums such as UN consultative and donor coordination meetings; furthermore the quality and regularity of FAO's representation to the meetings varied, reducing the relevance and effectiveness of FAO's contributions. The Evaluation Mission concludes that this unfortunate situation is due to various factors, including: the frequent absences due to travel of the FAOR; the large number of meetings at the technical and working level, all of which the A-FAOR alone cannot cover; and a lack of willingness/ability/time of technical officers of SFE and those of DRRU to attend these meetings.

The principle responsibility for representing FAO after the FAOR himself is seen to be the A-FAOR. The team observed that the A-FAOR plays a key role in maintaining the functionality of the Representation, being involved in negotiations and consultations with the concerned government authorities, supervision of project implementation, UN Country Team affairs such as attending thematic groups and UNDAF working groups, donor coordination meetings, publicity and attending to media relations, etc. Like the FAOR, the mission found that the A-FAOR is also overstretched.

The A-FAOR was appointed in June 2008. It was observed that he has not been given adequate time and opportunities to learn about the rules and regulations of FAO, the corporate structure (which has drastically changed over the past year or two), nor the workings of the UN and other development partners. He had not benefited from a FAO corporate induction⁴⁹ or been invited to training/learning opportunities such as periodic meetings of A-FAORs or regional exchanges where he might exchange experiences and visions with colleagues in the region. The mission finds that, given the above, the A-FAORs ability to play a strategic role, shaping of views and representing FAO at a policy level during the frequent absences of the FAOR is limited.

3.4.2 Partnerships and Coordination

The team was pleased to observe that FAO Ethiopia generally maintains strong and interactive relations with the GoE. The team also acknowledges the commitment of the GoE in hosting FAO

⁴⁹ Note: at the time of the preparation of this report, 30 months after recruitment, the A-FAOR participated in a two week HQ orientation seminar.

Ethiopia, including the bearing of some financial costs, such as the payment for the rent of the FAO office in Addis Ababa. The GoE, more precisely the MoARD, has fulfilled its obligations to provide FAO with rent-free office premises. They have not, however, fulfilled the requirement to provide furniture, office equipment, security, IT requirements, etc., the costs of which have been largely borne by FAO.

As for the participation in and contribution to the UN Country Team, the team heard mixed comments. FAO's technical competencies are well acknowledged in the UN Country Team. These include FAO's facilitating role in the preparatory process of UNDAF, and to some extent in the joint programming of proposals for Spanish funding. On the other hand, it is understood that FAO is not always present at meetings at which FAO participation is expected. The team also heard that FAO is excluded from certain joint activities, which are undertaken by the participating agencies on a cost-sharing basis, as FAO does not have flexible financial resources. Other than in the area of food security information (e.g. CFSAM, support for DRMFSS needs assessments and CSA production statistics), there is very little evidence of collaboration between FAO and other UN agencies at the programme activity level.

FAO has strengths in many technical areas, and part of its responsibilities lie in the field of capacity development. While the evaluation mission acknowledges the multiple contributions of FAO staff to this area, it is something that demands substantially greater attention in the future. Indeed the recent independent evaluation of FAO's activities in this area in Africa concluded "FAO's performance in Africa has been mixed. Most interventions are relevant, many have been effective, but few have been sustainable". It also stated "the promotion of capacity development should be integrated into all staff job descriptions". The evaluation mission believes that this is particularly relevant for DRRU staff in the promotion of developmental approaches.

3.4.3 FAO interaction with donors

The FAO office has interactions with bilateral and multilateral donors at various levels, including FAO HQ (notably the Investment Centre), at the level of FAOR, the DRRU and individual staff member level. Worthy of particular mention has been the work of the Investment Centre in contributing substantially to the development of Ethiopia's Agricultural Sector Policy and Investment Framework (PIF), 2010 – 2020, the last draft of which was presented in September 2010.

At the country level, the FAOR/SRC took the decision to allocate a staff member of SFE to a donor coordination role, working particularly with the office of the World Bank in Addis Ababa. This position not only contributed to the preparation of funding proposals, but also played a key role in the conceptualisation and management of the Rural Economic Development and Food Security Sector Working Group (REDFS SWG) under the auspices of the Donor Assistance Group (DAG) of MoARD. Unfortunately, this strategic position has been relinquished with the recent departure of the staff member, and donors have chosen to recruit her replacement directly rather than to work through FAO.

3.5 Programme Management and Resource Mobilization

At the time of the mission, FAO Ethiopia was preparing for another office move. The three units (FRETH, SFE, DRRU) had been accommodated in a privately owned building, rented by the MoARD of the GoE. This will be the third time that the office moves in five years and significant relocation and instalment costs have been incurred each time.

With respect to fundraising for the country programme, the evaluation team was pleased to observe that the DRRU is actively engaging in donor consultations with a view to mobilizing financial assistance to emergency and recovery interventions. They appear to see the PoA as both a programming framework and a fundraising tool, particularly to facilitate dialogue with donors with decentralized/country level decision making authority.

However, the team considers that the FAOR in Ethiopia has not fully exploited his delegated authority with respect to mobilizing resources at the country level. Part of the reason for this is considered to be the deficiency in fund raising expertise within the FAO Representation. A review of existing job descriptions reveals that staff performance of the FAOR (and A-FAOR) is not measured by their ability to secure programme resources. Another dimension of the problem relates to the issue of incentives. While TCE staff personally depend on new projects to finance both interventions and operating costs (that include their salaries) at field and HQ levels, the same is not true for the staff in the FAO Representation, who are paid from regular programme budget resources. In the absence of capacity within the FAOR, the mission did not see any evidence that the fundraising expertise existing within TCE and the DRRU team was being utilized for securing longer term funding to facilitate transitioning to development. Nor did the SFE MDT seem to be active in this area; the only development project in the pipeline appearing to be the CSA project extension, which is actively backstopped by ESTG in HQ.

Another reason for low levels of resource mobilization for FAO policy, capacity building and technical assistance is considered by some to be an inadequate dialogue between the FAO Investment Centre and the FAOR. While officers from the investment centre are playing an important role in resource mobilization by facilitating the formulation of investable and bankable project proposals for the relevant government authorities (which was highly appreciated by a number of stakeholders interviewed), it appears that the investment centre is sometimes seen as acting independently from FAO Ethiopia in its interactions with GoE, and there seems to be a lack of recognition of FAO's comparative advantage and potential for local level contribution to large investment programmes under development.

The Mission also believes that, in addition to financial resources, there is a good chance of receiving human resource support from interested donor governments through the secondment of experts under modalities such as south-south cooperation, national volunteers and APO/JPO programmes. These could go far towards filling some of the staffing gaps within the FAO Representation as well as enhancing FAO's capacity to deliver technical services.

3.6 Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting

It is observed that a monitoring and evaluation mechanism is built in and budgeted for in most development projects with a relatively large budget. The evaluations (mid-term and final) are conducted as required in the respective project documents.

In the recent past, FAO has undertaken a number of evaluations (thematic and project specific) as well as an audit in Ethiopia⁵⁰. The subsequent recommendations, as relevant, have generally been respected and acted upon by FAO Ethiopia. Some follow-up actions are still continuing. Notable improvements in the administrative sector, in compliance with the relevant recommendations, have been achieved.

However, in terms of monitoring systems, the FAO Ethiopia functions at a rudimentary level, and has rarely attempted to measure results beyond the delivery of outputs. With the exception of the BSF and the GTFS/067/ITA projects, baseline studies have not been undertaken and no follow-up beneficiary assessments have occurred in order to determine what changes have occurred as a result of FAO/partner interventions. This is explained in part by the lack of dedicated M&E staff: neither the FAOR nor DRRU have any dedicated M&E staff. This compares unfavourably with other FAO country programmes of comparable size. The only human resources available are provided on a part time basis by the Field Program Support and Monitoring Officer within the SFE/MDT.

On a positive note, however, the DRRU has developed an extensive database and reporting system on the emergency projects for which they are responsible. The system allows the generation of historical and current information on past, current and pipe-line projects as to their status, including the schedule of activities and budget information. However, we observe that FAO Ethiopia is not yet fully utilizing these databases and information on projects in such a way as to disseminate the relevant reports to the concerned stakeholders, particularly the donors and the relevant authorities of the government of Ethiopia.

⁵⁰ OFFICE OF THE INSPECTOR GENERAL, AUD 1510, Effectiveness of Addressing Subregional Priorities: Subregional Office for Eastern Africa (SFE). March 2010
OFFICE OF THE INSPECTOR GENERAL, AUD 1310, Review of FAO Ethiopia. February 2010

4. Food security and nutrition

4.1 FAO's work in food security and nutrition

In principle, most of FAO's current activities in Ethiopia can be considered to contribute to food security and nutrition because they address issues of food availability, and the access to, or utilization of, food, all usually in food deficit regions. A number of projects (18) explicitly mention improving food security and/nutrition as an objective. These fall broadly under the headings of a) information systems for food security (institutional capacity development, technical assistance and tools and methods); and b) interventions that support chronically and acutely food insecure households (direct support, development of models of good practice, household asset building and support for improved coordination).

Over the past five years FAO has implemented several activities that relate to generating information on food security. This includes a three year technical assistance project (071/EC) to build GoE capacity (CSA and MoARD) to collect, analyze and interpret food security information to better inform policies and programmes, and two ensuing TCPs, designed to allow for continuation of FAO assistance (ETH/3303), as well as for the formulation of a new technical assistance project (ETH/3202). Another project entitled "Strengthening Local Capacity for the Achievement of the MDGs" (ETH/07/001/01/99) aspired to support MoARD in the establishment of a full sectoral M&E system. Finally, FAO has supported the collection and dissemination of information on both the food security situation and the responses to them through activities such as:

- Annual FAO/WFP Crop and Food Supply Assessment Missions (CFSAMs)
- Participation in DRMFSS semi-annual situation analysis and needs assessments.
- Support for information sharing under the DRMFSS agriculture sector task force (FAO acts as the secretariat) and creation of a database of emergency interventions in the food security and agriculture sector.
- Capacity building of local community, Southern Range Land Development Unit (SORDU), and local disaster management offices in livestock early warning information systems in Oromia.
- Support for the creation of a REDFS database of donor investments in rural development and food security.

In terms of support for the chronically food insecure, FAO has been involved in a long-term household asset building (HAB) pilot project (060/BEL) in northern Ethiopia that seeks to improve food availability, household income, access to public services and to support environmental rehabilitation. The project has included a number of education, health, nutrition and HIV-AIDS related activities, including for example the promotion of iodized salt, latrines and good child care practices. The intervention began in 2001 and entered a second phase in 2007. The main target groups for this project have been households identified as vulnerable and receiving PSNP support, but with a special focus on female headed households and the landless/oxen-less. To date 26,000 households have participated in six *woredas* (four in Amhara and two on Tigray).

Assistance to households facing acute food insecurity resulting from shocks such as drought, floods and price shocks has been an important component of the FAO Ethiopia programme. A number of large donor funded projects have been developed, often covering multiple regions and multiple

intervention types. These include the distribution of planting materials, training in conservation agriculture, provision of vaccines and medicines for animal health responses, rehabilitation of animal water points, rehabilitation of grazing lands, reforestation and watershed management.

4.2 Relevance:

Despite the fact that almost half of the portfolio of projects under implementation is managed by DRRU, the nature of the activities suggests a considerable investment in emergency preparedness and prevention, with much less focus than implied on responses to shocks. As observed by the mission and confirmed by DRRU staff, up to 75% of the beneficiaries of DRRU-managed projects are chronically food insecure (i.e. their selection was based on their poverty profile).

In terms of approaches, food security interventions frequently include individual and organizational capacity development. Partnership with the regional, zone and *woreda* GoE offices is evident and most projects are implemented by these partners through MoU agreements. Partnerships with local cooperatives/farmers unions are also evident and, while inputs are sometimes distributed free of charge, there is often an expectation of at least partial repayment in kind which allows for further distributions within the same communities.

Overall the food security activities undertaken, while often developmental in nature, are seen to be aimed at reducing vulnerability and increasing resilience, rather than increasing wealth *per se*. While some activities have been undertaken in higher potential areas for agriculture, the vast majority occurred in food deficit areas of the country.

Despite the recent GoE trend towards a greater focus on economic growth and the high potential areas, there remain serious food security and nutrition challenges in Ethiopia, with high rates of malnutrition and many households facing a 3-6 month food gap every year. The mission noted visible signs of micronutrient malnutrition; the team who travelled to SNNP region observed a high prevalence of goitre (iodine deficiency) amongst women met. The evaluation concludes that FAO's continuing attention to addressing acute and chronic food insecurity in Ethiopia is very relevant to the needs of a significant proportion of the population.

However FAO's NMTPF does not adequately reflect FAO's global strategic objectives in terms of emergencies, food security and nutrition. With respect to food security and nutrition, the NMTPF limits itself to direct assistance, and there is little analysis of how FAO might contribute to the core functions of knowledge generation, policy formulation or institutional capacity development. There is no indication of how FAO will support emergency preparedness, or of FAO's vision on how the much discussed transition from relief to development will take place.

