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Thematic Evaluation of Sustainability of Agriculture-focused Projects in the Czech Official Development Assistance

Master's thesis

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled "Thematic Evaluation of Sustainability of Agriculture-focused Projects in the Czech Official Development Assistance" is my own work and all sources have been quoted and acknowledged by means of complete references.

In Prague, 15th April 2016

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Lenka Černínová

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ABSTRACT

Agriculture continues to be the most important economic sector for 70% of rural population living in the Global South. Farmers continue to face low productivity of their production, unstable agricultural policy, population growth and climate changes. Therefore, there is a need to improve their economic self-sufficiency, among others, by effective international development cooperation.

This thesis is focused on Czech bilateral official development Aid to agriculture and its sustainability since 2008, the year when the CzDA was established. Firstly, the study quantitatively and qualitatively analyses 60 bilateral agricultural projects to find out which are the main implementing organisations, target countries, financial tools and techniques integrated in the Czech ODA to agriculture. Secondly, on the basis of rather low project sustainability, the study employs nine IFAD preconditions of sustainability to evaluate the level of its incorporation into 15 Czech agricultural bilateral projects.

The Czech Republic considers agriculture as a sector priority in all program countries. Implementing organisations focus mainly on non-formal agricultural education, supply of machinery and equipment and capacity building of public servants. The Czech ODA to agriculture is dominated by one NGDO. After NGDO sector, the second most involved is academic sector followed by private sector and state institutions. Agricultural projects operate with rather small budget and are financed by three different types of financial tools. We found out that the sustainability of Czech development assistance to agriculture is compromised by low reliability of project partners, rather insufficient length of project implementation period, imprecise monitoring and missing exit strategy among others.

KEYWORDS: agriculture, sustainability, donor, implementing organisations, evaluation, aid effectiveness

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LIST OF THE ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE THESIS

AFD	Agence Française de Développement (French Development Agency)
AS	Academic sector
CBOs	Community based organizations
CEE	Central and Eastern European countries
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CISTA	Central Institute for Supervising and Testing in Agriculture
CzDA	Czech Development Agency
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross domestic product
GIZ	"Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit"
GNP	Gross national product
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
MA	Ministry of Agriculture
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
NGDOs	Non-governmental development organizations
ODA	Official Development Aid
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCM	Project Cycle Management
PS	Private sector
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SI	State institution
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

1 INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Agriculture continues to be the most important economic sector for many countries from the Global South. About 70% of poor people live in rural areas and they are dependent on income from the agricultural sector (World Bank, 2015a). It is estimated that there are about 570 million farms[1] in the World and approximately 88% of them are family farms (Lowder et al., 2014). The UN highlighted the significance of family farming in sustainable development and eradication of hunger by launching the International Year of Family Farming (FAO, 2014). Success of small-holder farmers mainly depends on access to the productive resources (land, labour and capital), education, services, market and social capital (Farming First, 2014).

Several studies estimate that by the year 2050, the population number will surpass nine billion people[2] (DESA, 2008; Sourisseau at al., 2014). The future population might face massive unemployment, food insecurity, climate change, new diseases, conflicts and fuel poverty (Sourisseau at al., 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to bolster farmer's economic development in terms of their resistance and self-sufficiency.

One of the important tools of agricultural development in the South is the international technical assistance. Its volume is frequently criticized as insufficient among new and emerging donors, as well as among the traditional ones (AidWatch, 2010). However, regardless of total volumes, its effectiveness and sustainability are sometimes disputable as well (Greenhill, 2006). Therefore, this study attempts to provide insight into the topic of sustainability on an example of the Czech Official development cooperation in the sector of agriculture.

1.1 Czech Bilateral Official Development Aid

Czech development assistance dates back to the Czechoslovak times. Since the end of the Second World War the Czechoslovak government has provided development assistance to the *non-European socialistic countries* (Cuba, Mongolia, Vietnam, etc.),

[1] The highest percentage of farms are represented in lower- or upper-middle-income countries (83%), the low-income countries count about 13% of all farm and finally 4% of farms are located in high-income countries. (Lowder et al., 2014).

[2] The UN supposes the decline in fertility from 2.73 (2005–2010) to 2.05 (2045–2050) (DESA, 2008).

countries of priority interest (Angola, Ethiopia, Yemen, Nicaragua, etc.) and to the countries of the *Czechoslovak interests in terms of developing long-term political and economic interest* (Congo, Libya, Syria, etc.) (Majerová, 2012). The assistance followed rather power-political interest than the development one (ibid.). Nevertheless, the development aid was focused on material assistance, transfer of technology, scholarships and expert's consultation in agriculture, health service and hydrology (Hlavičková at al., 2008; Majerová, 2012). During the transition process (beginning of the 90s) the Czech Republic became a recipient country of the Official Assistance (Cabada and Waisová, 2011). The Czech Republic started to provide systematic development aid again in 1995 in a time of accession to the OECD (Majerová, 2012).

Since the new millennium, the Czech development assistance has taken several institutional modifications. Together with the entrance into the EU in 2004, the Czech Republic made a promise to increase its ODA[3] to 0.33% of GNP till the end of 2015 (Šrámková and Kopečný, 2015). However, this commitment has not been implemented in so far (ODA constitutes only 0.11 % of GNP in 2015) (ibid.). The Czech Republic has been net donor of ODA since 2005 (Hlavičková at al., 2008). Various internal regulations and international development commitments have aimed at establishing more effective implementation of the Czech development aid. The main document defining development cooperation principles is the *Act on development cooperation and humanitarian aid*[4] which came into force in 2010 (Government of the Czech Republic, 2010). The Czech Republic has also accepted international development commitments as the Millennium Development Goals - MDGs (2000), Monterrey Consensus on Financing for Development (2002), conclusions of the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg (2002), Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005), Accra Agenda for Action (2008) and Bussan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation (2012) (MFA, 2011; MFA, 2013). Even though the Czech Republic finally

[3] Official Development assistance (ODA) has been measured since 1961. It is "provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies; and each transaction of which is administrated as promotion of economic development and welfare of developing countries and is concessional in character". (OECD, 2014)

[4] This Act lays down conditions for the provision of development cooperation and humanitarian aid financed from the national budget, and the competence of government authorities and the Czech Development Agency in this area. (Government of the Czech Republic, 2010)

became a member of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) in 2013, there are still challenges for improvements (OECD, 2015c).

