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Lessons from the Country Studies

A key component of this study is to examine how the array of U.S. agricultural development programs and projects are aligned with the agricultural programs, priorities, and public investments of recipient countries. This chapter reviews the results of qualitative case studies carried out in four purposefully selected countries across sub-Saharan Africa: Ghana, Mali, Mozambique, and Uganda.¹ The country case studies provide a snapshot of agricultural development policies and assistance from 2000 to 2004 and a synthesis of views by knowledgeable stakeholders about the effectiveness of assistance under some of the best prevailing conditions for agriculture and rural sector development on the continent. The case studies are not a comprehensive analysis of agricultural policies and development assistance to each country nor do they attempt to analyze the impact of this assistance.

The case studies are based on a desk review of relevant policy and program documents from the countries, U.S. agencies and their collaborators, and multilateral agencies and stakeholder interviews carried out by the report co-authors and national consultants² during visits to each country in January 2005. Through the case studies, we sought to understand how U.S. development assistance programs and funding levels relate to the country's agricultural programs, priorities, and public investments; how U.S. assistance is coordinated with assistance from other donors; and the views of stakeholders on how U.S. development assistance, and public investment in agriculture in general, could be improved.

¹ The full country reports for Ghana, Mali, Mozambique, and Uganda are contained in Appendices 4-A through 4-D. Each report summarizes current conditions related to agriculture and food security in each country, the country's governance structure as it affects decisions about agriculture, and the role of agriculture in the country's development strategy. It then provides an overview of public investment in agriculture by the government and external donors as a context for the U.S. program, followed by information on the current purposes, levels, and trends of U.S. funding.

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The country studies reveal that agriculture and rural development play a central role in the PRSPs and related agricultural development strategies of all four countries. Yet despite the priority given to rural-led economic growth in policies and strategic plans, domestic public resources are scarce and agriculture competes unfavorably with other sectors for PRSP funding, notably education and health.

Since the countries are heavily reliant on external donors to implement the PRSPs, coordination of country and donor strategies and programs is essential to meet agriculture and rural sector development goals. However, under 10% of total OECD bilateral assistance to the countries was directed to core agriculture and rural sector development programs.

USAID country and sector plan priorities are highly consistent with PRSPs and country sectoral strategies, underscoring the priority on rural-led economic growth, but this is not reflected in U.S. assistance allocations. Agriculture activities received only 15% of USAID/Ghana's budget and approximately 33–45% of the budgets in Mozambique, Uganda, and Mali in FY2004.

Between 2000 and 2004, U.S. bilateral assistance to agriculture declined in Ghana, Mali, and Mozambique and rose only slightly in Uganda, despite the fact that all four countries are designated priority countries for the presidential IEHA. By contrast, USAID spending on health and basic education has ballooned, consuming 45–74% of USAID's 2004 annual budget in the case countries.

Country Policies and Programs Related to Agriculture and Rural Development

Ghana, Mali, Mozambique, and Uganda embody near “laboratory conditions” for reducing poverty and hunger in the coming decade through agriculture and rural sector-led economic growth. Like most of sub-Saharan Africa, they are predominantly rural and poor. But these countries stand out because they are among the continent's top economic performers, they have made important progress on political decentralization, and because their presidents have made significant personal and institutional commitments to

agriculture and rural sector-led economic growth. All are focal countries for the U.S. IEHA and receive amounts of U.S. agriculture sector assistance that are well above the average for sub-Saharan Africa. Three of the four have qualified for funding consideration through the Millennium Challenge Corporation.

Agriculture in Poverty Reduction and Sector Strategies

Agriculture and rural development play a central role in the PRSPs and related agricultural development strategies of all four countries. The PRSPs embrace similar visions of “changing archaic, near-subsistence agricultural economies into progressive, dynamic, entrepreneurial and profitable businesses ... [which] will act as a stepping stone to widespread industrialization.” (GPRS 2003, 36). They recognize that “the dynamics of human development and broad-based growth are interdependent” (Mozambique 2001, 30), and place a high priority on a market-oriented approach and the promotion of thriving agribusinesses alongside a multidimensional approach to ensure food and nutrition security and improved access to health services. Table 4-1 summarizes the main objectives and target investment areas for the individual country PRSPs.