In terms of FAO's contribution to the implementation of the national FSP, FAO arguably has a comparative advantage in the area of natural resource management and the organization might conceivably have made important contributions to the watershed management and reforestation work that has been undertaken as public work under the PSNP. However, as WFP has been implementing food for work activities in watershed management⁵¹ in Ethiopia for over 30 years, it is

⁵¹ WFP Merit Programme includes terracing, reforestation and other environmental rehabilitation activities.

perhaps understandable that FAO elected to not engage in this large scale safety net programme. At this point, with the GoE committed to scaling down the PSNP over the next 5 years,

FAO's engagement in the household asset building (HAB) component of the NFSP through the 060/BSF project is seen as having been appropriate. The redesign of the targeting strategy to focus on PSNP beneficiaries in 2007, in response to the mid term evaluation recommendations was highly responsive to emerging analysis. However the project conceptualization did not effectively address scaling-up and exit strategies, or consider wider opportunities for feeding experiences and good practices into the redesign of the national HAB component.

With respect to the large number of activities undertaken by the DRRU, the mission finds that many could be seen as HAB for the chronically food insecure. DRRU operational areas overlap significantly with PSNP target *woredas*. However, unlike the 060/BEL project, DRRU activities have deliberately sought to avoid targeting the PSNP beneficiaries in an effort to reach other needy or "those people who are just a little bit less poor"⁵². Most activities have aimed at strengthening food production capacity with much less emphasis on other food security domains such as access to food (including markets) and utilization. Interviews with MoARD (Agriculture Development Directorate) revealed dissatisfaction with FAO DRRU work; some senior officials see the work as comprising too many small, short term interventions that do not address development needs. Indeed the mission found that the overall design of DRRU interventions results in highly dispersed activities for relatively small beneficiary groups often spread over large areas, in which complex food security issues are approached generically in a manner that may not respond to the specific challenges faced by different segments of the population. Differential analysis of household vulnerability to food insecurity and its underlying causes and an evidence of an understanding of male and female livelihoods are almost completely absent. The DRM PoA and project documents provide only very generalised analysis of risks, vulnerabilities, hazards and response options available with respect to food insecurity and malnutrition, which give the (false) impression that the food security situation in the country is homogenous.

Interviews with other parts of MoARD (in particular with DRMFSS) and with certain other stakeholders, however, indicate that FAO's role in supporting emergency coordination in the agriculture sector has been very useful; food security information system activities have been viewed as highly relevant to GoE DRM priorities and donor needs. FAO and other partners have sought to strengthen the Governments' own capacities to plan for and respond to disasters⁵³. The new *FAO Ethiopia Plan of Action: Focus on DRM 2010-2012* could arguably be more analytical in

⁵² Selection criteria in some cases explicitly exclude the most vulnerable, for example by stipulating that beneficiaries must have a certain amount of land. While it is recognised that cereal production requires significant land holding, other types of agriculture related enterprises can be undertaken on relatively little land, and female headed households, youth and other marginalized groups are often disadvantaged when it comes to land tenure.

⁵³ In a number of countries subject to recurrent shocks, the humanitarian community (under the overall coordination of OCHA) have set up what is called a 'cluster coordination system'. In Ethiopia, the creation of this separate structure and system has not been necessary due to the capacity and ownership within Government to lead and manage emergency response. See <http://onerresponse.info/Coordination/ClusterApproach/Pages/Ethiopia.aspx>

terms of reflecting FAO's experiences and lessons learned from other emergency contexts, and in particular in helping to articulate FAO's comparative advantage in emergency responses.

4.4 Effectiveness

In terms of policy advice, the mission found that there is evidence to suggest that the BSF project experience, which was shared with national level stakeholders (FSP working groups) through the publication and dissemination of a best practices document, had some influence on the recently revised 2009-2014 national food security programme. This influence was diluted by the lack of continuity in FAO participation in the working group during the critical FSP formulation phase. FAO was not invited to participate in the formulation of the national DRM Policy (which appears to have been largely supported by external USAID consultancies).

FAO's support for improving information and statistics for agriculture and food security has had mixed results to date. The technical assistance provided to the CSA and MoARD has effectively brought together key stakeholders, and both evaluations conducted⁵⁴ and interviews held during this mission confirm that the FAO project has helped to understand better the data discrepancies between the different data producers, and to foster a dialogue on maximizing the comparative advantages of the CSA and MoARD. Crop production estimation divergence between the two agencies is no longer increasing, but the reliability of agricultural statistics remains of concern. There is no doubt that individual and organizational capacity has been developed, and that some of the tools introduced under the project⁵⁵, will improve the quality of the data when put into general use. There is clear scope for expanding FAO technical assistance beyond crop production statistics.

Both CFSAM reports and GoE lead bi-annual assessment missions⁵⁶ are being used for decision making by implementing agencies and partners. The mission notes however that two other data related activities have met with less success.

- FAO efforts to build interest and capacity amongst GoE and international partners in using the Integrated Food Security and Humanitarian Phase Classification (IPC) have not met with major success, in part because other analytical frameworks already exist in Ethiopia (IPC Mid Term Review, Central and Eastern Africa 2008).
- Attempts to develop an ambitious sectoral database system for MoARD have largely failed due to inadequate FAO technical support, and in particular a lack of synergy with other FAO food security information system work.

How have FAO activities changed household level knowledge, attitudes and practices? With one exception this is a very difficult question to answer as there are very poor tracking mechanisms of results in place. However the 060/BEL food security and nutrition project has been very well monitored throughout its 10 year implementation, and while all results are not yet in from the

⁵⁴ The CSA project was independently evaluated twice: in 2008 (OED: mid term) and in 2010 (EC: final)

⁵⁵ Tools introduced include using GPS technology to estimate area under cultivation and the use of GIS, small area estimation techniques, area based sampling frames, etc

⁵⁶ The mission learned that FAO participation in these assessments has been erratic, particularly at regional level where presumably human resource constraints are a factor.

commissioned impact assessment, there is considerable evidence to suggest that both community and household practices have changed for the better. The mission also confirmed that working through regional and *woreda* level GoE agriculture offices has aided the transfer of skills, and increased the capacity to deliver extension services to rural households.

With respect to improving the quality of interventions in the area of food security and nutrition, FAO (often SFE) has produced a number of normative guidelines (Appendix 6). However a review of Agriculture Task Force meeting minutes and feedback from some stakeholders suggest that FAO could play a much stronger technical coordination role. Technical backstopping from Rome (with the important exception of headquarters support for the CSA project) has been insufficient, particularly given that there are no food security or nutrition specialists in the SFE team⁵⁷. Moreover there appears to be a lack of forums for sharing ideas and lessons learned between FAO staff working on food security and nutrition. The 060/BEL food security and nutrition project reached vulnerable female headed households through a combination of an in depth vulnerability analysis at household level combined with a flexible approach to asset building support. Female participants in the project are reportedly more confident and more able to meet their household needs due to the diversification in their livelihood strategies. Key to this success has been the extension of credit and training to women and the regular involvement of the *woreda* women's affairs offices. Unfortunately the mission did not find other examples within the FAO programme of female empowerment or even clear evidence that vulnerable female headed households were being specifically targeted.

Partnership in the area of food security has been mainly with GoE agencies (MoARD, CSA). FAO has an MOU with WFP on the Purchase for Progress (P4P) programme, and there is a dialogue with WFP, but there is much less interface with UNICEF. As food security depends not only on food availability but also access and utilization, it is disappointing to see the lack of effective partnerships with agencies with comparative advantage in addressing non-agricultural elements of food insecurity (in particular WFP and UNICEF). The exceptions to this are the BSF project, which has engaged systematically with the Ministry of Health, and the food security information work, which has involved both WFP and FAO.

4.5 Efficiency

As indicated earlier, there is significant geographic dispersion of the food security and nutrition activities. This reduces the possibility of sharing resources more systematically across activities, such as office space, transportation and technical staff. The BSF has relied since 2007 on the PSNP criteria and selection processes as the means for identifying their beneficiaries⁵⁸ which is both efficient and effective in terms of building complementary activities around a vulnerable population. The beneficiary criteria of the DRRU household level food security and nutrition projects are less evident. Households are targeted based on poverty criteria, including the extent to which they suffered from a shock, their suitability to act as model farmers, and sometimes on their proximity to water sources and demonstration sites. Targeting has not been systematically monitored, and while the mission

⁵⁷ The FAOR End of Assignment report identified the need for nutrition expertise in the SFE team given priorities in the sub-region.

⁵⁸ This was a recommendation from the independent evaluation at the end of the pilot phase project.

found no evidence of exclusion of any particular socio-economic group, better monitoring of the application of targeting criteria is needed.

FAO's involvement in food security information (CSA, and also the DRMFSS-lead information gathering, needs assessments and analysis) clearly contributes to better coordination between partners. In particular FAO support for the development of two response databases (one under REDFS, the other under DRMFSS) which map out who is doing what and where in food security, is to be commended.

4.6 Impact

In terms of improved reliability and accessibility of food security and nutrition information and analysis, the mission finds that FAO's work has had an impact on decision making. This has been the case in particular with the CFSAM data, which has been reportedly used both for PSN programming and for emergency resource allocations. The independent evaluation of the CSA project indicates that while the support to the reconciling and improving of crop production statistics has not yet had the desired impacts, there have been important institutional changes. The report also suggests that the potential impact of FAO's support to the CSA goes far beyond supporting food security related decision-making, but could "improve the quality of macroeconomic management and facilitate the Government's interaction with international financial institutions, especially the International Monetary Fund (IMF)". A key challenge identified by a number of stakeholders will be in promoting the collection and reporting of objective and verifiable data.

An impact assessment of the 060/BEL food security and nutrition project is currently underway which includes the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. The household survey is in progress; initial qualitative results indicate that the project has made a positive impact on community capacity to plan and manage their own development processes, increasing the voice and participation of marginalized groups (female headed households, youth, disabled, people living with HIV/AIDS) and on household level skills and productive assets. During the drought of 2009, households which were supported with credit and technical advice in order to establish irrigation systems and to cultivate potatoes showed increased resilience to the shock and greater self-sufficiency. While phase II of the BSF project reduced the environmental rehabilitation features⁵⁹, the production and promotion of fuel-efficient stoves has been seen as relieving stress on the environment, as well as resulting in saved time for women (the gatherers of fire wood). Two factors which have limited the impact of 060/BEL have been: a) insufficient attention given to value chain analysis, resulting in the reduced viability of some of the income generating activities; and b) insufficient attention given to scaling up project experiences to the national level.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that FAO support through other projects has contributed to increased food production, agricultural diversification and the protection of productive assets. However no systematic beneficiary assessments have been done to measure changes at the household level.

⁵⁹ This was done in response to the start up in 2006/7 of the very large environmental programme being implemented at a national scale under the PSNP.

Given the lack of intensity and duration of interventions for any individual beneficiary household, however, the visibility and sustainability of changes at household level is likely to be low.

4.7 Sustainability

The independent evaluation of 071/EC judged that the “project’s successful support to improve CSA’s efficiency will be sustainable provided that CSA’s future budgets cover the training of new staff, periodic refresher training of existing staff, the replacement of depreciating hardware and the upgrading of software.” It is recognized that a three year technical assistance project was insufficient to bring about some of the technical, organizational and political changes needed across key data producing institutions. To ensure continuity, FAO has invested some of its own funds in ongoing activities since the project closure. Long term sustainability will depend on the mobilization of additional resources for further development of agricultural and food security statistics.

Initial results from the 060/BEL assessment suggest that the food security and nutrition project approaches and services enjoy a high level of local (*woreda* and *kebele*) ownership and that local government capacities to deliver credit and extension services (in agriculture, health, and other sectors) have been enhanced through the project. Technologies introduced have been simple and appropriate and can be easily adopted and replicated by beneficiaries. There is a great demand for credit (particularly amongst women) which has not been fully met due to lack of timely loan reimbursement; this negatively affects the “revolving” nature of the credit and the continuation of the benefits of the credit funds.

At the regional level, the mission found that authorities expressed much less familiarity with the project, although numerous visits and workshops have been organized by the project to share experiences. In Amhara region, the Agriculture Bureau has incorporated good practices on HAB approaches identified under the 060/BEL project within their regional guidelines, which will help to widen and sustain the benefits.

While rural credit has not been a key feature of other FAO food security and nutrition related interventions, GoE policy has been adhered to and recovery of certain portions of assistance provided has served to extend benefits to new households. This represents a change. Several years ago the Horn of Africa evaluation commented on the high use of free inputs. In the area of animal health, however, FAO was accused by some partners of reversing progress substantial on cost recovery through the distribution of free vaccines under emergency mass vaccination campaigns

5. Crop Production and Marketing

5.1 FAO's activities in the crop sector

There are several types of projects that cover crop production and marketing. They include projects in an emergency context that distribute seed or planting material (and sometimes fertilizer); those that encourage local seed production; complex projects that may include various elements of input distribution, seed production, crop management, and market development; several (now closed) irrigation projects implemented under the SPFS; and various projects dealing with crop production information, trans-boundary pests or diseases, and policy related to crop production.