Partially as a result of the *Special Review of the Czech Republic* issued by the OECD in 2007, the Czech development assistance went through the transformation process from 2008 to 2010 (Sládková, 2011). *Special Review* included study of four sections: - 1) objectives, principles and public awareness of Czech development co-operation; 2) aid volume, channels and its allocation; 3) management of Czech development aid; 4) improvement of Czech ODA effectiveness (OECD, 2007). The OECD recommended more demand-driven projects (to avoid donor-driven and fragmented aid), shift from small and isolated projects to the bigger ones that fit the programmes and sectors[5] that are commonly coordinated by the Czech donor. Besides those, the OECD advocated the need to find out the comparative advantage of the Czech development assistance, build capacity of limited Embassies by delegated co-operation or partnership with other donor and regularly monitor and evaluate projects (OECD, 2007).

On the basis of the *Special Review of the Czech Republic* there is the only implementing body, the Czech Development Agency (CzDA), that is responsible for identification, formulation and monitoring of the Czech bilateral development projects (CzDA, 2015a). Some of the projects are also directly implemented by the CzDA. Afterwards, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) coordinates the whole system and is also responsible for projects' evaluations. Even though the CzDA has been operational since 2008, the Agency de facto took over full responsibility for agricultural development projects from the Ministry of Agriculture and Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports as recently as in 2010 (CzDA, 2015c).

Furthermore, the Czech Republic limited the number of project's countries and it stated five sector priorities; environment, agriculture, social development (including education, social and health services), economic development (including energy) and democracy, human rights and social transition (MFA, 2013). The Czech ODA has been working with current territorial and sector priorities since 2010. The *Development Cooperation Strategy of the Czech Republic 2010–2017* defines three groups of

[5] For each target country two priority sectors in maximum are agreed as by target country as by donor (OECD, 2007).

countries: programme (Afghanistan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ethiopia, Moldova and Mongolia), project (Georgia, Cambodia, Kosovo, Palestinian Autonomous Territories and Serbia) and former priority countries (Angola, Yemen, Vietnam and Zambia) (MFA, 2011). Those countries were chosen on the basis of relations existence with the Czech Republic, the need for development aid (e.g. Human development index), and the country's readiness to accept assistance and coordination with other donors (FoRS, 2011). The Czech ODA considers programme countries as the priority ones with programmes of cooperation since 2012 till the end of 2017 (MFA, 2013). In 2012 the highest amount of financial ODA went to Afghanistan (19.11%), Moldova (7.35%), Mongolia (6.11%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (4.77%) and Ethiopia (4.67%) (ibid.).

Financial resources to Czech bilateral ODA decreased from 1.995 billion CZK (2008) to 1.298 billion CZK (2013) (MFA, 2015a). Kral at al. (2013) presented that Western countries have larger and ambitious budgets in comparison to the Central and Eastern European countries (CEE). Because of that, the CEE countries are forced to focus on "soft" projects such as transfer of know-how, capacity building or technical assistance (ibid.). Those projects are usually implemented by state institutions (technical assistance) or by NGDOs (transfer of know-how and capacity building) (ibid).

Even though most of the bilateral donors use just grants to finance development assistance (OECD, 2010), the CzDA employs three types of financial tools. The *Development Cooperation Strategy of the Czech Republic 2010–2017* defines two of them - "public procurement" and "grants". The third one is "budgetary measures" (CzDA, 2015c). These three financial tools vary significantly. Projects that operate as public procurements are formulated by internal or external experts of CzDA (Krylová and Opršál, 2013). They precisely specify the activities in the projects' documents. Consequently, the private sector, NGDOs and academic sectors complete project activities in the open call. In case of grants, the implementing organisation itself formulates the project activities, results and outputs. Actually, a representative of CzDA (2015c) considers grants as more flexible ones. Finally, budgetary measure focuses on projects implemented only by state institutions (CzDA, 2015c). Generally, the target country expresses desire to implement project with one of the Czech state institutions directly (ibid.).

It is already evident that the Czech ODA involves four types of implementing organisations. According to Makoba (2002), the role of NGOs[6] in development has become more important on the level of international and national donor agencies due to an increasing demand for NGO assistance in countries of Global South. Moreover, Bebbington at al. (2008) shows that the Northern NGOs have been successful in donor's call, especially the bigger ones that have the capacity to follow bureaucracy demand of the donor. In the Czech ODA, the position of NGDOs has also been increasing where the NGDOs are considered as implementing organisations responsible for all project activities rather than subcontractors (Krylová and Opršal, 2013). Furthermore, the academic sector ensures research and sufficient number of skilled personal resources for the private, non-governmental and public sector (ibid.). The third category is the private sector. According to the Busan Declaration (2011), the private sector is a source of growth diffusing innovation, activating local resources, creating jobs and increasing living standards in developing countries. Kral at al. (2013) presents that a majority of CEE countries include private sector in formulation, implementation and evaluation of national ODA rarely or hardly at all, except the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Slovenia. Krylová and Opršal (2013) even discuss that the Czech ODA begins pursuing and supporting primarily economic interests of the Czech Republic rather than the needs of partner countries. Even though the Czech Republic supports involvement of private sector in the ODA to agriculture by several agreements (see for example: *Export strategy of the Czech Republic for 2012–2020*, *Programme of development-economic partnerships (B2B)* and *Public Private Partnership*), there is still low motivation and little awareness of development Aid in private sector that hinder the extension of their capacities in the Czech ODA (Krylová and Opršál (2013). The private sector plays a role of implementing organisation, technology supplier and donor (Krylová and Opršal, 2013).