In addition to the general PRSPs, each country also has developed specific sectoral plans for agriculture and rural development, summarized in Table 4-2. Each plan demonstrates that the understanding of how to facilitate rural-led economic growth and poverty reduction has evolved from the traditional that focused on improving productivity on the farm. The sector plans call for a broad array of investments needed to improve infrastructure; increase productivity on and off the farm; reform land tenure; assist farmers and agribusinesses to access inputs and financial services, improve agro-processing, and find markets for raw and processed goods; and improve crisis prevention and response, education, health, and environmental measures. The strategies place a high priority on improving governance and on creating a policy climate that will stimulate the private sector to increase income-generating opportunities.

The case study countries rely heavily on external donors for the investments to implement the PRSPs and agriculture/rural development strategies. In Mali, for example, external financing is required to fund 37% of PRSP activities, while in Ghana it is

required to fund 90% of activities. Given this dependence on external funding, coordination of country and donor strategies and programs is essential to meet agriculture and rural sector development goals.

Coordination of U.S. Assistance with Country Strategies and Agricultural Development Programs

In all of the case study countries, U.S. assistance for agriculture and rural sector development is provided through several U.S. agencies (including USAID, USDA, USTDA, and the U.S. African Development Foundation), and through U.S. contributions to multilateral agencies, including the World Bank, FAO, IFAD, and ADB. USAID programs are by far the largest single component of U.S. assistance at the country level, representing 80% of assistance in Ghana, 75% in Mozambique, and more than 90% of assistance in Mali and Uganda.

USAID's Country Strategy Plans in all four countries were developed in a participatory process with key country government stakeholders and NGO development partners and are highly consistent with PRSPs, as the comparison of PRSPs and USAID Country Strategy Plans in Table 4-1 shows.

Likewise, USAID strategic objectives focusing on rural development also are developed in collaboration with country stakeholders and address a subset of the country's sectoral objectives, as Table 4-2 demonstrates. In each of the case study countries, USAID economic growth programs primarily focus on private-sector development, enhancing trade, and developing facilitative policies and institutions. U.S. NGO efforts funded through the Food for Peace program, which are coordinated with the USAID Mission strategy, have a broader mandate to increase food security for vulnerable populations.

Funding Trends for Agriculture

The PRSPs in each of the case study countries place a high priority on investments to reduce poverty by accelerating rural and agricultural-led economic growth. However, public resources are scarce and in general agriculture competes unfavorably with other sectors, notably education and health, for PRSP funding.

USAID Country Strategy Plans also underscore the priority on rural-led economic growth, but this is not reflected in U.S. assistance allocations. Agriculture activities received only 15% of USAID/Ghana's budget and approximately 33% to 45% of Mozambique, Uganda, and Mali's budget in FY2004. Total U.S. bilateral assistance to agriculture declined between FY2000 and FY2004 in three of the four countries—Ghana, Mali, and Mozambique—and rose only slightly in Uganda, despite the fact that all four countries are designated priority countries for IEHA.

Ghana

The broad goal of USAID/Ghana's Country Strategy Plan is "equitable economic growth and accelerated poverty reduction within a system of sound democratic governance" (USAID/Ghana 2003, 2) but only an estimated 10–15% of the annual USAID/Ghana budget (approximately \$54 million) is used for fostering agriculture's role in economic growth and poverty reduction. Total U.S. bilateral assistance for agriculture declined by two-thirds between FY2000 and FY2004, from \$24 to \$8 million. In contrast, USAID spending on health and basic education ballooned, consuming 74% of USAID's annual budget in 2004 (Figure 4-1).

It is impossible to determine precisely the total amount of annual public investment going to agriculture in Ghana or any of the case study countries, whether from domestic or external sources, due to the lack of any standardized definition or reporting system for such investment and the fact that many projects are funded on a multi-year basis. A reasonable approximation of the annual public investment in traditional agricultural development activities in Ghana is \$100–\$125 million, virtually all of which is from external sources. This includes annual bilateral assistance from OECD countries

for core agriculture, forestry, and rural development purposes of \$27.5 million annually (6% of total annual bilateral assistance of \$466 million) and multilateral commitments.