For ease of discussion, this chapter will focus on the following types of activities (several of which may be present in a single project):

- *Technology transfer.* This includes the promotion of conservation agriculture, home gardens, and drip irrigation (and, in one case, construction or rehabilitation of small-scale irrigation schemes); and the introduction of new crops or varieties to promote diversification or increase resilience to environmental stress. These types of technology transfer are common elements of a number of projects, including those supported with emergency funding.
- *Value chains.* This includes work on traditional or introduced crops and the promotion of crop marketing capacities. The common strategy is to support production of the commodity as well as to organize or support already-existing farmer groups or cooperatives to market the commodity.
- *Seed and planting material production.* A number of projects include the development of local, small seed enterprises through farmer groups or cooperatives. The usual strategy is to train and organize farmers to produce seed which is then conditioned and sold by an agency, usually a local cooperative or public seed company. Projects promoting fruit species may develop or rehabilitate government nurseries and/or promote the concept of private (small-farmer) nurseries.
- *Seed and other input distribution.* Seed (and sometimes fertilizer) is distributed in various projects, in response to disaster or as a part of longer-term projects; the latter is often, but not always, provided under some sort of credit scheme. In 2008-09 FAO distributed nearly 6,000mt of seed, equivalent to about one-third the annual production of Ethiopian Seed Enterprise (although only a minority of this seed was acquired from ESE, which frequently does not produce sufficient quantities of the type of seed in demand for such projects).
- *Other crop-related activities.* FAO has contributed to various national and regional policy discussions, related to areas including agricultural investment priorities, agro-industry strategy, natural resource management and the future of the Nile Basin. FAO's Statistics Division has a long-standing relationship with the Central Statistics Agency (CSA) and recent collaboration has included work to resolve discrepancies in data related to assessing food security. There has also been recent FAO work in Ethiopia on pest control, including desert locusts and Cypress aphid.

5.2 Relevance

Given the relatively modest resources currently available for FAO crop-related projects in Ethiopia, the range of activities supported is very broad. While this breadth indicates a commitment on the part of FAO to support Ethiopia, and in part represents the range of expertise and mandates in the organization, it does not reflect a clear strategy or set of priorities. This absence of strategic focus is partly explained by the variety of project origins, including those initiated in headquarters for Ethiopia, projects that include Ethiopia as part of a regional effort, and locally-conceived projects from the national or sub-regional representation or from DRRU (the latter including short-term emergency response and slightly longer-term actions related to the transition to development).

Although some individual projects have a quite specific focus, others include a wider range of activities than their budgets and management can adequately accommodate. In addition, many of the crop-related projects from DRRU are small and geographically dispersed, working in one or a few *woredas*, and a few *kebeles* in each *woreda*, often scattered across several regions (in some cases due to funding limitations). The organization of the projects in this way does not allow for the work to be managed efficiently or to reach a critical mass where it could serve as a pilot or as a clear nucleus for scaling up.

Many of the themes addressed by FAO crop-related projects in Ethiopia are highly relevant to the country's needs (introduction of new technologies, promotion of marketing innovations, etc.) Both the extension service and the crop marketing system are badly in need of sound technical support. The continuing role of FAO in emergency seed distribution is more problematic. Many questions have been raised about the relevance of this activity, including the extent to which target populations are actually unable to acquire seed, the adequacy of some of the crop varieties provided, the wisdom or necessity of supplying seed season after season in certain locations, and the failure to incorporate longer-term strategies to build resilience. FAO is still not in a position to address those issues⁶⁰.

Much of the funding available for improving crop production is through short-term emergency projects related both to the distribution of inputs and to various types of technology promotion. The current draft Plan of Action for the FAO DRRU elaborates a more sensible programme to support crop development than that proposed in the draft NMPTF, but the long-term requirements of developing capacity for crop development are not compatible with the short-term funding of DRRU and they require a wider range of skills than currently available to the unit.

Although there is widespread concern (within FAO and GoE) to move away from multiple emergency towards longer-term development programmes for supporting crop production and marketing, there has apparently been little thought given to what a comprehensive development strategy might entail. Talking of a transition from emergency to development is ineffectual, and bringing it to reality

⁶⁰ L. Sperling., Aberra Deressa, Solomon Assefa, Teshale Assefa, S.J. McGuire, Berhanu Amsalu, Gebremichael Negusse, Asrat Asfaw, Wendafrash Mulugeta, Belete Dagne, Gebrehiwot Hailemariam, Anbes Tenaye, Beneberu Teferre, Chimdo Anchala, Habtamu Admassu, Hadush Tsehay, Endrias Geta, Daniel Dauro and Yealembirhan Molla (2007) *Long-Term Seed Aid in Ethiopia: Past, present and future perspectives*. Addis Ababa and Rome: EIAR, CIAT, ODG.

has several obstacles: many of the resources available come from donor funds that are ear-marked for short-term use; the transition process attracts relatively little technical oversight from FAO or its donors; and the short-term projects are largely evaluated by FAO, donors and government agencies in terms of “outputs delivered” rather than “outcomes” and “capacities built”.

The relevance of the models pursued in some of the projects is questionable:

- In a number of cases FAO is pursuing a small seed enterprise model which assumes that groups or cooperatives of small farmers will be able to develop independent seed businesses. This is an approach which is favoured by GoE policy but has no track record elsewhere in the world. Building farmer capacity as contractors to public seed enterprises (and to a few selected cooperatives with adequate capacity) would still be compatible with current policy and likely be much more cost effective.
- There are similar problems in promoting small farmers to establish private nurseries. The basic concept is logical, but there is no evidence of any analysis of the scale necessary to achieve viability or to resolve potential conflicts and interactions with public nurseries.
- In the cases of seed production and nurseries, the viability of the businesses being promoted largely depends on their ability to manage links with germplasm suppliers, contact quality control agencies, and handle the complexities of marketing. The projects tend to pay all of these transaction costs and then expect the entities to survive after project closure, which is very unlikely.
- Farmers face serious marketing constraints, in part because Ethiopia has relatively poorly developed agricultural marketing infrastructure and experience. Marketing cooperatives can offer significant benefits in some cases, but the institutions of cooperatives seems to be the default response to any marketing issue, rather than seeking a solution identified after a broader examination of the particular commodity sector.
- There is no opportunity within the projects to test whether activities such as focussing on model farmers (who are expected to share methods and materials with others) or various types of demonstrations and field days are in fact cost-effective ways of diffusing technology.

Despite the apparent relevance of many of the projects, only a few FAO core functions are evident in the crop-related work.

- Information provision has been supported by the strengthening of links between MoARD and CSA. There are some publications produced by country projects and SFE on crop production, extension and marketing, but these are generally of limited relevance and quality. A large rural development project produced a useful manual on onion seed production that could have general application, but other ‘glossy’ publications are focused on the specific project site and make few methodological contributions. A series of extension documents that described experiences in other countries has been produced by the sub-regional office, but these seem to be simply commissioned papers rather than being part of any long-term strategy.

- Policy options and advice are not particularly in evidence, the major exception being FAO's recommendation to concentrate investment in favoured production areas, which is apparent in the new GTP and is a cornerstone of the multi-donor Agricultural Growth Programme (AGP). The former FAOR was anxious that Malawi's experience with fertilizer subsidies was communicated to Ethiopian policy makers and several documents were produced, although there is no evidence of a response to date. FAO's participation with other development partners in efforts to review emergency seed procedures and to promote conservation agriculture in Ethiopia are of course valuable, but hardly represent leadership in policy facilitation.
- Technical support to promote technology transfer and build technical capacity is certainly an important element of several projects, but the effective use of, or contribution to, FAO normative products in crop production technology and extension is lacking. The review fieldwork (admittedly brief) found few examples of FAO normative products in general use. Support to efforts such as farmer business schools and farmer field schools for conservation tillage seem to be often in the hands of consultants rather than part of a coherent institutional strategy for developing, and learning from, such innovations.

5.3 Effectiveness

The generally short duration of the projects, the wide range of topics covered and wide geographical dispersal involved in many, limit the critical mass necessary for lesson-learning or scaling up. The current organization and priorities of regional agricultural bureaus favour the short-term provision of infrastructure and inputs to local populations rather than testing and development of operating procedures for effective, demand-led agricultural extension, so FAO faces a stiff challenge if it wishes to leave behind more general models and build capacities. In many cases it is difficult to envision how national partners will take over the work once a project is finished.

There has been considerable capacity building undertaken in many of the projects and this is highly appreciated by BoARDS and farmers. It is very difficult to tell how effective this training is, and the short-term nature of the projects does not encourage FAO to follow-up or assess outcomes through any type of effective M&E strategy. Training for BoARD staff faces the problem that the selection of trainees is usually in the hands of BoARD authorities (so the most appropriate people may not always attend) and high staff turnover lowers the possibility of building a reliable supply of expertise in a specific location.

There is little evidence that project design or execution takes advantage of, or attempts to link to, the work of others in the same field. For instance, before supporting activities such as seed potato production or the promotion of conservation tillage, it would be valuable to understand the experience of others in Ethiopia who are working on the same themes. Similarly, marketing efforts would be usefully informed by a sectoral overview that would allow an understanding of the nature of the market in which value chain work is being promoted (e.g. the markets for vegetables or fruits).

It is difficult to judge, particularly in the cases of on-going projects, if objectives are being reached:

- “Crop diversification”. On the positive side, projects provide access to new cultivars (particularly fruits and vegetables) that farmers can experiment with. Several projects have also introduced farmers to new varieties of staple crops (or at least varieties with which the farmers were unfamiliar). On the negative side, there is little opportunity to follow farmers’ experiences and understand which options are most attractive and deserve further support from the government or future projects.
- “Crop intensification” or “crop husbandry”. These terms are used by projects to describe activities that extend access (often with credit) to seeds and fertilizer. This may indeed be useful, although current GoE strategies do not put sufficient emphasis on producing seed of the most recently released varieties, and there is evidence of inefficiency in current fertilizer recommendations⁶¹, so the productivity gains from the current “production packages” are questionable.

There has been only sporadic activity related to policy dialogue on crop-related issues. For emergency seed distribution, there are normative documents and a draft policy guideline developed by FAO that recommend significant changes in emergency seed conceptualization, organization and analysis, but FAO practice does not follow these guidelines⁶². A local consultancy produced draft recommendations on crop variety release procedures (in order to accommodate the range of domestic and foreign research institutes and companies that might wish to offer crop varieties in Ethiopia), but neither the government nor FAO have taken these forward. In many cases there seems to be the belief that demonstrations of new crop species or crop management techniques by FAO projects, without accompanying analysis and dialogue, are equivalent to a policy initiative.

The main partners for crop production and marketing are the BoARDs, and relations with FAO seem to be very good in on-going projects. FAO also sub-contracts some NGOs in certain cases (to undertake seed procurement, home garden training, etc.). FAO acts as secretariat for Agriculture and Food Security Task Forces in Afar and Somali Regions that coordinate the actions of NGOs, and the role is appreciated. In other regions (e.g. SNNPR) such coordination mechanisms have become defunct. There is relatively little interaction of FAO projects with research institutes, which would be very useful such as in the promotion of conservation tillage or new crop varieties; one exception is the collaboration with Mekele University in a fruit promotion project.

Many crop projects are not of the size or duration to allow the full utilization or development of best practices to emerge. There is use of FAO’s “Farmer Business School” methodology in a crop diversification and marketing project, but it is unclear how closely this experience has been followed by headquarters. Work in conservation agriculture takes only partial advantage of FAO’s considerable experience in this field, and much more rigour and long-term commitment would be required to achieve meaningful results.

⁶¹ D. Byerlee, D. Spielman, D. Alemu, M. Gautam (2007) *Policies to Promote Cereal Intensification in Ethiopia*, Washington, DC: IFPRI.

⁶² “Emergency Seed Aid Guidelines for Ethiopia” draft document produced for MOARD, March 2009, Addis Ababa FAO office; L. Sperling, T. Osborn and D. Cooper (2004) *Towards Effective and Sustainable Seed Relief Activities*, Rome:FAO

For monitoring and evaluation, basic quantitative parameters are collected and reported in most cases (number of people trained, equipment distributed, yields, etc.), but there is little analytical documentation available for the projects.

The crop production projects appear to vary in their targeting; some target vulnerable households and some target relatively well-off households (“model farmers”) who are assumed to be able to demonstrate new crops and techniques to their neighbours. There is no explicit strategy regarding the balance between these, and some projects seem to adopt an approach that simply divides attention between the two ends of the spectrum. The selection of beneficiaries is apparently entirely in the hands of the local authorities, who serve as gatekeepers in the distribution of project resources, particularly for model farmers.

There is little evidence of gender-related targeting nor is there a specific focus on gender issues in crop production (women’s crops, responsibilities, etc.) or on women’s access to leadership (in community committees, places in BoARD, etc). One exception is in the donation of drip irrigation equipment exclusively to female-headed households in one project, with the aim of encouraging recipients to engage in vegetable production.

5.4 Efficiency

Most projects are too small, and if of any size try to do too much at the same time (e.g. a seed production project that also includes HIV/AIDS awareness, or a market development project that also devotes very significant resources to irrigation schemes and watershed rehabilitation).

The projects appear to be managed adequately by local staff who operate in very difficult environments, characterized by poor infrastructure, logistic limitations and exceptional levels of rural poverty that lower capacities for farmer involvement in extension activities. Staff have no job security, nor do they have any incentive to place their projects in a broader context.

In many cases the technical implementation has been good (e.g. developing seed production, farmer business schools, promoting new fruit species). In the case of conservation agriculture, however, there is simply insufficient time or oversight to provide any meaningful input to the development and promotion of these complex technologies, and there is a danger that the hasty demonstration of techniques drawn from elsewhere, whose short-term results may be disappointing, could even turn farmers away from future efforts that are better planned and executed.