The MFA together with CzDA publishes annual reports and overviews of the Czech development cooperation; see for example the *Czech Republic Development Cooperation in 2014* (MFA, 2015c). Nevertheless, the CzDA has not been publishing

[6] Makoba (2002) presents common features for NGOs. They are dependent on donor funding, transparency, accountability and results targeting those who are in need.

reports on ODA to agriculture yet. Therefore, this study aims to provide statistics on target countries, implementing organisation, type of financing, type of project and time period in the Czech ODA to agriculture.

1.2 Evaluation of Czech Bilateral ODA

Since the new millennium, the Czech Republic has become more focused on feedback in terms of effectiveness of provided assistance in line with other international traditional donors.

At the beginning, the Development Centre[7] was responsible for the first evaluations of Foreign Development Assistance from 2003 to 2008 (Hlavičková, 2013). The experts from the Development Centre were rather internally evaluating the projects, especially due to improvement of the Development Centre capacity in evaluation process. The responsibility for the evaluation process was taken over by the MFA in 2008. The MFA has been preparing the programme for independent external evaluations till the end of the year 2009. Between 2010 and 2011, the regional centre of UNDP in Bratislava provided consulting on evaluation to the MFA. Together, they made pilot evaluations. Since 2012, the evaluation process has been fully under the control of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. (Hlavičková, 2013)

The Czech development assistance has been integrated into the OECD/DAC process of evaluation since 2010. Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been publishing the final evaluation reports assessing the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability, impact and visibility on the basis of independent external evaluation in the field (MFA, 2014). The evaluators also use cross-cutting principles: democratic governance, respect for environment and climate, human rights compliance and gender equality (ibid.).

Beside the final evaluation reports, Petríková and Chadha (2014) published the *Report on comprehensive analysis of Czech development cooperation projects evaluation reports (2012–2013)* [Zpráva z komplexního vyhodnocení evaluačních zpráv projektů zahraniční rozvojové spolupráce České Republiky v letech 2012–2013]. They analysed 20 projects supervised by the CzDA (qualitative and quantitative analysis - interviews

[7] Development Centre was establish and co-funded as a international development project of CIDA (Canadian International Development Agency).

with evaluators, implementing organisations, Czech state representatives and online survey). For instance, Petríková and Chadha (2014) recommend prolonging time for evaluation due to its insufficiency, adapting the evaluation to the season, considering participatory approaches in evaluation and cooperating with other donors in the area during the PCM.

Svoboda (2015) has also published "*Summary report of the draft evaluation reports of the Czech development assistance in 2014*" [Souhrnná zpráva z hodnocení pracovních verzí evaluačních zpráv projektů zahraniční rozvojové spolupráce ČR v roce 2014]. He analysed sector evaluation reports from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Ethiopia, Georgia, Moldova and Palestinian Autonomous Territories. Apart from other, Svoboda (2015) stated that the Czech ODA lacks sectoral strategies (priorities, goals, etc.) which should not be created from particular projects as the strategy has to firstly define the needed projects, their synergies, ways of coordination and localization.

On the basis of evaluation reports and studies, Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been incorporating new practices, e.g. it has been posing basic evaluation questions regarding each criteria since 2015 (see for example: terms and conditions for project evaluation in agriculture in Georgia at MFA, 2015b).

1.3 Emergence of International and Czech ODA to Agriculture

Foreign development assistance to agriculture has emerged at the national and international level in mid-50s of the 20th century (Eicher and Staatz, 1998). From historical perspective one can observe several shifts of paradigms related to effectiveness. Since the 60s to the 80s of the 20th century, the ODA took a form of technology transfer (based on the Green Revolution) and share of food surpluses (Eicher and Staatz, 1998; Arnold at al., 2004). CIDA (2003) presents an example of ineffective aid in the 1970s, when the donors tended to finance projects based on transfer of inadequate techniques completed by trainings. In the 80s and the 90s the aid to agriculture was centred on Policy reforms and Integrated Rural Development Projects, which were also seen as ineffective later on (Eicher and Staatz, 1998; Arnold at al., 2004). Even though the total development aid increased by 250% between 1980 and 2005, the assistance to agriculture declined from 17% to 3% (share of total aid) (Nkamleu, 2011).

Since the new millennium, new concepts such as MDGs, sustainable rural development and empowerment of poor have emerged (Wampfler, 2015). Even then any significant increase in financial ODA to agriculture was not observed. However, all of this changed in 2006 when the food price crisis emerged and then dramatically affected countries in the Global South. On that basis, the international donors have become to change their agricultural development strategies. From 2006 to 2014, the ODA to agriculture almost doubled from 4.94 billion US Dollars to 9.22 billion US Dollars (see Figure 1) (OECD, 2015a). Those financial resources have been invested in farm development - integrated projects (26% of international ODA), agricultural policy and administrative management (18% of international ODA), agricultural water resources (17% of international ODA), and crop and livestock production (OECD, 2015a).