As noted above, Ghana and the other countries are heavily dependent on external funding for PRSP activities. Ghana's 2003 Annual Progress Report on the GPRS indicates that the actual share of GPRS investment going to traditional agriculture activities declined from 7.1% of total discretionary expenditures in 2001 to 4% in 2003, while infrastructure investments increased from 11.6% to 15.5% (NDPC 2004).

Mali

Mali's Country Strategy Plan emphasizes that "in Mali, achieving a higher growth in agriculture will be absolutely essential for increasing incomes and employment and for reducing poverty" (USAID/Mali 2002, 58). But half of FY2004's Country Strategy Plan funding was allocated to health and education programs, compared to 37% for agriculture-related programs (Figure 4-2). In addition, total U.S. bilateral funding for agriculture and rural development has declined slightly since 2000 from \$16 to \$14 million in 2004.

Mali's total annual public investment in traditional agricultural development activities between 2000–2003 is estimated at \$225–\$275 million. This includes annual bilateral assistance from OECD countries of \$26.3 million annually for core agriculture, forestry, and rural development activities (10% of total annual bilateral assistance of \$266 million) and multilateral commitments.

Within Mali's overall government budget, agriculture had the second largest budget allocation of any single sector over the 2002–2005 period at 11.9%. However, while total PRSP expenditures were projected to rise by one-third over the period, agriculture expenditures were expected to decline by 13% (from \$205 to \$178 million), with domestic agriculture funding decreasing from \$89 to \$62 million. Over the same period, health and education expenditures were anticipated to rise by 26% and 28%, respectively (Mali 2002).

Mozambique

USAID/Mozambique singles out the strategic objective related to agriculture as the mission's priority strategic objective, noting that "it would be impossible to address the problems of poverty and malnutrition without addressing agricultural development and growth given that more than 80% of the population is engaged in agriculture. The fact that this huge proportion of the population accounts for approximately one-quarter of GDP demonstrates that poverty is predominantly, though not exclusively, rural in nature" (USAID/Mozambique 2003, 8). Nevertheless, the proportion of USAID funding for rural economic growth activities draws just even with funding for HIV/AIDS and Maternal and Child Health programs, each with 45% of funding in FY2004 (Figure 4-3). Total U.S. bilateral funding for Mozambican agriculture has declined by one-quarter since 2000, from \$49 million to \$37 million (Table 4-3).

Mozambique's annual public investment in agricultural development is estimated at \$150–\$200 million, including the Ministry of Agriculture's anticipated spending on ProAgri II, annual bilateral assistance from OECD countries of \$47 million for core programs related to agriculture, forestry, and rural development (5% of total annual bilateral assistance of \$1 billion), and multilateral commitments.

Mozambique spent an estimated \$11.3 million per year over 1999–2002 to implement ProAgri I. Importantly, Mozambique's government also invests in roads, which are essential to agricultural development. In 2003 alone, the government spent \$103 million, or 7.3% of total government spending, on roads (Mozambique 2004), and external donors have committed \$1.7 billion over ten years beginning in 2002, much of which will directly benefit agricultural development (Mabombo 2005)

Uganda

USAID/Uganda emphasizes that "the rural economy supports 85% of Ugandans and must be the development target if broad-based economic growth is to be achieved" (USAID/Uganda 2000). However, in FY2004, two-thirds of USAID strategic objective funding was allocated to Improved Human Capacity, which encompasses health, education, and HIV/AIDS activities, and 31% was provided for agriculture-related

economic development (Figure 4-4). Total U.S. bilateral assistance provided to Ugandan agriculture rose only slightly between FY2000 and FY2004, from \$25 million to \$26 million.

A benchmark estimate of Uganda's annual public investment in traditional agricultural development activities is \$100–\$150 million. This includes annual bilateral assistance from OECD countries of \$34.7 million annually for core agriculture, forestry, and rural development activities (7.5% of total annual assistance of \$462 million annually from 2000 through 2003), and multilateral commitments.