It is sometimes difficult to understand why investments in equipment or infrastructure are made in particular projects, such as those listed below:

- \$0.5m for 100 ha of irrigation in the hope that the beneficiaries will become seed potato producers.
- Large, expensive seed cleaners provided to small seed producer cooperatives.
- Donations of equipment to regional seed labs when the major limitations are personnel and transport⁶³.

⁶³ This refers to GCP/ETH/077/AUS, which has provided equipment (ovens, microscopes, etc) to the government laboratory at Asela

5.5 Impacts

Assessment of actual impacts is difficult in an evaluation such as this, and the project documentation does not help. Final project reports often appear to be produced in a mechanical fashion and are not analytical.

- In the case of emergency seed distribution, some reports state the precise number of hectares planted with relief seed and even the yields obtained (when only a rough estimate would be possible).
- In the case of the final report on a large seed security project, the conclusion that “the CCBSE [cooperative community-based seed enterprise] model...proved to be economically and technically feasible, and suitable for catering to the seed security interests of rural communities”⁶⁴ is not supported by any quantification of production or costs (or by results on the ground).

As stated earlier, the impacts of emergency seed programmes are unclear and little is being done to find out what they are. The requests for seed are made by *woreda* officials who have some idea of which varieties are appropriate for their areas, but with last-minute tenders and a limited supply of seed of the varieties appropriate for marginal areas, there is no comprehensive analysis of situations of acute and chronic seed “requirements” or outcomes. A 2004 FAO publication says, “FAO implements seed aid...yet has little capacity to assess such interventions.”⁶⁵ That judgment is still valid.

Many of the projects contribute significant quantities of training, equipment, and germplasm to farmers and farmer groups. In the vast majority of cases these are highly appreciated by the recipients. Whether these are the most appropriate inputs is difficult to determine.

In non-emergency project cases, the distribution of basic inputs (seed and fertilizer) is usually done with the understanding that *woreda* officials will manage some type of repayment scheme. In the case of seedlings, some projects sell these, while others distribute them free of charge.

FAO appears to put little emphasis on quantitative impact assessment. The focus (in presentations and discussions) is on inputs distributed. This is complemented by a case study approach that focuses on individual success stories (confounding legitimate publicity efforts with equally important M&E responsibilities). The emphasis on “things distributed” is, not surprisingly, echoed in BoARD assessments of FAO; they look to FAO for equipment, seedlings, operational expenses, etc, rather than capacity building or strategic or policy advice.

⁶⁴ FAO (2008) *Strengthening Seed Supply System at the Local Level. Ethiopia. Project Findings and Recommendations*, Rome: FAO.

⁶⁵ L. Sperling, T. Osborn and D. Cooper (2004) *Towards Effective and Sustainable Seed Relief Activities*, Rome:FAO.

5.6 Sustainability

Training is an important part of many projects and almost certainly has impact. But given the high staff turnover, particularly at lower levels of BoARDS, and the geographical dispersion of many projects, sustainability would likely be increased by targeting training strategies at higher levels (such as Agricultural TVETS) where TOT would have a more lasting effect.

Some of the crop management techniques demonstrated (especially in conservation agriculture) require a much more concerted effort for any hope of impact. Home gardening and crop diversification efforts provide farmers with access to new species and they may be able to make use of some of these to modify their cropping patterns, but project design leaves most of this to chance. Although some of the projects have introduced farmers to new crop varieties, there is little effort at on-farm testing that would provide farmers with information about new varieties (particularly drought-tolerant ones that are frequently mentioned in reports) of basic grains and legumes.

The distribution of equipment through projects is always problematic. Motorcycles distributed to BoARD offices in one project are followed by requests for assistance in their maintenance. The distribution of complex equipment to BoARDS (such as ox-drawn seeders for conservation agriculture) with little testing or adaptation provide little chance of sustainable use. Leaving expensive and complex equipment such as large seed cleaners in the hands of inexperienced farmer groups also offers low probability of sustainability.

Group and cooperative formation is often useful. The seed producer groups in some of the more productive areas of the country have a good chance of survival because the demand for seed by public seed agencies means it is a seller's market for people who are reliable seed producers. It is likely that these groups will survive as contract growers for the regional seed enterprises or better-resourced cooperatives; whether they continue to use the business cycle planning and logos the project provides is more doubtful.

The refurbishment or support of government nurseries by projects helps produce and deliver seedlings to beneficiaries but there is often no indication that the BoARD can maintain these after the project closes.

Projects that have built capacities in CSA help to strengthen the links with FAO's Statistics Division and to strengthen the agency on which the GOE depends for providing statistics of crop production (MoARD).

6. Livestock production and marketing

6.1 FAO's activities in the livestock sector

Between 2005 and 2010 FAO was involved in 18 livestock related projects in Ethiopia worth US\$ 17,313, 180. While 13 of these projects are specifically on livestock, five had both crop and livestock production activities. Livestock projects have been predominantly targeted at pastoralist and vulnerable households and are concentrated in Afar, Oromyia and Somali regions.

Livestock projects have been largely undertaken under the DRRU to address humanitarian objectives, aiming to respond to agricultural threats and emergencies. Some of these have provided technical support, promoted technology transfer and built capacity; others assembled and provided information, knowledge and statistics. A quarter of the projects appear to have responded purely to relief needs and involved simply the distribution of materials and financial resources.

The Livestock Emergency Guidelines and Standards (LEGS), linked to the Sphere project and the Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response (the Sphere handbook), was developed in Ethiopia to improve the design, quality and impact of livestock interventions; it was launched in 2009. Its development involved the participation of a number of organizations, including FAO.

FAO has invested considerably in the area of animal health. The most prominent of these has been the strong support given to Ethiopia for support to preparedness for Highly Pathogenic Avian Influenza (HPAI). This came from both country-specific projects, and regional projects operated by the regional ECTAD Office in Nairobi with project elements in Ethiopia. Support provided by FAO included building laboratory capacity to HPAI diagnosis, training in awareness and surveillance, and the development of awareness and response procedures in many different media, including cds. These are summarized in Appendix 7.

There has also been important work in livestock asset protection. In 2008-09 FAO distributed 1058 tonnes of concentrate feed and 155 tonnes of grass pellets, 77,511 bales of hay and 32, 000 multi-nutrient blocks (MNB). FAO reported that as a result some 4,970 breeding stock (cattle and goats) have been saved from the calamity of drought, although the evidence for this claim is unclear. Thirty-four community representatives and 66 DAs were trained in the production of multi-nutrient blocks (MNB).

Very little work has been undertaken by FAO Ethiopia on improving animal production *per se*. Of the 18 livestock related projects only one addressed long-term livestock development issues such as milk and meat production and marketing (GTFS/ETH/067/ITA), despite the widespread call for more attention to these areas.

Visits by the Evaluation Mission to various project sites in pastoral areas revealed that FAO has played a significant role in the need assessment tasks and in the coordination of planned project activities among stakeholders. However, long term community needs are beyond the capacity of emergency interventions. The limited availability of resources for these has restricted the scale of interventions, and FAO and other implementers have operated on priority basis. The Mission was

surprised by the level of expectations of regional and zonal bureaus of agriculture of FAO's engagement in responding to their development agenda.

6.2 Relevance

FAO's livestock activities in Ethiopia are highly skewed towards emergency responses. Seventeen out of the 18 projects executed over the last six years addressed food security, livestock health and supplementary feeding in drought affected parts of the country as emergency response activities. For Ethiopia with a potent livestock resource yet to be adequately tapped for its contributions to economic development, this does not represent an appropriate balance. FAO's role in enabling the country to exploit the livestock resources for enhanced poverty reduction and economic growth needs to place livestock on a significantly higher plane than its present position.

Project duration for livestock interventions ranged between 4-36 months, with half of the livestock-specific projects having a duration of less than 10 months. Given the long gestation period required for getting emergency livestock interventions up and running, this short-term intervention pattern is unlikely to allow adequate time for effective contributions to be made. What is of more concern is that while the sheer volume of projects and the consequent repeated engagement with communities and local authorities offers the potential for relevance, such short funding cycles may not allow time for important outputs derived from emergency interventions to be captured and promoted for scaling up for a wider user group.

These emergency interventions are seen as a positive step towards protecting the depletion of productive assets of households and reducing vulnerability. But when the scale of this intervention is viewed in the context of the population of 15 million cattle and goats owned by the pastoral communities in Ethiopia, saving 4,970 animals is but a drop in the ocean. Such operations may also encourage a dependency syndrome and may fail to create sufficient conditions for sustainably mitigating climate induced-problems, unless executed in a manner carefully planned to enhance the participation of local communities (and indeed all stakeholders) to build capacity to withstand future challenges.

Among the several challenges facing the Ethiopian livestock industry, the most outstanding problems are; low genetic potential, poor feeding practices, poor health condition, water shortage (particularly in the pastoral areas) and underdeveloped market structure and value chain. Efforts geared towards commercialization of this industry and to enhancing its economic contribution need to address these priority constraints. FAO's involvement in confronting the industry's top challenges has largely been emergency response based, and confined to health and feed interventions. Only one project addressed the broader issues of genetic improvement and value chain actors under a project label of crop diversification (GTFS/ETH/067/ITA). The mission recognises the initiative on diversification and marketing in dairy and beef fattening, and the regional IGAD LPI initiative that maps emerging actors and prepare training packages on agribusiness and quality standards. However while highly commendable, these hardly represent a structured programme on livestock commodity value chains. Only two projects dealt with water development issues in the pastoral areas and FAO commissioned a pastoral market study under the EU supported Livestock Policy Initiative of IGAD LPI. Small and medium commercial dairy and beef fattening businesses are emerging in and around market centres such as Addis Ababa, Adama and other regional towns.

These are all constrained by the challenges of breed, feed, health, environmental issues, business planning, market and other value chain issues. The country could benefit by drawing much more on FAO's technical expertise and experiences on other countries in these technical areas. As for the crop sector, there is no long-term livestock development strategy within FAO Ethiopia, or a 'pastoral development' strategy.

Using its comparative advantages of high technical and international networking capacity, the organization should focus more on resource mobilization, local technical capacity building, information networking and national/regional agricultural policy dialogue. Undertaking emergency-related small projects scattered over regions has not enabled FAO to make substantial strategic investments in Ethiopia's livestock enterprises, particularly when these have lacked *ex post* impact assessments of emergency interventions from which key lessons could be learnt to lay foundation for future development pathways.

In none of the livestock projects under consideration has gender been given the attention it deserves. Nevertheless, as the handling of milk and small ruminants is in the domain of the women in the pastoral communities of the country, certain benefits from interventions targeting improvements in milk production and small ruminants are expected to trickle down to them, one way or another.

6.3 Effectiveness

The engagement of FAO in scaling up results from emergency projects to support sustainable development has been weak. FAO is not, of course, expected to become involved in every national livestock development agenda. However, it needs to have a better articulated strategy for promoting best practices to impact development programmes.

The engagement of the IGAD LPI project in the process of a livestock policy dialogue of Ethiopia has positively influenced decisions to give the livestock industry greater prominence and attention in the proposed re-organization of MoARD's internal structures for agricultural transformation. As a consequence it is expected that livestock will emerge better positioned and at a higher level than the current situation. The FAO DRRU currently maintains a strong working relationship with the IGAD LPI project, whereas FAO's development programme connection with this body appears weak. Extending the partnership with the development arm of FAO would improve the synergy for the livestock policy dialogue campaign.

LEGS, developed via a grant from USAID to Tufts, is one of the significant normative products in which FAO Rome has played a part, sitting on the LEGS Steering Group. This initiative has a global stature. In Ethiopia there has been a national-level adaptation of LEGS in the form of the MoARD guidelines for emergency livestock projects in pastoralist areas, to which FAO Ethiopia staff contributed. It is anticipated that the application of these emergency intervention codes of conduct will improve the effectiveness and efficiency of emergency projects. Results from an impact assessment of emergency livestock interventions in Oromiya pastoral interventions have shown adequate application of good practices as promoted by LEGS within FAO supported livestock projects (Appendix 9).

National capacity has been built in disease surveillance, diagnosis and reporting both at regional and federal levels through training and establishment of laboratories. But effectiveness particularly at regions has been affected by frequent staff turnover and lack of reagents and chemicals for diagnostic purposes.

FAO supported the establishment of MNB producing cooperatives which employed 60 resource-poor pastoralists (48 male + 12 female) in four *woredas* of Afar region; this allowed a sustained supply of MNBs to be produced. The cooperatives produced and distributed some 180, 000 MNBs, each weighing 7.5 kg in 2009 and 2010. Ingredients used in the preparation of MNBs were molasses, wheat bran, oilseed cake, urea, mineral, salt and cement in a proportion of 34, 25, 13, 10, 3, 3, and 12 %, respectively). FAO provided the cooperatives with start up ingredients including training and a manually operated block making machine.

At one stage it was standard for emergency projects to mount livestock vaccination campaigns in the pastoral areas during droughts, as one of the many emergency response tools, justified more by being seen to do something than by the contribution of vaccination to humanitarian considerations. Vaccination of livestock at times of nutritional and other stress did therefore attract some criticism⁶⁶, and it is understood that FAO no longer advocates vaccinations at times of extreme drought, but rather more strategic vaccination, particularly of small ruminants against PPR, when animals are in good condition (following the rainy season and prior to major seasonal movements).