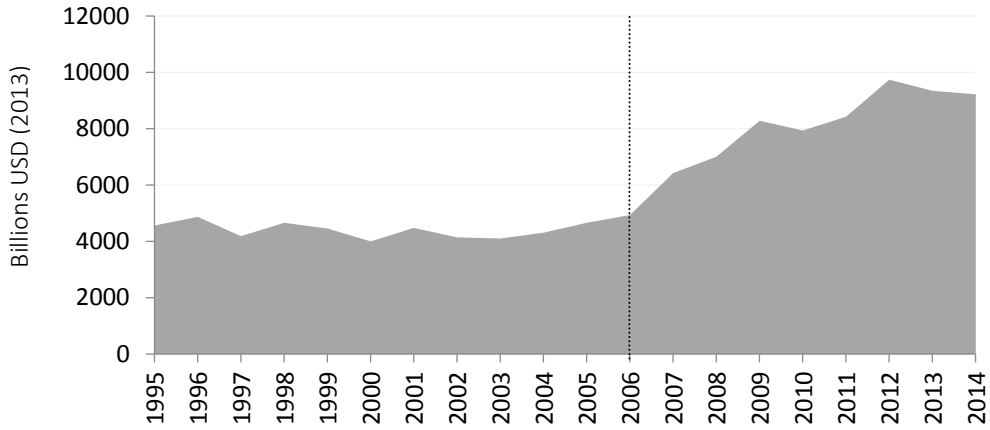

Figure 1. International ODA to agriculture (1995–2014)

S*ource:Work of auhors, data gathered from OECD, 2015a*

The Czech Republic also significantly strengthened the position of agriculture in terms of share of ODA to agriculture in total Czech bilateral ODA from 12% in 2010 to 23% in 2014 (CzDA, 2010; CzDA, 2014). Agriculture has become a sector priority in all programme countries. The CzDA has even developed detailed Agricultural sectoral strategy for Ethiopia for period 2015–2017.

However, the volume of technical assistance to agriculture is just one side of the story of potential success. For instance, ROPPA (2008) published the study *Agricultural and Rural Development Aid Effectiveness* in which they explain that from the West African farmer's organisation point of view, the volume of ODA is less important than its nature and conditions of granting. Therefore, they suggest supporting the economic and social

dynamics on the grassroots level, promoting decentralized management of soft funds in hands of local actors, capacity building through education and research, participatory evaluation and monitoring on the basis of the criteria established by beneficiaries and recording of all technical and financial support.

An increase in agriculture importance in development cooperation has been also positively influencing international donors in issuing of the agricultural reports. For instance, World Bank (2007) published the *World Development report* where it presents agriculture as the tool with special power for poverty reduction. The study shows that the GDP growth originating in agriculture is at least twice as effective in reducing poverty as GDP growth originating outside agriculture (World Bank, 2007). Other national agencies have also started publishing several analyses on effectiveness of national ODA to agriculture (see results of Canadian, French, German and Swiss development studies on agriculture in chapter 1.4).

During the period of agriculture emergence, several new initiatives have evolved in response to request new challenges. For instance, Farming First[8] (2014) recommends six main principles: "safeguard natural resources, share knowledge, build local access and capacity, protect harvests, enable access to markets and prioritise research imperatives" to ensure project sustainability. This concept includes systematic approach to see a farmer as a central point of development with specific needs (see Table 1).

Table 1. Six principles and effective practices according to the "Farming First coalition"

6 principles	**How to fulfil 6 principles?**
1. Safeguard natural resources	Land management, measures against soil erosion, water efficiency, conservation of biodiversity, ecosystem services and healthy and safety life of farmers
2. Share knowledge	Women in agriculture, Village development - knowledge centres, extension services, information systems, formal education, farmer's integration into policy reforms
3. Build local access and capacity	Microfinance, access to inputs (land, water, finances, inputs, services, information, etc.), training programs for infrastructure management
4. Protect harvests	Build local storage facilities and transportation mechanism
5. Enable access to markets	Co-operative approaches for small-holders, fair prices, limited speculation and market distortions
6. Prioritise research imperatives	Farmer-centred research (soil, water, crops, post-harvest losses)

Source: Work of authors, data gathered from Farming First, 2014

[8] Farming First is a global coalition of multi-stakeholder organisations for sustainable agricultural development.

Discourse on climate change has brought new challenges for agriculture. "Fertilizers, ruminant digestion, rice cultivation and fuel use" are sources of greenhouse gases that have to be reduced (Beddington at al., 2012). Besides others Howden at al. (2007) recommends increase crop resistance, improve pest, disease and weed management and manage natural resources to deal with climatic change. OECD (2012) shows that there was a positive trend to invest into environment in bilateral aid from 2001 to 2010. The OECD (2012) also presents that about 39% of bilateral commitments to agriculture from DAC members were significantly focused on environment in the period 2009–2010. The IFAD (2009) assumes that projects involving environment consideration in their economic activities are rather successful in reaching long-term benefits.

The year 2015 has also brought new development agenda for the next 15 years in form of 17 Sustainable Development Goals which are universal (for both developed and developing countries), holistic (people-centred and planet-sensitive) and measurable (tracking the progress) (UN, 2015). Nowadays, agriculture is considered a complex system and it is included in app. ten SDGs[9] (Farming First, 2015).

As one can see, the concept of agricultural development is moving to broader rural development strategies that focus on production as well as off-farm activities, social development and infrastructure (CIDA, 2003; World Bank, 2005). Those strategies have to be adapted in local environment. The study of the World Bank (2005) presents weaknesses in African, Asian and European regions. For instance, as Sub-Saharan Africa faces high number of poor people living in rural areas, the broad-based development through small-scale farmers should be promoted. Furthermore, Middle East and North Africa seeks to invest into management of natural resources especially due to water scarcity and changing environment. At least but not last, Eastern Europe requires support in European market access for farmers (e.g. sustainable agricultural practices). (World Bank, 2005)

[9] Goal 1: Poverty Alleviation; Goal 2: End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture; Goal 4: Education; Goal 5: Gender equality; Goal 6: water use; Goal 7: Energy use; Goal 8: Economic growth and employment; Goal 12: Sustainable consumption and production; Goal 13: Climate change, Goal 15: Ecosystem management. (Farming First, 2015)

1.4 Sustainability of Agricultural Development Projects

International and national agencies are facing the same challenge, which is to promote sustainability of development projects. Their development activities influence local communities, national policies and accessibility of natural resources differently. Therefore, intensive discussion on sustainable rural development projects and sharing good sustainable practices has emerged amongst the donors. In fact, the term sustainability has become the goal of current development Aid.