Total approved spending under Uganda's Medium Term Expenditure Framework (2001/02 to 2004/05) for agriculture and rural development was about \$119 million in 2000–2001, or about 9.9% of total government investment to eradicate poverty (MFPED 2000). Of this amount, about \$53 million (5%) went to the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries (MAAIF), with the rest going to rural roads and water programs, local government capacity building, land and environment, trade and industry, and other grants (MFPED 2000). In 2003–2004, the total approved spending was up to \$141 million, while spending for agriculture through MAAIF remained at \$53 million, a nearly 15% decrease. In 2003, the government's report on the Second Review of the Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture cited the tight funding of the agriculture sector as a “present and future concern” for the successful implementation of the Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (Uganda 2003, 73). Funding likely will continue to be constrained by the MFPED's effort to close the government's substantial budget deficit and by competing budget priorities. Education, for example, currently receives about 25% of total spending.

Other Key Issues Raised by Stakeholders

Stronger Engagement Needed by Ministries of Finance

Country PRSPs and agricultural development strategies strongly commit countries to rural and agriculture sector development, but this commitment has not resulted in

increased resources at the country level. Stakeholders felt that ministers of finance need to be engaged and play a much stronger leadership role to ensure that resource commitments to the sector are fulfilled and to ensure program coherence among the several ministries active in the rural sector. Agriculture and rural development traditionally has been viewed as the province of ministries of agriculture, but there is now widespread recognition that effective rural development will require coordinated planning and oversight by a number of ministries, including roads and transport, health, and education.

Country-level Reporting System

There is no consistent reporting system for agriculture and rural development sector expenditures by African governments. This will make it extremely difficult to track commitments to fulfill the 2003 Maputo Commitment by African heads of state to increase spending on agriculture and rural development to 10% of national budgets. Donor contributions currently fund a large part of agricultural sector spending. Because significant donor assistance is channeled directly through NGOs, overall expenditure levels are unknown and it is difficult to coordinate public- and private-sector investments in the sector.

Impact of U.S. Earmarks

The examples in the previous section illustrate the serious constraints that USAID country missions face in programming resources according to mission- and host country-defined priorities. In the case study countries, mission and host country development strategies and priorities regarding rural-led economic development are congruent. But programming actual resources and commitments made to host country partners are constrained by pre-defined congressional earmarks and by year-to-year uncertainty and fluctuations in funding levels. The earmarks affect not only allocations between sectors, as previously discussed, but according to stakeholders dramatically reduce the flexibility of resource allocation within the agriculture sector. Missions must carry out an intricate

calculus with each funding cycle to respond as best they can to the country's priorities with program funding that is restricted to programs such as dairy, trade capacity building, or biotechnology, restrictions that may bear little relation to the priorities agreed to by the country and mission.

Lack of Coherence Among U.S. Programs

The lack of coherence and coordination among policies and programs implemented by U.S. agencies within a single country or region is confusing to host countries and undermines the effectiveness of development assistance.

- Mali's government estimates that the financial impact of U.S. domestic cotton subsidies on Mali farmers dwarfs the impact of development assistance from USAID and other agencies.
- Stakeholders strongly acknowledge the importance of food aid for humanitarian assistance but raised questions about the lost opportunity of procuring food aid locally or regionally to help strengthen continental markets. They also raised questions about the cost implications of requiring food aid to be shipped in U.S. ship bottoms and of limiting other procurement to U.S. sources. They felt that the effects of imported, monetized food aid on local and regional market development, and on the formation of consumption preferences, required fuller assessment.
- The objectives of the U.S. Trade Representative (USTR), USAID, and USDA trade policies and programs are not well harmonized, constraining program impact. USTR exerts influence to steer regional USAID and USDA trade program funding to programs that increase African exports to the U.S. USAID country programs largely focus on strengthening national and regional markets based on analysis showing the important poverty and development impacts from this approach.
- USDA and USAID manage separate, and often not coordinated, biotechnology outreach and training programs in the same countries.
- A number of complementary USAID programs today are managed separately, but there are potentially great effectiveness gains if their objectives and implementation were better harmonized or even merged. These include two major USAID

initiatives—Trade and IEHA—and the USAID Food for Peace programs that are managed directly from Washington and informally coordinated with mission agriculture and rural sector programs.