Execution of many of the emergency interventions in the Somali region is more prevalent in the northern regions around Jijiga. The mission was informed that for security reasons, projects in the southern lowland areas of the region are either not executed at all or if there is any activity it has been done under a severe security threat for project staff, so constraining the effectiveness of interventions in the larger Ogaden area. The FAO coordination office at Jijiga often faces communication problems with project sites for data collection and report compilation.

6.4 Efficiency

In general FAO's livestock projects were seen to be reasonably efficiently run. There was some evidence from site visits of delays in procurement and delivery of project materials.

The coordination and synergy between stakeholders at project sites visited appeared good. However there is no evidence to indicate that this is true at a national level. Even at regional level, efficiency of the tasks performed largely depended on the ability of the individuals in charge of FAO's coordination office and BoARD. In most cases, FAO serves as secretary to the Technical Task Force headed by the regional or zonal bureau of agriculture; the preparedness of bureau heads to make the best use of FAO's presence differed from region to region. For instance, the efficiency in Jijiga zone of the Task Force appeared better than in the Arsi zone of Oromiya in conducting regular monthly coordination meetings, formulating agenda for such meetings, sharing of responsibilities among stakeholders and follow up mechanisms for implementation of taskforce decisions.

⁶⁶ Catley, A. *et al.*, (2009). Impact of drought related vaccination on livestock mortality in pastoralist areas of Ethiopia. *Disaster*, 33, 665 – 685.

As far as timeliness is concerned, the communication linkage between the FAO Addis Office and its regional and zonal Offices concerning the timely delivery of services was seen to be good, except in the procurement of goods. But viewed from the emergency project planning and implementation perspective, there were reports of delays between the undertaking of the needs assessment and the initiation of emergency activities. The processes of needs assessment, fund raising, recruiting of staff and office establishment is long and by the time it is completed and the project put in place, there has been significant loss of human and livestock lives.

In terms of partnerships, FAO engages with several NGOs in the implementation of its projects. The mission notes that FAO has developed some MoUs with different organisations to strengthen its capacity to implement, to monitor impacts and to engage a wider community⁶⁷. However, it is felt that a broader set of partnerships, particularly with national and regional research and development organisations would strengthen this capacity.

The HPAI projects, having been handled entirely by FAO, were rather abruptly interrupted at the end of their first year, despite the well acknowledged success of the project with regards to both outputs and outcomes. USAID decided to remove FAO from project management and divert the funds to the USAID sponsored and Texas A&M supervised SPSS-LMM project. It appears that USAID wished to consolidate the animal health projects it was funding under one umbrella.

The IGAD LPI project is housed separately to other activities of the SFE, and tends to operate in relative isolation from the rest of FAO in Ethiopia and the SFE. Given that it plays a key regional role in policy matters, its efficiency would undoubtedly be enhanced if it better integrated with the SFE programme.

6.5 Impacts

Impact assessments take time following project completion, and the outcomes are clearly influenced by a number of factors other than the project activities alone. Discussions made by the evaluation team with beneficiary communities, regional BoARDS and FAO staff in Addis Ababa and regional field offices, indicate that some of the animal nutritional emergency interventions and laboratory capacity building efforts made by FAO have had fruitful results. Beneficiary pastoralist households indicated that the use of MNBs increased the survival rate of drought affected animals. They also reported that this feeding intervention has doubled milk yields from lactating animals, especially goats, and enhanced the food security of vulnerable household members such as pregnant women, children and the elderly in Afar region. It has reportedly enhanced the reproductive cycle and milking frequency of goats. Another unintended impact might be the development of small business activities by cooperatives that produce MNBs. Nevertheless, benefits have been limited to a few households and there is a need for scaling up to larger groups through strong stakeholder partnerships.

⁶⁷ Examples include LoAs with the Assela Regional Animal Health laboratory on brucellosis and tuberculosis diagnosis, with the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine on hay box brooders, and Hawassa University on milk science.

Capacities have been developed for regional laboratories in animal disease surveillance, reporting and disease control both in facility and human resource development. This has strengthened Ethiopia's capacity in the control of transboundary livestock diseases, contributing towards improving livestock and livestock products markets, including for export. The potential for wider market exploitation in the Horn of Africa has created a broader understanding among pastoralist groups, opening up a new window for livestock market policy interventions.

The FAO projects on HPAI provided substantial input into the MoARD-coordinated preparedness and response programmes. This has undoubtedly improved the communication between ministries, and indeed between all partners engaged in zoonotic disease preparedness, through the establishment of committees, and of communications and emergency management protocols.

6.6 Sustainability

There are some valuable outputs from FAO's livestock interventions that require additional effort to ensure long-term sustainability. The MNB used as an emergency response proved an important dry season supplementary feed as well as a survival and productivity-enhancing intervention. Its ease of transportation and storage and usefulness in supporting the survival and productivity of animals during emergency periods has reportedly increased the demand among pastoral communities, and necessitated the creation of local supply.

FAO and some NGOs purchased MNBs from the cooperatives and distributed them to the communities. Cooperatives not only serve as reliable and sustained domestic sources for the supply of MNBs but also ran a viable income generating business. The production costs were Birr 19.00 per MNB, which they then sell at an average of Birr 26.00⁶⁸. Since market outlets are currently ensured for the cooperatives through the continued involvement of FAO and NGOs, the business looks healthy for the time being. The cooperatives have not yet developed a marketing capacity of their own, and the continued existence of these cooperatives beyond the life of the emergency projects is questionable. Production seems to continue without constraints due to the training offered to the cooperative members and the linking to sources of required ingredients.

A sustainability issue from the newly constructed regional laboratory capacities built is that their long term functionality depends on the continual availability of supplies and reagents; however following the completion of FAO projects these require hard currency from local authority budgets. In combination with the frequent staff turnover, this has frustrated the capacity of the laboratories to function effectively, meaning that some of these facilities are under utilized.

One of the critical limitations to improved livestock productivity in Ethiopia is the dominance of indigenous breeds in the national herd, of low genetic potential for production. This has been a condition created by a shortage of improved genotypes in the country and a poor national artificial insemination (AI) service to produce them adequately. The innovative idea of engaging farmer artificial inseminator technicians, similar to the CAHWs in animal health delivery, which has emerged from FAO's project GTFS/ETH/067/ITA in Arsi zone, appears to be a constructive innovation in improving the availability of dairy animals.

⁶⁸ Selling price per piece of MNB to; FAO is Birr 20.00, SC-UK is Birr 25.00 and other NGOs is Birr 32.00

Farmer AI technicians were trained for one month and given the responsibility of breeding community animals. However, the one month training is unlikely to equip the technicians with the necessary skills and knowledge, and further endeavours in this area will be necessary. There is need for FAO to proactively engage the regional, zonal and *woreda* bureaus of Oromiya for preparation to scale up this approach to other potential dairy areas. AI technicians are currently provided with semen and liquid nitrogen at a subsidized price. If they have to purchase these at market price and render services to farmers, there will be a need to consider mechanisms for cost recovery; otherwise they would operate at a loss.

The same project in Arsi Zone established 13 milk collection and processing cooperatives, thereby increasing the number operating in the zone to 34. Tasks of these dairy cooperatives are confined to milk collection from members and non-members, and processing into butter, cottage cheese and curd for the local market. The distribution of liquid milk to potential market centres is constrained by a lack of appropriate transportation and handling facilities, and the small volumes of milk collected daily. Opportunities for these cooperatives to stay in business depend on integration with market centres through the establishment of milk marketing unions with sufficient capacity.

In all the MNB producing cooperatives, the milk marketing cooperatives and the farmer AI technicians, FAO needs to ensure that these results are anchored in institutions that have the will and capacity to sustain them and scale them up. More active engagement of FAO with regional governments, the private sector, beneficiary communities and other stakeholders is needed to develop an enabling environment to scale up emergency results with the potential to support long term development programmes.

Important published normative products associated with FAO livestock projects include; a) Improving smallholders' marketed supply and market access for dairy and dairy products in the Arsi Zone⁶⁹; b) Proceedings of sub-regional workshop on managing East African rangelands for better response to feed crises⁷⁰; c) Livestock exports from the horn of Africa: an analysis of benefits by pastoralist wealth group and policy implications⁷¹; and d) Effects of climatic change on livestock production and livelihood of pastoralists in selected pastoral areas of Borena, Ethiopia⁷². These are valuable outputs which share experiences and lessons learned from past interventions that will be useful contributions to future initiatives.

⁶⁹ Asfaw Negassa, Zelalem Yilma, Aynalem Haile and Emmanuelle GuerneBleich. 2009. FAO, SFE.

⁷⁰ 9-12 November 2008, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, SFE and European Commission

⁷¹ Yacob Aklilu and Andy Catley. 2009. Feinstein International Center, Tufts University.

⁷² Zelalem Yilma, Aynalem Haile and Emmanuelle GuernBleich. 2009. FAO, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

7. Natural resource management

7.1 FAO's activities in natural resource management

One of FAO's more significant investments in Ethiopia's natural resource management has been the project OSRO/ETH/604/NET "Sustainable Land Management Project in Kafa zone, SNNPR" which started in June 2006 and was completed in December 2008. Its goal was supporting efforts for poverty reduction through integrated management, use and conservation of natural resources, including sustainable management of the Kafa forest. Some of the main areas of effort included assessment and management of forests and wetlands, integrated watershed management and helping to secure access to land and natural resources. The project was implemented by FAO's DRRU in collaboration with MoARD, and with financial support from the Government of the Netherlands: It built on previous activities funded by the Netherlands in Kafa zone, and used existing Ethiopian guidelines and experience on Integrated Watershed Management and Participatory Forest Management (PFM) which adapted to the circumstances in Kafa. The aim was to set up a pilot scheme to develop and refine methodologies around land registration, administration, and management of both farmlands and public lands.

In relation to water management, FAO has implemented a number of regional and trans-regional projects, within which activities in Ethiopia were included. These have included support for training in manual well drilling (MTF/INT/195/IWM), drought mitigation support for the rehabilitation of water points in pastoral areas in Oromia (OSRO/RAF/614/SWE), and the development of information system tools for the collection and analysis of water and hydro-meteorological data in support of decision-making (GCP/INT/945/ITA and GCP /INT/969/ITA).

In its country project portfolio, FAO has not implemented any specific forestry related projects. On a regional level Ethiopia has benefited from a TCP in support of capacity building of AU member states to develop good strategies, plans and project proposals for the successful implementation of the Great Green Wall for the Sahara and Sahel Initiative. There have been a number of other regional forestry initiatives carried out by FAO that have benefited Ethiopia. One of them is the initiation of the NFP process with the support of the NFP facility in Ethiopia. This facility was created in 2002 in response to the need to promote dialogue between forestry stakeholders (government, research, civil society, private sector, and media). An NFP facility agreement was signed between the Ministry of Finance of Ethiopia and FAO in December 2007 and since then a workshop has been held, a Stakeholders Committee formed and a fund established for forestry focussed civil society initiatives.

An emergency intervention was mounted in response to cypress aphid attack in 2008 in which FAO recruited a consultant to raise and initiate release of parasitoids in northern Ethiopia.

An SFE study was undertaken on the status and proposals related to Forest Policy in Ethiopia. The report was completed in 2007 and shared with MoARD and other stakeholders.

In response to a GoE request, FAO has implemented five projects concerning pesticide management for a total budget of US\$ 6.5 million. The projects have focused mainly on the disposal of obsolete pesticide activities. They are almost equally split between capacity building and mere disposal, and have targeted the entire country (policy makers, national institutions and their staff, in particular the

Environmental Protection Agency, the Ministry of Health, and the Drug and Control Administration Authority). Their average duration is 3.3 years.

With respect to aquaculture and fisheries, small scale activities were included under the 060/BEL BSF project which promoted pond development and stocking with common carp and provided 8 development agents with training in aquaculture at Ambo University and in Israel. FAO facilitated the development of a national aquaculture development strategy (NADS) of Ethiopia. Data collection and analysis on the status of fisheries and aquaculture was carried out and a stakeholder workshop undertaken. The NADS document was endorsed by the State Minister of MoARD. The concept note for a project entitled “Bridging the gap of fish seed demand through hatchery establishment and village based extension” was prepared and presented by SFE and is under consideration for funding.

FAO assisted the University to establish Aquaculture Training Centre and also to start an MSc programme in Aquaculture and Fisheries. The centre and the graduate programme are now operational. In 2008 a Pan African Fisheries Association conference was held in Addis Ababa University for which FAO provided financial and technical support. Strengthening Ethiopian Fisheries and Aquatic Science Association (EFASA) was officially inaugurated at the same time and FAO has subsequently supported two EFASA conferences

7.2 Relevance

Many development activities of natural resource management areas such as OSRO/ETH/604/NET “Sustainable Land Management Project in Kafa zone, SNNPR” were funded with emergency resources. This is one case only of many situations of opportunistic funding in the FAO’s Ethiopia projects portfolio. It becomes difficult to find any kind of balance as many cases of emergencies result from lack of development initiatives.

The activities carried out by FAO’s projects in Ethiopia in relation to SLM were found to be relevant to the needs of the primary beneficiaries. Furthermore, analysis of the country’s policy documents and the discussion with the government partners indicate that project activities were aligned to government policies and priorities, particularly as they are expressed in PASDEP. No similar effort was made by FAO for consultation with WFP in relation with the MERIT watershed activities. This is a missed opportunity because FAO technical input could have been relevant.