There are several definitions of project sustainability. For instance, the OECD/DAC considers the projects as sustainable provided that the benefits persist after the termination of project funding (OECD, 2015b). Eckman (1993) defines sustainable projects as those where beneficial project's activities become everyday community practices which are sustained without external sources after project termination. Like-minded Clayton at al. (1998) and McAllister (1999) present sustainable projects as those that support building of local capacities and local people skills in managing project development on their own.

Gorjestani (2000) also talks about the necessity of local/indigenous knowledge involvement in the development processes. Such knowledge is very important in reaching rural poor because it is usually the only asset they are familiar with (ibid.). Several studies (FAO, 2009; Warren at al., 1988) even present that the systems based on local knowledge significantly encourage food security and sustainability.

Therefore, the participation of a community is a key factor of sustainable development in rural areas Subedi (2008). Aref (2011) states that the participation is "direct involvement of marginalized groups in a development process, which aims to build people's capabilities to have access to and control of resources, benefits and opportunities towards self-reliance and an improved quality of life". Furthermore, the participation helps in communication amongst farmers (men and women) and development workers to analyze problems and needs, formulate, implement and evaluate development activities (ibid.). Aref et al. (2010) even say that if the participation does not exist, there are no relationships amongst partners, no signs of development, and no program. The involvement of local communities into projects activities also demands their motivation to participate. For instance, Edi at al. (2007)

presents a positive correlation between easy access to agricultural inputs and farmer's participation. Agricultural projects are focusing on public servants as well. Even though Staats (1998) explains the natural motivation of public servants in the sense of duty and public morality, Pillay (2004) talks about their low motivation due to reduced salaries, lack of facilities to perform adequate results and non-functioning government budget.

Projects also need a lengthy PCM. Institutional strengthening, capacity-building and natural resource management practices usually require more than one PCM to reach desired targets (IFAD, 2009). Hardaker (1997) cites the example of forestry that needs long term processes while urgent cases depend on short-term basis. Hardaker (1997) shows that even if the project is longer than 10 or 15 years, it could not bring obvious changes in technological, social, political and economic situation.

Factors influencing sustainability of development projects are defined as internal and external. An implementing organization is able to directly influence activities, outputs and results of a project while the total outcomes depend on external factors (floods, drought, political stability, legal framework, etc.) (Körner and Píbilová, 2013). To know well the internal and external risks, the risk analysis has to be taken into account (see for example: *Agricultural sector risk assessment in Niger* issued by World Bank (2013)). It is recommended to define risk management tools for agricultural prices and production to easily overcome difficulties in terms of shocks and hazards (Antonaci at al. 2013). For instance, production risk management tools focus on financial markets, insurance, technology adoption (diversification of production, conservation agriculture, resistant seeds, etc.) and farm safety nets (targeted input distribution) (Antonaci at al. 2013). To avoid a risk of project results loos, each project should involve exit strategy including co-deciding of beneficiaries (CzDA, 2013a). Exit strategy enables to phase out donor support and take activities over by beneficiaries (Körner and Píbilová, 2013). Engels (2010) observed that even though bilateral and multilateral donors present a scope for development in PCM, an exit strategy is still not involved.

1.4.1 Accessed Studies on Sustainability in National ODA

CIDA (2003) has published a study titled *Promoting Sustainable Rural Development through Agriculture*, where they presented lessons learned from the Development assistance. Besides, they recommend a broad perspective of agriculture in rural development, good knowledge adapted to local context (cultural, social, economical and

political factors), incorporation of local communities into formulating and implementing of project and aggregate farmers. Furthermore, they enhance local research, building of institutional capacity, appropriate environment for new agricultural products and techniques and empowering of youths and women (CIDA, 2003). Generally, women are mainly incorporated in agricultural activities in Sub-Saharan Africa and East and Southeast Asia - almost 50% of workforce (Doss at al., 2011). They lack access to agricultural inputs and do not use as much of productive resources as men (ibid.). Because of a woman's important role in the development, several other studies have been published. For instance Todaro and Smith (2012) assumes: "higher proportion of women's income than men's is used for nutrition and basic necessities".

Another study *Sustainable Smallholder Agriculture* written by Braun et al. (2011) assesses the sustainable agriculture in the German ODA and provides good examples of practices. The study is based on the *The Sustainable Agriculture Information Network - Sustainet* project carried out between 2003 and 2009. It analyses 39 projects that were financed by German donors (Misereor, Brot für die Welt, Deutsche Welthungerhilfe and GTZ). Braun at al. (2011) presents challenges and sustainable approaches, e.g. locally adapted practices, building of trust and confidence amongst implementing organisation, farmers and other stakeholders, well developed monitoring and evaluation system, raise in awareness of benefits, promotion of policy dialogue (land law, land use plans, water resources conservation, etc.), access to market and producer's attitudes to projects.

Furthermore, the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC, 2010) published *Report on Effectiveness: Swiss Development Cooperation in the Agricultural Sector* in 2010. The SDC (2010) uses the result chain to find out the successes (examples of good practices) and room for improvements of Swiss development aid. For instance, the SDC (2010) recommends involvement of national partners and farmers in research and implementation of new technologies considering immediate needs of local families, integration of gender issue into the development project and necessity of project flexibility in local changing environment.