Investing in Government and Public Goods

U.S. agricultural assistance programs in the case study countries are in general regarded very positively by country stakeholders. But observers voiced concern at the increasing trend of U.S. programs to work with private-sector and NGO collaborators in isolation from governments and the implications for scaling up successful local projects. They noted that governments were not receiving the technical assistance needed to strengthen regulatory, judicial, and other institutions vital to creating an enabling environment for private investment. Greatly expanded investments in public infrastructure, such as transportation, communication and power, are also vital to provide a foundation for private investment as well as the expansion of social services.

Deterioration of Public Research Systems and Technology Transfer

The inability of research systems to supply and extend new technology will affect the competitiveness of commodity export on the international market. For example, Ghanaian pineapple producers currently enjoy a good market for their green pineapples in Europe but are already facing stiff competition from new Latin American varieties of golden pineapple that are gaining favor among consumers. In 2004, researchers at one of Mozambique's premier national research stations did not bother to develop a research plan for the coming year because there was no money available for research activities.

Donor agencies and governments in Mozambique and Uganda are increasingly outsourcing agricultural extension work to private companies and NGOs as a promising alternative to the state-run extension services. Stakeholders noted that this is beginning to pay off in terms of improved management and the responsiveness of extensions to local needs. But they questioned where extension agents in either the public or private sector

would obtain technical recommendations if there is no public research system to test varieties and recommendations locally.

Accountability and Decentralization

Donor and private-sector confidence in centralized agriculture agencies has declined after disappointing experiences with sector-specific budget support programs. But there are examples where major U.S. and donor collaborations with public agencies has worked well with important implications for U.S. programs, including the Millennium Challenge Account, which will rely heavily on the establishment of successful monitoring systems in the field. For example, stakeholders attribute positive results achieved from U.S. support for road and other infrastructure programs to the Ministry of Transportation in Mozambique to strong accountability and oversight measures put into place by the recipient agency, to good coordination among donors, and to a strong capacity-building program for local managers.

Decentralization of public functions in some countries already has led to improvements in political and financial accountability for public agriculture and rural-sector program implementation, such as at the provincial and district levels in Ghana and Uganda. Other donors are beginning to provide budget or program support directly to decentralized offices with encouraging results.

Capacity Building for Local Organizations and Strengthening Technical Institutions and Universities

Stakeholders viewed past U.S. assistance as critical to building human and overall societal capacity and strengthening technical schools, community colleges, and universities vital for training future private- and public-sector leaders. They perceived a shift in current U.S. agriculture and rural-sector assistance programs toward shorter term, concrete objectives with a finite set of actors and away from building local capacity and institutions.

Local NGO representatives voiced frustration that U.S. assistance programs focused so heavily on funding U.S. NGOs to carry out programs rather than building capacity among local organizations.

Strengthening Industry Associations and Local Public–Private Partnerships

Stakeholders felt that U.S. programs were making significant progress in developing opportunities for private-sector agribusiness in their countries. Continuing mutual distrust and communication difficulties between the public and private sectors is perceived as a significant constraint to agricultural and rural sector development. Given the United State's experience and capacities, stakeholders wondered how U.S. programs could play a stronger role in facilitating communication and public–private collaboration in priority agriculture/rural sector areas.

Industry associations and civil society groups are beginning to emerge. These include rural farmer associations and higher-level fora in Ghana and Mozambique and sector-specific groups for industries such as cashews and pineapples. In Mozambique, industry associations and farmer fora are grouped within the Confederation of Technical Associations. These organizations can carry out important independent research and policy analysis, communicate the needs of their constituents to public agencies and leaders, and focus attention on priority investments.