However, in many cases the interventions were built from scratch without adequate prior beneficiary needs studies. There were no relevant studies to establish typologies of farmers and farming systems in order to have a differentiated approach in delivery during the implementation phases. Although many projects mention supporting the improvement of the beneficiaries’ livelihood, there were no livelihoods scoping studies, and there was lack of rigor in implementing a Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA). The way the livelihood interventions are chosen and executed outside the SLA framework gives the impression of a dispersion of effort in activities instead of aiming at outcomes at beneficiary wellbeing level.

While the SLM approach has been relevant, the complexity of the farming systems in the high rainfall area of the south west, with a diversity of annual and perennial crops, trees and livestock, could have been further considered in the design of the activities. A prior analysis of these farming

systems would have justified an integrative approach linking the main three production components to optimize their contribution to the farmers' wellbeing in an SLM framework. For the cultivated steep slopes, although there was an effort to introduce watershed management techniques in some projects, there was no adequate approach to solving land degradation or to take into account the link between this degradation and the human environmental pathology such as iodine deficiency which is endemic in many areas.

There are also thematic needs of direct or indirect relevance to SLM, including to food security, nutrition and gender equity. These include the problems of firewood scarcity and goitre that affect mostly women and children. The necessity to address the firewood problem is obvious. As for goitre, it should be noted that the problem is linked to iodine deficiency which is frequently associated with eroded soils in mountainous areas. Soil and water conservation measures addressing this problem could therefore be featured in the SLM framework.

With regard to the disposal of obsolete pesticides, these activities were relevant because they addressed an important problem of the presence of important stockpiles of dangerous pesticides in Ethiopia, and the corresponding need to build capacity to manage them.

In relation to the natural resource management, FAO's draft NMTPF pays adequate attention to sustainable management of natural resource management and development. The importance given to scaling up SLM by investing in field-based projects responds to the GoE wish to see more concrete involvement of FAO development. However, the mission did not find that FAO had paid sufficient attention to the mainstreaming of SLM. Similarly, the interventions proposed in the NMTPF for forestry are in line with government strategies and current plans and activities. But they do not propose innovative approaches of how FAO and the government can maximize the contribution of forestry to slowing down land degradation, solving the fuel wood crisis, alleviating the burden for women of gathering scarce firewood, and reducing the degradation of soil and water in watersheds. For fisheries, the proposed interventions are conservative. FAO could innovate in exploring with concrete field interventions how to integrate fisheries and aquaculture in local community livelihoods and needs and in the farming systems, as well as the regional and national economies.

In Kafa, the Netherlands precipitously withdrew funding due to a change in their strategy from a regional to a national policy focused programme. Before this, FAO had made an effort to link sustainable management of natural resources with tenure security. Linking intensification of farming with improving the productivity of forested land for livelihoods and local development needs similar attention. Local people and institutions can develop appropriate management plans and sign an agreement with local government. However, a progressive move towards communal land certification is required in Kafa to protect and improve livelihoods and sustainable natural resource use. In addition the strengthening of local government capacity in land use planning and informed decision making on land allocation is required. This needs to be accompanied by the enforcement of protected areas and Participatory Forest Management (PFM) sites.

Box 2. Participatory Forest Management

Kafa people have developed local tenure rights institutions¹. These customary forest management arrangements are generally not respected by new actors like settlers and investors. The PFM process promoted by FAO has facilitated collective action by the users of a given forested area to regulate resource use and prevent encroaching, poaching, illegal harvest of immature products, and the use of destructive harvest methods. By approving the PFM, the *woreda* recognizes the user group rights. A total of 35 PFM have been developed and approved in 18 months, all facilitated by government staff. The SLM approach is appreciated locally, as demonstrated by requests of neighbouring communities to start a PFM process.

7.3 Effectiveness

With regard to structure of support, FAO acted through partnership with government partners for implementation. Effectiveness is therefore dependent on the effectiveness of government at federal and regional level, depending on the level at which implementation is taking place. FAO's effectiveness is therefore influenced by the effectiveness of the partners. This partnership has been invariably effective with all the ministries concerned.

With regard to the projects, the effectiveness was found satisfactory. The overall contribution of projects is generally appreciated by the partners and by the primary beneficiaries. Effectiveness has been found as being moderately satisfactory for watershed management and not satisfactory for crop/livestock/trees integration in the farming systems.

To achieve effectiveness, it is important to consider that sufficient project duration is needed for social processes to become established, for developing adequate approaches, and to ensure their ownership by the beneficiaries and partners. In this regard for example, the duration of 18 months for Kafa project was too short. Such a limited duration does not allow the design of a flexible and open system of collaboration with primary stakeholders.

However, the experiences from the SLM project implemented in Kafa were used by the government and its partners to plan and implement other SLM projects and programmes. Recently this alignment reached a higher stage with FAO leading the elaboration of the "Ethiopian Strategic Investment Framework for Sustainable Land Management" on request of the GoE.

In the area of disposal of obsolete pesticides, FAO's projects were effective in meeting the assigned objectives of cleaning up of the storage sites and destruction of a large proportion of the stocks. Furthermore, the projects built capacity through a comprehensive training programme, and drafted new legislation for pesticide management which has been approved by the Parliament. A Pilot programme on Integrated Pesticide Management on cotton was effective in improving farmer knowledge and practices. Some elements of the prevention component, including developing policy for pesticide purchase, construction of storage network of pesticide storage sites, were not completed.

7.4 Efficiency

FAO has achieved a number of outputs in the area of SLM related to training of a large number of local government officials at the zone, the *woredas* and *kebele* level and watershed committee members on topics such as land classification, land use planning, monitoring and policy dialogue and most *woredas* have included SLM in their Action Plans for the Millennium. Guidelines have been developed and the project has helped speed up GoE land certification and registry efforts. Over 13,500 households have been issued certificates.

Using national guidelines a number of pilot watershed management interventions (sub-watershed level) were undertaken and community watershed management plans have been developed in a dozen communities. There is a systematic inclusion of women and representatives of marginalized groups, such as the Menja. Concurrently support has been provided for agroforestry through the

distribution of 142,325 coffee seedlings, 12,000 cardamom plants, 40,000 farm trees and 32,000 ensete trees. Over 50 km of terraces have been established under the Kafa project.

Watershed management takes into account the wetlands which play a key role in the livelihoods of local communities as the source of income, food, animal feed and materials for construction and thatching. Government has selected wetlands as areas to be certified under communal lands. The project identified and mapped wetland areas to be registered under communal land, and conducted a survey of the rights, the routes of cattle movements and modes of regulations.

Some of the key outputs from the disposal of obsolete pesticides project include initial assessments of OP stocks in-country, training of regional ministry staff; shipment of OP abroad for incineration, a review of IPM in Ethiopia including a review of regulation and laws on pesticides; and the development of a National strategy for storage and stock management.

Partnership has been an important element of these and other NRM related activities undertaken by FAO which has enhanced efficiency. At the federal level, there is a solid partnership between FAO and the Government, especially the Ministry of Natural Resources in the effort to streamline SLM. At the regional and *woreda* levels, there is equally a solid partnership with the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development in the implementation of the SLM practices at household levels.

7.5 Impacts

Sustainable development of Ethiopia's rural areas that depend on the use of natural resources is conditioned on the country's capacity to realize the productive potentials of the farmers through the creation of the opportunities for changes in production practices, social organization and access to technologies and markets. These conditions require the accumulation of human, physical, natural, financial and social assets⁷³ in order to improve the capacity of the farmers to engage in activities with higher human and land productivity, and to build shock resistance mechanisms. Human assets refer to beneficiaries' skills, education, experiences and capacity for work and participation in social networks, including their health and nutritional status. Financial assets include the financial resources that the beneficiaries use to achieve their livelihoods objectives, and include savings as well as income from their activities. Physical assets encompass all of the structures, infrastructure and equipment used for production. Natural assets include for example, forests, trees, fruit trees, and the functions these resources provide, such as watersheds, erosion control, grazing lands. Social assets can be thought of as membership in groups or voluntary associations, and other social relationships and that shape the quality and quantity of a community or society's social interactions.

Human assets. The training activities and capacity building provided to beneficiaries and government partners services helped strengthen human assets in project areas.

Physical and financial assets. In some FAO project areas, beneficiaries are acquiring income from natural resources management, such as flooded area management and fruit tree growing. Beneficiaries may use surplus for the acquisition of productive assets, the purchase of household equipment or for home improvement.

⁷³ This is referred to as the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA)

Concerning natural assets, in the Kafa project, the most significant contribution to household assets has been the support to the process of land certification. This operation made a significant contribution to poverty reduction in Kafa by reaching most of its population equally, and giving access to land ownership.

Concerning wider environmental changes, Elizabeth Dresen (<http://www.geosysnet.de>) documented with satellite imagery the regeneration of some degraded areas Kafa Forest attributable to PFM. However, in discussion of these results with Julien Dupuy (SLM Expert and former FAO Kafa project staff member), these observation are very localized and do not yet reflect a wider impact.

Some changes are beginning to be seen in soil conservation by the formation of anti-erosion terraces. However the impact of terracing interventions on human assets, in the form of the development of skills and knowledge, has been limited by the poor quality of extension work, which has not sufficiently introduced the tree component in the agricultural landscape. There has not been an imaginative integration of the crop, livestock and tree components on the farm. Furthermore, capacity-building efforts have largely ignored the importance of changing people's attitudes towards improving home management. The homes of many of the beneficiaries of FAO remain tangles of misery in which the family share the same home as cows and donkeys.

There is no evidence that the project has had an impact in reducing overgrazing. Although the project distributed forage seeds to farmers there was no effort to promote zero grazing practices in areas where this is feasible..

Social assets. The most significant contribution made in this domain has come from the PFM process. Communities have been empowered through the effective use of participatory forest management plans. Generally, the project did not have a strategy for the formation of social assets through support to creation and functioning of beneficiaries organizations.

Impact on women. Since there is no gender strategy included in the project documents, or any systematic monitoring information system of participation by men and women in the various FAO's NRM interventions, the gender impact of the project is not clear, and probably minimal. Land certification in Kafa has helped to women to be co-owners of land with their husbands. This has probably contributed to improving women's' self-esteem, improved their position within the family and society, and reduced their vulnerability.

Impacts of the activities of disposal of obsolete pesticides. The overall impact of these activities is considerable and consists mainly in the reduction of risks to human health and the protection of the environment. Another important area of impact is the national capacity that was built and the legislation that was passed by parliament so that management of pesticides can be improved.

7.6 Sustainability

The approaches and tools that worked in Kafa can be used in areas with comparable ecological contexts and challenges. There are, for example, strong similarities with western and south central parts of Ethiopia that also have a substantial natural resources potential, a mixture of communal lands and fields, presence of resettlement schemes, refugees camps, and investment scheme. The institutional sustainability of PFMs has been strengthened by their integrating in the overall NRM

strategy of the Kafa Zone. Instead of a patchwork, the strategy of GoE is now to work towards a coherent corridor of PFMs covering large areas. Such a strategy will contribute to sustain forest-based livelihoods and protect valuable non timber forest products such as wild coffee. This strategy may also prevent frustration and even potential conflicts with adjacent communities of a PFM, which are not yet organized. With regard to the management of obsolete pesticides, a factor of sustainability, in addition to capacity building, is the new legislation that was passed by the parliament to control pesticides. However, sustainability may not be achieved without the development of measures to enforce the law.

8. Gender

8.1 The Ethiopia context

Despite women constituting about half of the total Ethiopian population, they are at a severely disadvantaged position and possess a low status in society. Gender inequality is a pervasive feature of rural livelihoods in Ethiopia. Women have unequal ownership of, or access to, productive resources, their decision making responsibilities and resource uses are severely restricted, and they shoulder unequal roles and responsibilities when compared to men. As a result women are poorer, have fewer years of school, are poorly educated, have a lower health status and heavier workloads. Despite these inequalities, women account for some 70% of household food production in Ethiopia⁷⁴.

In recognition of this substantial gender gap, GoE has shown a commitment to fostering gender equality by signing and ratifying international and regional human and women's rights conventions, such as the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Ethiopia has a national women's policy, and has a full-fledged Ministry of Women's Affairs at federal level, women affairs departments in different sectors offices and at regional level, Women's Affairs offices at *woreda* level, and Women's Associations at PA level.

In the PASDEP, a target for participation in rural development initiatives was set of 30% for women farmers in male-headed households, and 100% of female-headed households by 2010. Although the GoE has not supported these targets with earmarked budgets, it has developed a detailed national plan of action titled: "National Plan of Action for Gender Equality" (NAP-GE) for 2006-2010, to enhance gender equality and promote the empowerment of women, corresponding with PASDEP aspirations. Furthermore, the GoE has developed in 2006 a special development package entitled "Women's Development and Change Package" to be used as development strategy to enhance women's equal participation and equitable benefits from development interventions. The package emphasises the importance of women being organized in such a way as to have collective power, and to have better access to development resources such as credit. There are special challenges in the agriculture sector in particular with respect to traditional livelihood roles and as concerns control over household economic resources. A recent SIDA Ethiopia study found that there are very few women extension agents in Ethiopia, and extension packages frequently lack gender sensitivity in that they fail to recognize the different roles and responsibilities of women and men in farming⁷⁵. The same report laments the lack of gender disaggregated data on which to analyze gender equity in Ethiopia. The combination of these two factors make a judgment on the extent to which equity targets within the PASDEP have been met as indeterminable.