To mention other foreign recommendation, Brillion (2013) published the study *Review of Decentralized Evaluations Conducted by AFD in 2010 and 2011* [Bilan des évaluations décentralisées réalisées par l'AFD en 2010 et 2011] where the author proposes to French Development Agency and development actors to improve the

quality of EX-ANTE (e.g. to create quality feasibility study that is promoted by sufficient financial resources and time, to determine monitoring goals, etc.), promote transparent and equal partnership (to create common goals for stakeholders, make risk analysis, determine preconditions of success and promote process of mutual stakeholder's learning in all levels of PCM) and formalize realistic and useful tracking devices (to compare the monitoring indicators to the baseline data and goals, measure of impact).

Recently, discourse on agricultural development projects sustainability has also emerged in the Czech development context. Körner and Píbilová (2013) published the study *Sustainability of Czech International Development Cooperation Projects* where they analysed 37 final evaluation reports of Czech bilateral ODA. The study shows that around 19% of evaluated projects are considered as sustainable, 32% projects were rather sustainable, 38% rather unsustainable and 11% unsustainable[10]. Based on evidence, Körner and Píbilová (2013) highlights some good practices, as for example: (1) to make a project based on the specific needs and problem; (2) to include the analysis of assumptions and risks and the risk management strategy (e.g. contingency plan, exit strategy) into formulation phase; (3) to establish close contact with local citizens and stakeholders and promote ownership by transferring the decision making process as close as possible; (4) to enhance project monitoring and flexible design.

Svoboda (2015) also increased awareness of sustainability of development projects due to not so positive results of *Summary Report of the Draft Evaluation Reports of the Czech Development Assistance in 2014* [Souhrnná zpráva z hodnocení pracovních verzí evaluačních zpráv projektů zahraniční rozvojové spolupráce ČR v roce 2014]. This study shows that the Czech development assistance lacks a target group's ownership factor during the formulation and implementation phase that causes an abandonment of established practices after project termination. Furthermore, Svoboda (2015) stated that the evaluation reports are not well presented and the partner institutions do not usually have access to the full version of final evaluation report in an accessible language

[10] Petríková and Chadba (2014) argue that this OECD/DAC indicator is not well defined and not well adapted on the environment of development aid. They also present the limit in different understanding of the definition of sustainability by the external evaluators - therefore we can consider the results rather indicative than relevant (ibid.).

(English or language of target country), therefore, they do not have incentive to adapt future practices to more sustainable ones.

The thesis borrows theoretical concepts and framework of sustainability especially from IFAD (2009) strategic document *Sustainability of Rural Development Projects*, where guidelines for ensuring project sustainability are presented. Its framework is described more in detail in the third chapter.

2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

Even though the Czech development assistance underwent the transformation process in 2006–2010, there are still challenges to improve the aid to agriculture. The thorough academic research about the Czech agricultural development projects and their sustainability is still missing. According to the evaluation reports, the Czech bilateral ODA to agriculture faces rather low sustainability in 60% of projects. Therefore, our study is aiming at reducing partially this gap. It is based on two specific research objectives (see Figure 2).

Firstly, it presents quantitative descriptive statistics and qualitative data of current agricultural development program of the Czech bilateral ODA. Secondly, it evaluates the preconditions of sustainable practices in the Czech bilateral ODA and compares them with IFAD recommended standards. Furthermore, the study seeks to find out how the CzDA, as a main donor, fosters those sustainable practices.