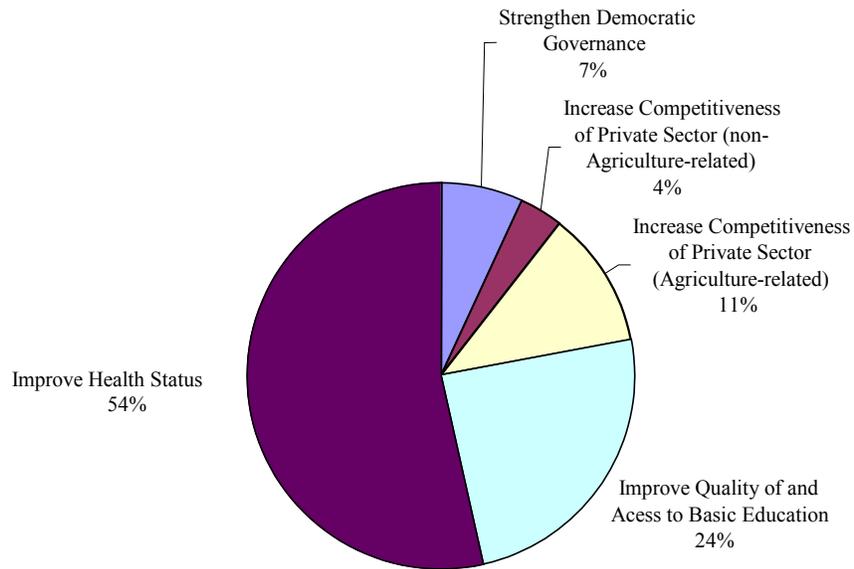


Figure 4-1. USAID Ghana Strategic Objective Funding Distribution, FY2004

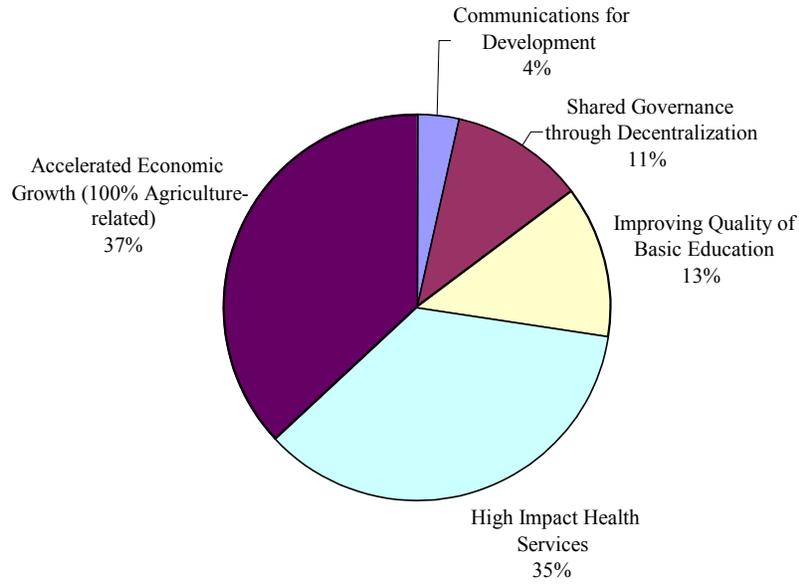


Figure 4-2. USAID Mali Strategic Objective Funding Distribution, FY2004

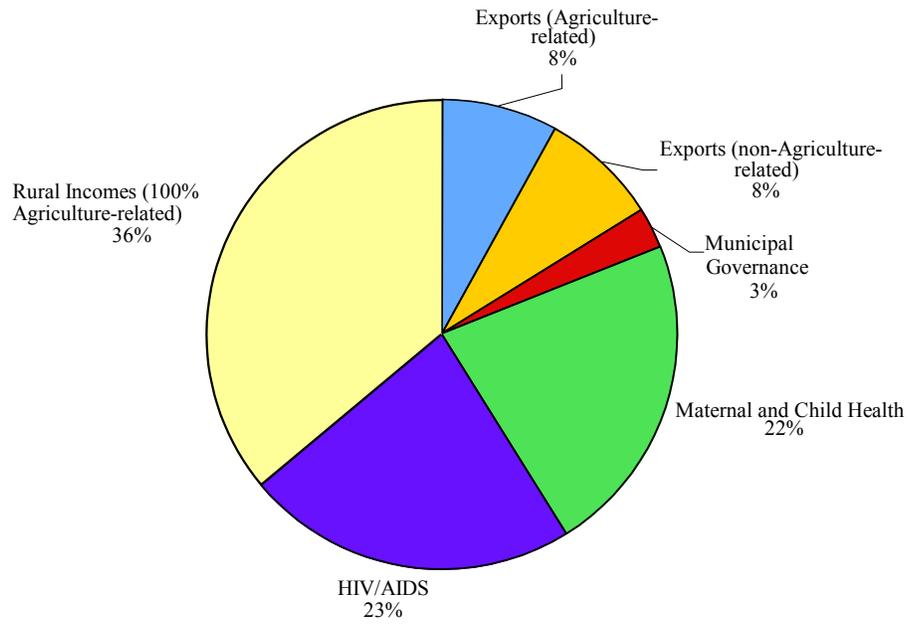


Figure 4-3. USAID Mozambique Strategic Objective Funding Distribution, FY2004

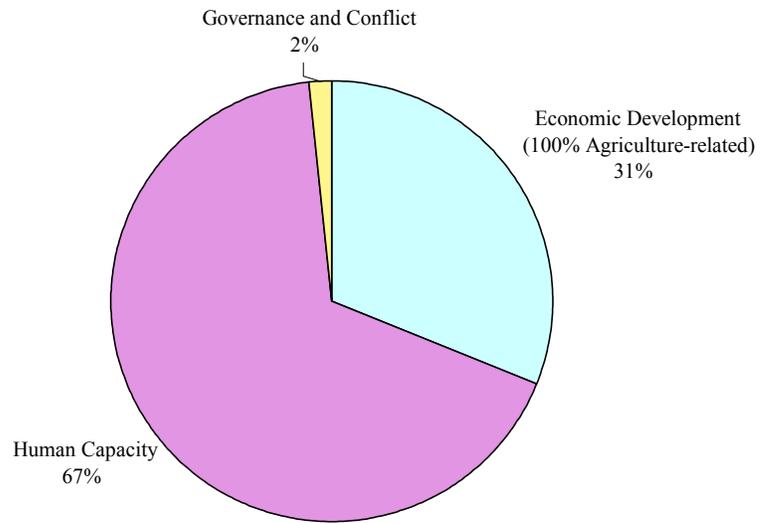


Figure 4-4. USAID Uganda Strategic Objective Funding Distribution, FY2004

Table 4-1. Comparison of Country and U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) Strategic Investment Priorities

Ghana's Poverty Reduction Strategic Plan (PRSP) 2003–2005	USAID/Ghana's Country Strategic Plan (CSP) 2004–2010
<p>Achieve growth, accelerated poverty reduction and the protection of the vulnerable and excluded by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensuring sound economic management for accelerated growth; • Increasing production and promoting sustainable livelihoods and gainful employment; • Direct support for human development and the provision of basic services; • Providing special programs in support of the vulnerable and excluded; • Ensuring good governance and increased capacity of the public sector; and • Active involvement of the private sector as the main engine of growth and partner in nation building (Ghana 2003, 30). 	<p>Achieve equitable economic growth and accelerated poverty reduction within a system of sound democratic governance through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthened democratic and decentralized governance through civic involvement; • Increased competitiveness of Ghanaian private sector in world markets; • Improved health status; and • Improved quality and access to education (USAID/Ghana 2003).
Mali's PRSP	USAID/Mali's CSP Strategic Objectives 2003–2012