8.2 FAO's approach to gender equity

FAO has a global organizational commitment and a political will to seek greater gender equality and women's empowerment through mainstreaming gender issues as one of its strategic objective (K),

⁷⁴ IPMS Ethiopia 2007. Toolkit for gender analysis of crop and livestock production technologies and services provision. MOARD, ILRI, CIDA.

⁷⁵ Gender Aware Approaches in Agricultural Programmes – Ethiopia Country Report. SIDA. May 2010

introduced in the recent organizational transformation. However at present FAO has no global or national policy that guides its organizational system and programming in terms of gender and women's empowerment. FAO's former Global Strategy and Plan of Action for Gender are no longer being pursued. In the past, FAO used to develop gender operational plans as a corporate good practice, and reported progress accordingly, submitting outputs to the Program Steering Committee. There is no such practice in existence now, and no mechanism has been introduced to replace it.

The evaluation mission noted a number of areas in which FAO performs positively in Ethiopia:

- i) There are some constructive normative products on gender. For example FAO and WFP have developed a gender-training manual⁷⁶. Gender training for WFP and FAO staff, based on this material, was underway at the time of the mission, and other courses were reported. It is however noted that this important product has not been used in developing or managing the different TCE programmes.
- ii) In some projects, for example the BSF project, there is deliberate targeting of women and the vulnerable groups in project design. Interventions that target women's livelihoods such as husbandry of small ruminants, milk production, and home gardens have been promoted.
- iii) FAO support for land registration in SNNPR has been positive in terms of promoting equity, ensuring that female headed households are able to register land and promoting land registration in both the name of husband and wife.
- iv) A global gender evaluation and gender audit have been initiated by FAO headquarters in order to chart future directions for the organisation.

Strategic focus: With regard to gender equality the draft NMTPF is remarkably silent with respect to FAO's commitment to gender equality and women's empowerment, at strategic (policy), technical and operational levels. FAO's draft NMTPF has not considered gender, either at the level of analysis, nor in charting future policies and strategies. Similarly the DRM PoA includes only one paragraph on gender, which focuses on the need for women to participate in projects and in particular community beneficiary identification committees.

Intervention approach: There is a tendency to engage with women in building skills for livelihood activities reflecting their traditional roles, such as embroidery, tailoring, etc., rather than engaging and promoting women in mainstream activities. Opportunities for including women in lucrative non-traditional livelihoods exist and need to be fully exploited. For example honey gathering from tree hives high up in the forests were previously male domains, but recent efforts to put hives around the homestead make this livelihood more accessible to both males and females.

In addition to supporting livelihoods, FAO's work has the opportunity to support equity in other ways such as reducing the heavy work burden of wood gathering for women through the promotion of fuel efficient stoves (the BSF project) or through development of water sources for human, animal

⁷⁶ Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) for Emergency and Rehabilitation Programmes. FAO and WFP, 2008.

and garden uses. No concerted effort has been put into the strategic support required to organize and strengthen women's organizations so that they develop their leadership, organizational and institutional capacities to ensure adequate access to programme resources, and sustain positive results obtained from programmes.

As previously mentioned, the evaluation mission noted in some cases the deliberate targeting of female headed households as vulnerable groups, for example in the BSF project. However, even in such a successful programme, efforts had not been geared towards bringing about transformation in relation to women's organizational capacity building, even if the GoE women's development and transformation was geared towards it. The number of women in various youth organizations and rural associations, cooperatives and unions supported by FAO are minimal.

Staffing. Ensuring the accountability of all staff is critical for effective gender mainstreaming in human resource management. Review of some of the vacancy announcements indicates that gender knowledge and understanding has not been included as an important skill, and there is no statement encouraging females to apply. There is no affirmative action in the recruitment process. The evaluation mission also noted that gender awareness is not included in the job description of programme and support staff. Similarly gender awareness is not included in the performance review criteria as a standard procedure of the organization.

Deliberate actions have not been put into place to transform the unequal gender relations at organizational or programmatic levels. The majority of FAO Ethiopia staff is male and there is a lack of female field staff.

FAO Ethiopia currently has no structure (such as a focal person or gender expert) to facilitate its gender commitment as part of an accountability system at the organizational level which ensures that gender equality objectives are translated into action. Reviewing FAO's structure in relation to how responsibilities and tasks are shared among its own staff, and in overall project management, it was found that FAO's structure is very hierarchical, cross learning is very limited, and is a male dominated organization in which the key positions from mid-to high levels are occupied by men.

Table 2. Staff profile of all projects

Descriptions	Male	Female	Total	% of females
International staff/experts	8	0	8	0.00
National consultants/managers/experts	52	7	59	11.86
General services/administration and programme support	38	11	49	22.45
Total	98	18	116	15.52

Source: The team analysis from the human resource data provided during the mission, Oct. 2010.

Women constitute only 15.5% of total project staff. The percentage of women is much lower as one goes to the higher categories of employment. The proportion of women increases among the general services and programme support level. There is no woman at the international advisor/consultant level. Women constitute 11% of the national consultants, programme/project managers/ experts (Table 2). The profile of the programme staff of the SFE is not significantly different, in which the proportion of women was found to be 20 percent. There is no representation of women in senior management positions. The evaluation mission noted the absence of proactive strategies implemented to recruit or promote women into senior management positions.

Gender in Programme Cycle Management (PCM)

Gender has not been systematically reflected in different project/programme cycle management processes. Assessing the project documents through a gender lens indicates that no gender disaggregated data has been generated nor any gender analysis been made for use in project design. This holds true for both DRRU and development programmes. Similarly, the project log frames have not reflected the gender perspective adequately. As a result, the differential impacts of projects on women and men have not been reflected.

9. The importance of linking relief, recovery and development

All parties engaged in Ethiopia's development, whether GoE or international donors, are frustrated by the "basket case" label that Ethiopia has attracted over many years in the international media. GoE is now more determined than ever to put over the case that says "those days are over; Ethiopia is now on the road to becoming a middle income country; famine is behind us". The problem is that while Ethiopia undoubtedly does have such development potential, it remains food insecure, and will likely remain so for the foreseeable future. New crises will occur, whether famine or flood, and Ethiopia must do much better in coping with these, as well as be seen to be doing better by the international community. At the same time, the country must make its agricultural systems stronger and more efficient, as well as diversify livelihood enterprise opportunities so that for the huge and growing rural population, all the eggs are not in the agriculture basket.

FAO can and must play a key role in helping Ethiopia to bring these diverse opportunities and challenges together under one umbrella, which cover the distinct - but integrally linked - processes of development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building. But to do this, FAO must first get its own house in order so that policies, strategies and technical support interventions that it advocates and practices are themselves interlinked, cohesive and relevant, something that is demonstrably inadequate in the FAO of Ethiopia today.

In several sections of this report, the Evaluation Mission has drawn attention to the lack of effective integration of the elements of the tripartite system comprising FAO Ethiopia, DRRU Ethiopia and the SFE Ethiopia, despite the efforts to forge a "One FAO" by the former FAOR. In many ways the system was his worst enemy in translating this noble aspiration into reality. This is derived from the inherent division in fund raising and executive responsibilities between the FAOETH and the DRRU, which actually promotes the concept of two separate institutions; one (quite successfully) chasing new short-term emergency projects to ensure its survival, and reporting to Rome; and the other (rather unsuccessfully) surviving on a mere handful of nominal longer term and inadequately strategic development projects, but yet still seen by the GoE as the engine room (albeit somewhat ineffectual) of FAO in the country. This situation must change if FAO is to play its role in Ethiopia.

Having a Road Map for FAO in Ethiopia is clearly the first step. Some elements of FAO, particularly the quiet diplomacy of the former FAOR, have influenced the GoE's new GTP, which lays out the background landscape for the Road Map. The GTP is ambitious, and puts emphasis on striving for self sufficiency in food, though a combination of enhancing efficiency in small scale rural enterprises, strengthening extension services to them, encouraging the engagement of the private sector, and opening the doors wider to investment in large scale farming. FAO has capacity in many of these areas, but it needs to be much clearer as to where it can really contribute, and focus on these areas.

Critical to the functionality of a new Road Map will be to secure adequate funding. Encouragingly, the FAO Investment Centre has played a significant role in developing the Policy Investment Framework (PIF), which is a 10-year road map for development in Ethiopia that identifies priority areas for investment and estimates the financing needs to be provided by Government and its development partners. It is anchored to, and aligned with, Ethiopia's vision of becoming a middle income country by 2025 together with a number of key policy and strategic statements. Within the PIF, four strategic objectives have been identified (see Table 3 below).

Thematic Area	Strategic Objectives (SOs)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Productivity and Production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SO1: To achieve a sustainable increase in agricultural productivity and production.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rural Commercialisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SO2: To accelerate agricultural commercialisation and agro-industrial development.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Natural Resource Management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SO3: To reduce degradation and improve productivity of natural resources.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disaster Risk Management and Food Security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SO4: To achieve universal food security and protect vulnerable households from natural disasters.

Table 3. Strategic objectives in each Thematic Area of the Policy Investment Framework

The total budget over the ten-year PIF is in the vicinity of USD 12.5 billion, of which around USD 2.5 billion is already committed under existing programmes and projects. Most of the additional USD 10.0 billion of funding will be required during the second half of the PIF period. Priority investments have been identified under each of the four SOs, to be financed jointly by the Government and its development partners. On the basis of Government funding 60% of investment costs and 100% of recurrent costs; and donors funding 40% of investment costs, this indicates a contribution of around USD 6.8 billion from Government and USD 3.2 billion from donors. The recent announcement of US\$ 51 million from the GAFSP is an encouraging contribution to the identified needs.

But there are other options for funding, and the evaluation mission has proposed that resource mobilisation skills should be included in the terms of reference for both FAOR and A-FAOR. Beyond this, greater linkages are proposed between FAO Ethiopia and the Investment Centre, drawing on the exceptional fund raising skills and expertise in this latter entity, and the opportunity for more fund raising at the country level.

The new Road Map for FAO, developed as a CPF, should spell out clearly where it can make key contributions to the identified strategic objectives. These must be developed in a constructive dialogue, initially within FAO as a whole (including all components in Ethiopia), as well as the regional office in Accra, and key elements of FAO in Rome (in particular the Investment Centre), before being tabled with GoE and other development partners in Ethiopia. The Evaluation Mission is not arguing that FAO should regain its former glory; the days of liberal funding of infrastructure development with UNDP support are in the past. But the Evaluation Mission is arguing that FAO should play a much more strategic and clearly identifiable role in Ethiopia's development plans, carefully aligned to its comparative advantage.

From discussions with multiple stakeholders, the Evaluation Mission suggests that key areas that stand out as potential strengths for FAO to consider in the CPF process include:

- Support to Ethiopia's agricultural development and natural resource management policy agenda

- Enhancement of crop and livestock production and marketing enterprises through sound value chain analysis
- Support to developing the seed and fertiliser industries through innovative public private partnerships
- Support to land use and natural resource management
- Support for PSNP graduation through the promotion of effective household asset building interventions
- Developing a sound conceptual framework that effectively links the processes of development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building, and spells out clear action points for the appropriate engagement of FAO. A critical entry point for this is the HAB pillar within the FSP, where FAO intervention at policy, normative and capacity building levels can aptly build on its own experience in resilience building of vulnerable households, making them more robust to shocks and able to build solid livelihoods.

As mentioned, this will not only require the process of Road Map development, but also an overhaul of how FAO manages its operations in Ethiopia, ensuring a seamless communication between groups and projects, irrespective of their different funding sources. In building up FAO's performance, the incoming FAOR is challenged with being both a composer and conductor.

10. Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions

- ***The global importance of Ethiopia.*** Ethiopia continues to hold its place in the global spotlight as a food insecure country, but one with the potential for agriculture to play a much more demonstrable role in development, food security and poverty reduction; FAO has a key role to play in helping Ethiopia to realise this potential
- ***FAO's achievements in Ethiopia.*** There have been some key milestones in FAO's recent achievements, evidence of the talent and institutional strengths existing in Ethiopia and elsewhere in FAO. These have been particularly in the areas of food security and asset building, infectious disease control, sustainable land use management, contributions to the Livestock Emergency Guidelines and Standards (LEGS), and resource planning and mobilisation. The visionary attributes of the outgoing FAOR and his contributions to the development policy debate are well recognised by all partners; regrettably these visionary attributes have not permeated FAO's programmes in Ethiopia
- ***The urgent need for a Road Map for FAO in Ethiopia.*** The Mission finds the absence of a shared vision for FAO's engagement in Ethiopia; this directly affects the effectiveness and efficiency of its contributions, and the image of FAO in the country. The draft NMTPF does not address key issues of mainstreaming disaster risk management (DRM), natural resource management (NRM) and gender; and the delays in developing the NMTPF are inexcusable. There is now an urgent need to pick up on this process, and develop a well articulated Road Map for FAO as a whole in Ethiopia, with clear priorities, action points, funding strategy and outcomes, developed through a structured dialogue with partners. The Road Map will demand time, extraordinary commitment, and above all engagement of key partners in the process. This will be a primary task for the incoming FAOR and his team.
- ***There is a disharmony between FAO's diverse contributions in Ethiopia.*** Notwithstanding the lack of a CPF built on a shared vision of FAO's role in Ethiopia, the Evaluation Mission concludes that inadequate attention has been given to harmonising the sometimes disparate contributions of the emergency and development arms of FAO in Ethiopia in order to capture more effectively FAO's comparative advantage. This reflects on the inadequate cohesion and management of FAO's programmes in the country. Programmes are too dispersed and often undertaken in a piecemeal fashion, causing inefficiencies, reducing synergies and constraining the potential for demonstrable impacts.
- ***The role of the SFE in supporting national programmes in Ethiopia.*** The SFE is still searching for the appropriate balance in its national and regional responsibilities as it seeks to please its multiple clients and host country government. This apparent inadequacy in the mechanisms for prioritisation results in a lack of clarity in the roles and responsibilities of its contributions to the Ethiopia programme, .
- ***The unrealistic division of labour of the FAO Representative.*** The FAOR has six different positions, most of them beyond the role of head of FAO's country mission to Ethiopia. The

overburdening of the FAOR, under the auspices of the decentralisation of FAO, places unrealistic demands on the bearer of this office, and at the same time reduces the credibility and effectiveness of FAO's representation to Ethiopia.