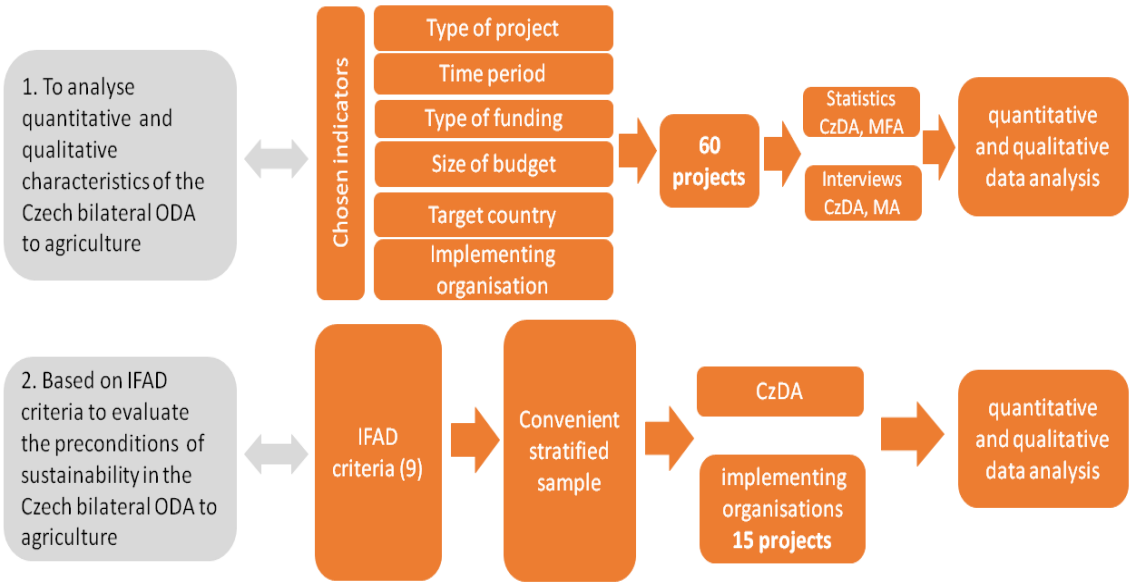

Figure 2. Objectives and indicators

3 METHODS

The study used the data of the Czech bilateral ODA to agriculture since 2008 - the year when the professional governmental institution "Czech Development Agency" (CzDA) was established. For the first objective, our study uses quantitative and qualitative descriptive analysis in order to examine all agricultural projects (60 projects) since 2008. The study narrows the traditional definition of agricultural projects used for statistics in the Czech Republic and focuses only on projects that the OECD/DAC methodology includes into "agriculture"[11]. A list of criteria and indicators (Appendix 1) was created based on the literature review (annual statistics of CzDA and Ministry of Foreign Affairs[12], Brillion's study (2013), SDC (2010) and World Bank (2015b)) and personal consultations with the Czech ODA evaluators. A source of data comes from project proposals, final projects' reports and annual reports which are available at the CzDA and MFA web pages or accessible on personal demand at the CzDA. During April and May 2015 personal interviews with representatives of the CzDA and Czech MA was conducted. Subsequently, the quantitative data were analysed employing basic descriptive statistics.

For the second objective, the qualitative and quantitative data analysis served for evaluation of incorporation of the sustainable development practices into the Czech bilateral ODA to agriculture. For the detailed project analysis, we made 13 structured interviews (13 projects) with representatives of NGDOs: People in Need, Caritas CR, Svět jako domov; academic sector: Czech university of Life Sciences Prague, Mendel University; and private sector: Breeding association Impuls and CIRA. Due to the time inaccessibility of two project coordinators from Mendel University and CISTA we used the same structured questionnaire and communicated by e-mails and phone. In conclusion, we analysed 15 agricultural projects in which we used convenient stratified

[11] Aid to agriculture includes Agriculture (code: 311), Forestry (code: 312) and Fishing (code: 313). Agriculture has several subcategories: Agricultural policy and administrative management (31110), Land resources (31130), Water resources (31140), Agricultural inputs (31150), Agrarian reform (31164), Food Crop production (31161), Industrial crops / export crops (31162), Livestock (31163), Agricultural alternative development (31165), Agricultural extension (31166), Agricultural education/training (31181), Research (31182), Agricultural services (31191), Financial services (31193), Livestock/veterinary services (31195), Plant and post-harvest protection (31192) and Agricultural co-operatives (31194) (OECD, 2015d).

[12] MFA (2013), MFA (2011), MFA (2015c), CzDA (2013b), CzDA (2015b)

sample method (see Table 2). Furthermore, we held an interview with the representative of CzDA in March 2016.

Table 2. Convenient stratified sample method used in thesis

	2008–2015			
	Total N° of projects	N° of intervention in total N° of project	N° of project interviewed	N° of project interviewed
NGDOs	60	33	15	6
Academic sector		20		6
Private sector		10		2
State sector		6		1
	Total N° of projects	N° of intervention in total N° of project	N° of project interviewed	N° of project interviewed
Public procurement	60	19	15	6
Grant		38		8
Budgetary measure		5		1

The underlining framework, reflecting current development discourse on sustainability of agricultural development project, is mainly based on the IFAD paper "*Sustainability of rural development projects: "Best practices and lessons learned by IFAD in Asia, 2009"* prepared by Tango International, which sets up nine criteria to ensure the project sustainability in rural areas (see Figure 3). We have created the list of criteria and indicators (see Appendix 2) on the basis of the Tango International recommendations to IFAD and other literature focusing on project sustainability (e.g. Braun at al. 2011; Brillion 2013; CIDA, 2003; Körner and Píbilová, 2013). Afterwards, we consulted them with the Czech ODA evaluators and representatives of Czech implementing organisations during pilot data collection.

The study uses triangulation to increase the accuracy of data - primary data obtained from the project documentations and reports (CzDA), interviews with the governmental implementing agency (CzDA), major implementing organisations and the Czech representative of MA. Current secondary data is obtained primarily from the annual reports of Czech ODA.

However, we are fully aware that the study faces several limits. The first limit is related to selection of projects under consideration. The OECD definition of agriculture has been utilised in the Czech Republic only since 2014. Therefore, we had to consider the

project intent (agriculture, forestry and fishery) and to choose projects that belong to "agriculture" (code 311). For this reason the selection could cause few distortions.