<p>Promote strong and sustainable growth that is poverty-reducing through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutional development and improved governance and participation; • Human development and strengthening access to basic social services; and • Development of infrastructure and support for key productive sectors (Mali 2002, 85). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High impact health services; • Improved quality of basic education; • Shared governance through decentralization; • Accelerated economic growth; and • Communications for development (special objective) (USAID/Mali 2002).
Mozambique's PRSP	USAID/Mozambique's CSP Strategic Objectives 2004–2010
<p>Goal: Promote human development and create a favorable environment for rapid, inclusive and broad-based growth.</p> <p>Six priority areas for action:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education; • Health; • Agriculture and rural development; • Basic infrastructure; • Good governance; and • Macroeconomic and financial management (Mozambique 2001, 3). 	<p>Foster sustained, poverty-reducing economic growth that reaches average Mozambicans through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agricultural development and increased international trade; • Stemming the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS; • Improving maternal and child health; and • Establishing models of good governance among municipalities while attacking corruption where it most affects average citizens (USAID/Mozambique n.d.).
Uganda's Poverty Eradication Action Plan pillars	USAID/Uganda's Integrated Strategic Plan Strategic Objectives 2002–2007
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic management; • Enhancing production, competitiveness, and incomes; • Security, conflict resolution and disaster management; • Good governance; and • Human Development (MFPED 2004). 	<p>Assist Uganda to reduce mass poverty through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanded sustainable economic opportunities for rural sector growth • Improved human capacity; and • More effective and participatory governance (USAID/Uganda 2001).