- ***Competiveness and achievement in resource mobilisation.*** The Evaluation Mission concludes that there has been insufficient effort by, and capacity of, the FAOR and A-FAOR in fundraising. This has been compounded by an inadequate dialogue between FAO Ethiopia and the Investment Centre in Rome. While the DRRU has been successful in raising funds for emergency operations, some of which have had a strong development flavour, the development programme has not had the same success. Moreover, repeated short term funding is not appropriate for resourcing these types of capacity building interventions required for longer-term development & NRM issues. Key to this will be a visionary Road Map.
- ***Recognition of the strength of a sound evidence base to policies and strategies.*** The CSA project has contributed to improvements in institutional capacity to collect and analyse crop production statistics, a national resource in planning and evaluation. However, FAO needs to give greater consideration to a sound evidence-base of the multiple risks to which Ethiopians in different environments are exposed, and the use of such understanding in poverty reduction and food security planning processes. Sound data and well structured monitoring and evaluation systems are central to this. Furthermore, FAO's own system and capacity for monitoring, evaluation and analysis leaves much to be desired.
- ***The capacity to respond to market opportunities.*** FAO has concentrated in its emergency activities on the distribution of seeds, fertilizer, feeds, MNBs, etc, and in its development activities on diversification of livelihoods into fruit trees, etc. It is important that much greater attention is given to the sustainable production and marketing of input and output commodities of crop and livestock enterprises through a sound understanding of current and emerging rural value chains, and the appropriate engagement of private sector and/or cooperative actors.

Recommendations

1. ***Develop a Road Map for FAO in Ethiopia.*** FAO must urgently reignite the process of dialogue, both internal and with the GoE, to develop the CPF which will serve as a Road Map for the strategy FAO in its entirety in Ethiopia for the next 5 years aligned with priorities identified within the GTP. While the content of the Road Map will be developed through constructive dialogue on priorities and strategies, the Evaluation Mission identifies certain key areas which deserve consideration.
 - ***Restructure the national portfolio.*** A restructuring of the portfolio is necessary to feature a much stronger emphasis on longer-term development activities, while ensuring these are based on a sound conceptual framework comprising integrally linked processes of development, emergency response, recovery, rehabilitation and resilience building.

- **Draw on key policy documents.** The Road Map should draw strongly on the GoE's new GTP, on the PIF, the FAO's strategic objectives, and on the TCE Operational Strategy for 2010 – 2013.
- **Develop pillar-specific strategies.** FAO should have differentiated strategies within the CPF for addressing the three pillars of chronic food insecurity, acute food insecurity and economic growth. A resource mobilisation strategy for each pillar should be articulated based on the CPF.
- **Strengthen market perspectives and commercial partnerships.** It is important that much greater attention is given to the sustainable production and marketing of input and output commodities of crop and livestock enterprises through a sound understanding of current and emerging rural value chains, and the appropriate engagement of private sector and/or cooperative actors.
- **Include gender indicators.** Include gender indicators in all household level information gathering activities. Invest in gender analysis of the different livelihoods of, and roles played within those livelihoods, by males and females. Use this analysis in the design of interventions to promote improved gender equity.

From discussions with multiple stakeholders, the Evaluation Mission suggests that key technical areas that stand out as potential strengths for FAO to consider in the CPF process include:

- Support to Ethiopia's agricultural development and natural resource management policy agenda
 - Enhancement of crop and livestock production and marketing enterprises through sound value chain analysis
 - Support to developing the seed and fertiliser industries through innovative public private partnerships
 - Support to land use and natural resource management
 - Support for PSNP graduation through the promotion of effective household asset building interventions.
 - Developing a sound conceptual framework that effectively links the processes of development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building, and spells out clear action points for the appropriate engagement of FAO.
2. **Engage proactively in programmatic resource mobilisation.** FAO should utilize its Road Map, and its international reputation, technical capacity, global networking and information capabilities and other attributes to better mobilize longer term resources for integrated risk reduction, resilience building and development interventions.
- **Strengthen links between TCI and FAO Ethiopia.** Much success has been achieved by the Investment Centre (TCI) with and on behalf of the GoE. A continuing dialogue between TCI and FAO Ethiopia should be established to ensure a mutual understanding of opportunities and modalities for increased funding to emerging Road Map priorities.

- **Establish fund raising forum.** The country focus team (led by the Policy and Programme Development Support Division-TCS) and the relevant technical units of FAO should establish a forum to discuss fundraising for development in Ethiopia, and how the capacity for local fund mobilization by the FAOR/SRC and A-FAOR could be strengthened. This is particularly relevant in the context of increasing levels of decision making within donor organizations being delegated to the country level. Joint and collaborative efforts should be pursued by FAOR, DRRU and the multi-disciplinary team of SFE.
 - **Mobilize regular budget resources for the deployment of a FSN expert within the SFE MDT.** Given widespread food security issues in Ethiopia and the broader region, the SFE multi-disciplinary team should include a food security and nutrition expert, working in close collaboration with the REOA in Nairobi and with TC AGN, and ES in HQ. Funding for this position should come from regular programme resources to ensure sustainability.
 - **Engage with NFSP forums.** FAO should engage in NFSP forums and programmes, in particular HAB, advocating a broader package of support to chronically vulnerable households. This would exploit the increased interest by GoE and donors in HAB and potential resources available for interventions that promote PSNP graduation strategies.
3. ***Unify FAO in Ethiopia.*** The new incoming FAOR must use the Road Map to create a common vision within the FAO country team, complemented by management structures and systems for sectoral and thematic teamwork for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of FAO interventions. This will include:
- **Institutionalise information sharing.** Greater transparency should be established in the FAO Ethiopia by institutionalizing information sharing among the staff of FAOR, DRRU and SFE. An annual retreat should be established with the participation of all the staff for jointly reviewing collaboration and performance and identifying a common workplan and priorities for the coming year.
 - **Develop clear guidelines for the engagement of SFE staff in Ethiopia issues.** All engagement of SFE staff in Ethiopia-specific programming and planning (rather than purely technical) activities should be undertaken under a clear set of operational guidelines and monitored by the FAOR, to ensure engagement at the right level, and appropriate commitment and follow-through.
 - **Establish a food security team.** Establish a food security and nutrition (FSN) thematic team within FAO Ethiopia to work on FAO's country level FSN analysis, strategy, approaches and key messages, and to provide a much more structured interface with WFP and UNICEF. Good practice in prevention, mitigation & response and recovery (DRM) should constitute the main thrust of FAO's strategy for tackling acute food insecurity. Good practice and lessons learned in household asset building should constitute the main thrust of FAO's strategy for tackling chronic food insecurity.

- **Establish an agricultural development and economic growth team.** Within the FAO Ethiopia a team should be set up to follow up on the agricultural development and economic growth components of the new CPF. This team should establish regular dialogue with the food security team to ensure compliance with the development, emergency response, recovery and resilience building continuum.
 - **Establish a natural resource management team.** Within FAO Ethiopia a focal point should be established to ensure that crop and livestock development and emergency response initiatives are carefully shaped within a sustainable NRM framework.
 - **Integrate the IGAD-LPI programme into SFE.**
 - **Promote gender equity.** Proactively seek to promote gender equity within FAO human resources through the preferential recruitment of qualified female staff (in particular for field positions), the inclusion of gender training as a desirable qualification skill within job descriptions, and the establishment of a gender focal point within the country team with a clear mandate to mainstream gender equity within the programme.
4. ***Strengthen FAO's visibility in, and relevance to, Ethiopia.*** Given the multiple functions of the FAO representation, and the deleterious effect this has on the country representation to Ethiopia, and with a view to further strengthening the principles of the decentralisation of FAO's activities, FAO should consider options that would give greater strength to the FAO Ethiopia country office, and minimise the negative effects on Ethiopia of the double accreditation currently in place. These might include:
- The appointment of an internationally recruited A-FAOR and/or the assignment of a senior programme officer.
 - Soliciting donor support to appoint Junior Professional Officers to augment FAO representation professional staffing.
 - Recruitment of national volunteers. Similarly, efforts should continue to seek the appointment of five technical counterpart officers in SFE on a secondment basis by the GoE.
 - Provide additional training opportunities to the A-FAOR by institutionalizing his participation in periodic meetings of A-FAORs and/or by allowing his participation in the periodic meetings of the FAORs in the region.
 - Identify specific senior professional staff within both the FAO regular programme and DRRU to systematically cover designated external policy and technical forums.
5. ***Increase the depth and moderate the breadth of FAO field activities.*** This recommendation centres on prioritization, to ensure greater relevance and impact. FAO should devote less effort to fund management of relatively small projects implemented by NGO and GoE partners. FAO should give greater attention to promoting innovative approaches in the areas of food security and rural development that can be scaled up through national programmes and widely

disseminated as good practice guidance. Greater emphasis on capacity building, networking and technical backstopping to the emergency response and development interface would be much more conducive to FAO's comparative advantage.

- Seek funds for providing technical support and coordination to food security and economic development forums, such as the REDFS, DRMFSS Ag WG, HAB working group, etc.
 - Reduce efforts to raise funds for micro-projects; concentrate more on the design of field based activities for testing and documenting innovative approaches in a reduced number of locations.
 - With regard to seeds and crop diversification, change from a “distribution” mode to strategies that place greater emphasis on testing and demonstration, building extension and farmer capacities to recognize advantages and disadvantages of particular options and ensuring that there is widespread access to information on the various alternatives.
6. **Strengthen the evidence base.** Lack of reliable data remains a challenge in Ethiopia. FAO should review information system work completed to date and develop a clear plan for strategic support for capacity development in the area of food security and development statistics for the purpose of knowledge generation, sectoral M&E and policy support.
- **Strengthen FAO accountability.** FAO Ethiopia should investigate options for making FAO Ethiopia in general, and the DRRU in particular, more accountable in terms of synthesising results, substantiating impacts, assembling lessons learned, rather than merely enumerating delivered seeds and feeds. This will be to ensure greater long-term relevance of short-term funded emergency projects. Ideally each development project and programme should have an M & E system allowing for the systematic characterisation of available information on evolving good practices and summarizing lessons learnt.
 - **Enhance the food security information system.** Support for food security information system development should continue; this will be highly relevant to the M & E framework for the new GTP, as well as NFSP. A particular contribution can be made in the re-analysis of chronically food insecure areas (the current criteria is a static analysis based on food aid history). To be more effective FAO should support ISFS data gathering in all of the key domains (not just production) and take full advantage of the recently updated livelihood atlas for Ethiopia.
 - **Include MDG hunger indicators.** FAO, together with UN partners, should advocate for the inclusion of the MDG hunger indicators (not just the poverty indicators) in the new macro-economic M&E framework (GTP).
7. **Raise the profile of SLM, forestry, pasturelands and fisheries management.** Due probably to the weight of emergency funding in FAO's project portfolio, attention to sectors other than crops is dramatically dwarfed, in spite of their importance in sustainable development and food

security. Sustainable land and water management need to be streamlined in land-based development projects. Innovative methods to promote community-based natural resource management, including agro-forestry, soil and water conservation and land management with *kebele*, *woreda* and region involvement, should be promoted.

8. **Place greater emphasis on capacity building.** FAO needs to broaden its horizons in capacity building in Ethiopia, in line with FAO's core functions. Of particular relevance is capacity development in the areas of quality data assembly and synthesis, policy analysis and policy development. There is also a need for wider engagement with national (and regional) research institutes to both strengthen the evidence base of interventions, to engage a wider constituency, and to make a greater contribution to the rapidly expanding range of academic institutions in Ethiopia.

- Provide training (and with improved training materials) related to extension and agricultural technology, drawing on FAO's experience and normative products which target higher levels (such as ATVETs), so that the impact is broader and more sustainable.

In terms of seed production, recognize that many farmer seed producer groups have difficulty to emerge as independent commercial entities, but could have good prospects for becoming contract growers for regional or national seed enterprises, a few well-resourced cooperatives, or the private sector under the umbrella of bodies with the requisite skills, equipment and organization to market seed.

- Begin to work with appropriate seed enterprises to build their capacity to recognize and nurture good contract seed producer groups.