Table 4-2. Comparison of Country and U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) Agricultural Development Priorities

Ghana's Food and Agriculture Sector Development Policy	USAID/Ghana's Private Sector Competitiveness Strategic Objective (SO)
<p>Contribute to poverty reduction in Ghana by promoting sustainable agriculture and thriving agribusiness through a holistic, market-oriented approach that includes facilitation of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Production of agricultural raw materials for industry; • Production of agricultural commodities for export; • Effective and efficient input supply and distribution systems; and • Effective and efficient output processing and marketing systems (MOFA 2002). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve the enabling environment for the private sector; • Increase the capacity of the private sector to respond to export opportunities; <p>Food aid program will work with the agriculture and agribusiness to :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connect smallholder producers to domestic and export markets; and • Improve agricultural productivity through projects including agro-forestry extension, post-harvest loss reduction, microenterprise, credit for agricultural inputs (USAID/Ghana 2003).
Mali's Rural Development Strategy	USAID/Mali's Economic Growth SO
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food security; • Restoration and maintenance of soil fertility; • Development of hydro-agricultural facilities; • Development of agricultural, animal, forestry, and fisheries production; and • Development of support functions (research, training, communication, finance) (Mali 2002). 	<p>Increase productivity and incomes in selected agricultural sub-sectors through:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing sustainable production of selected agricultural products in targeted areas; • Increasing trade of selected agricultural products; and • Increasing access to finance food security (USAID/Mali 2002).
Mozambique's ProAgri I and II	USAID/Mozambique's Economic Growth SO
<p><u>ProAgri I</u> Improve the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development's capabilities as an institution.</p> <p><u>ProAgri II</u> Support smallholders, private sector, government agencies and non-governmental organizations to increase agricultural productivity, agro-industry, and marketing within the principles of sustainable exploitation of natural resources. Pillar areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Input and output markets; • Rural finance; • Rural infrastructure; and • Enabling policy and regulatory environment (MADER 2004, 60). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase smallholder sales of agricultural production; • Expand rural enterprises, including rural trading networks, rural agro-industries, and rural finance; and • Increase marketing through improving transport infrastructure, focusing on rural roads to increase physical access to markets (USAID 2003).
Uganda's Plan for the Modernization of Agriculture	USAID/Uganda's Rural Sector Growth SO
<p>Eradicate poverty by transforming subsistence agriculture to commercial agriculture. Pillar areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research and technology; • Agricultural advisory services; • Agricultural education; • Rural finance; • Agro-processing and marketing; • Sustainable natural resource utilization and management; and • Physical infrastructure (Uganda 2000). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase food security for vulnerable populations; • Increased productivity of agriculture and natural resource systems in selected regions; • Increased competitiveness of enterprises in selected sectors (e.g., financial sector); and • Improved enabling environment for broad-based economic growth (e.g., supporting institutional and structural reforms) (USAID/Uganda 2000).

Table 4-3. Summary of Bilateral U.S. Assistance for Agriculture, Major Elements, FY2000–FY2004

<i>Country</i>	<i>Funding (\$, thousands)</i>				
	<i>FY2000 Actual</i>	<i>FY2001 Actual</i>	<i>FY2002 Actual</i>	<i>FY2003 Actual</i>	<i>FY2004 Actual</i>
Ghana	23,790	19,240	8,777	11,511	8,414
Mali	15,782	8,291	8,957	13,349	14,300
Mozambique	49,485	46,227	30,866	44,322	37,379
Uganda	25,471	14,362	22,812	28,351	26,251

Note: Includes U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID)/Development Assistance agriculture-related strategic objectives, USAID/Food Aid PL480 Title II, and U.S. Department of Agriculture/Food Aid Food for Progress. All food aid estimates include freight costs.

Source: Extracted from Table 7 in Appendix 4-A through 4-D.