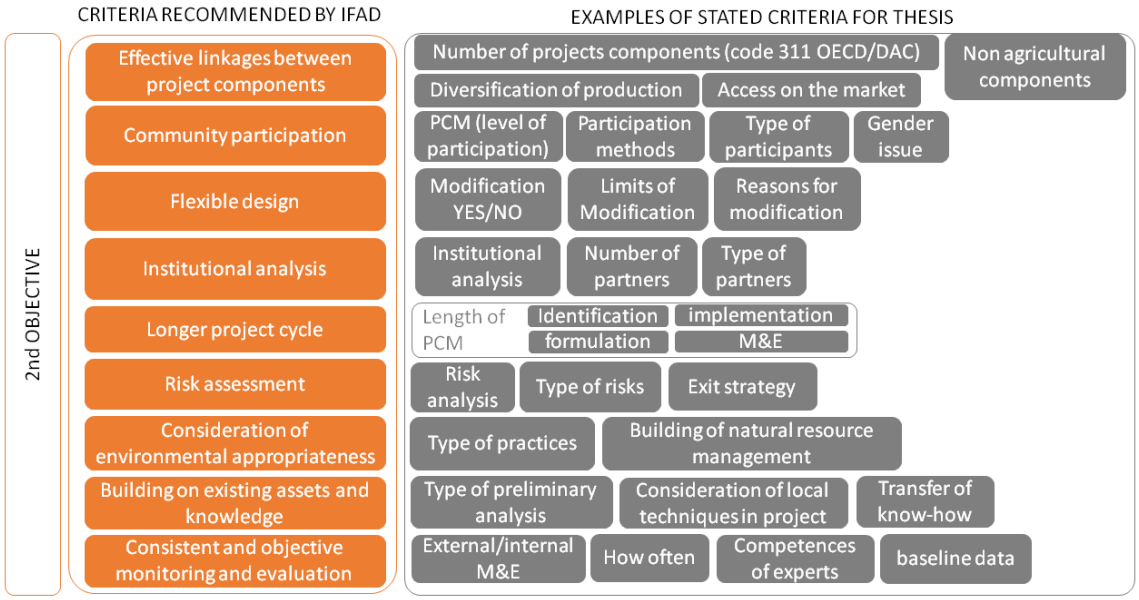

Figure 3. Criteria based on IFAD recommendation

Further, even though we analysed the projects that started in the year 2008, in order to avoid the transformation period, the period 2008–2010 was still influenced by previous programme, e.g. projects were running under control of the Ministry of Agriculture, a number of project calls was restricted due to the CzDA adaptation to new challenges.

We also see limits in the organization of statistics of the CzDA, especially in terms of the project financing tool. Although the CzDA usually presents just one financing tool for one project, in reality there could be several other implementing organisations working independently on the same project. This is particularly true in the case of public procurement when the CzDA is the implementing organisation that chooses its contractors.

To avoid the problems with positive "self-evaluation" and reliability of data collection instrument, we were posing similar questions repeatedly, asking mainly objectively verifiable information and making short summaries during interviews. However, we are aware that due to the nature of data collection from concerned respondents some level of positive self-evaluation cannot be ruled out. In order to improve general validity of a construct, we discussed the structure of questionnaire with expert evaluators and development specialists, and conducted pilot testing.

Last limitation is related to the number of analysed projects for the second objective. The initially estimated number of projects was reduced due to external factors, such as absence of project coordinators in the Czech Republic, their lack of time and unwillingness to testify their negative experiences with the Czech ODA to agriculture. Therefore, the results are acknowledge to be rather indicative.

4 RESULTS

4.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis of the Czech Bilateral ODA to Agriculture

The Czech Republic financed 60 agricultural bilateral development projects since 2008 to 2015. Financial resources invested into the Czech ODA to agriculture have been slightly increasing since the beginning of monitored period (see Figure 4). All projects were implemented on the basis of initial project proposals applied by partners from target countries. Afterwards, proposals were evaluated according to the relevance, and partly effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability. When the CzDA does not have baseline data for project implementation, especially for technical projects or risky ones, they have financial resources to transfer the feasibility study to external experts. Those studies have been made rarely (e.g. project "Alternative solutions to the development of plant production in arid regions of Mongolia"). Feasibility studies do not have standardized structure; the same applies to identification and formulation study in the field.

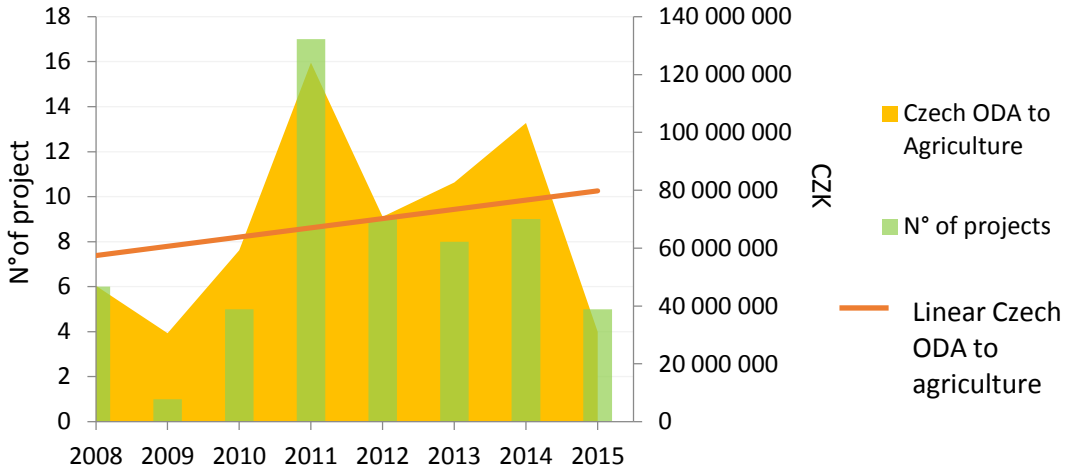

Figure 4. Czech ODA to agriculture - total budget / new projects / year

Nowadays, the system of Czech ODA is much more procedurally structured than ever before. The CzDA started to systematically build its agricultural capacity since 2008. Nowadays, the CzDA employs two experts on Agriculture. Furthermore, they operate with agricultural expert database that was taken over from Ministry of Agriculture and extended. Still until today, agricultural know-how for project's identification and

formulation of the Czech ODA to agriculture accumulates mainly at Ministry of Agriculture. The CzDA does not often and systematically cooperate directly with experts from target countries, especially due to the insufficient CzDA personal representation abroad. As compared with more advanced Western donor countries, the CzDA is rather small agency in terms of the number of employees and offices located abroad (the office of the CzDA has been located just in the Czech Republic yet).

4.1.1 Type of Czech ODA to Agriculture according to OECD/DAC Definition

Since 2008, the Czech ODA to agriculture has supported all practices that belong to OECD/DAC definition of agriculture, except the criteria "Agricultural alternative development"[13] (see Figure 5). The Czech Republic neither cooperates with countries facing problems of drug cultivation (except Afghanistan).

We can observe some categories where Czech organizations have certain know how and which are repeated in call for proposals. The most important element of Czech ODA to agriculture is non-formal education (see Figure 5). The second most import type of aid is an import machinery and equipment (52% of projects). If we look at the supply of

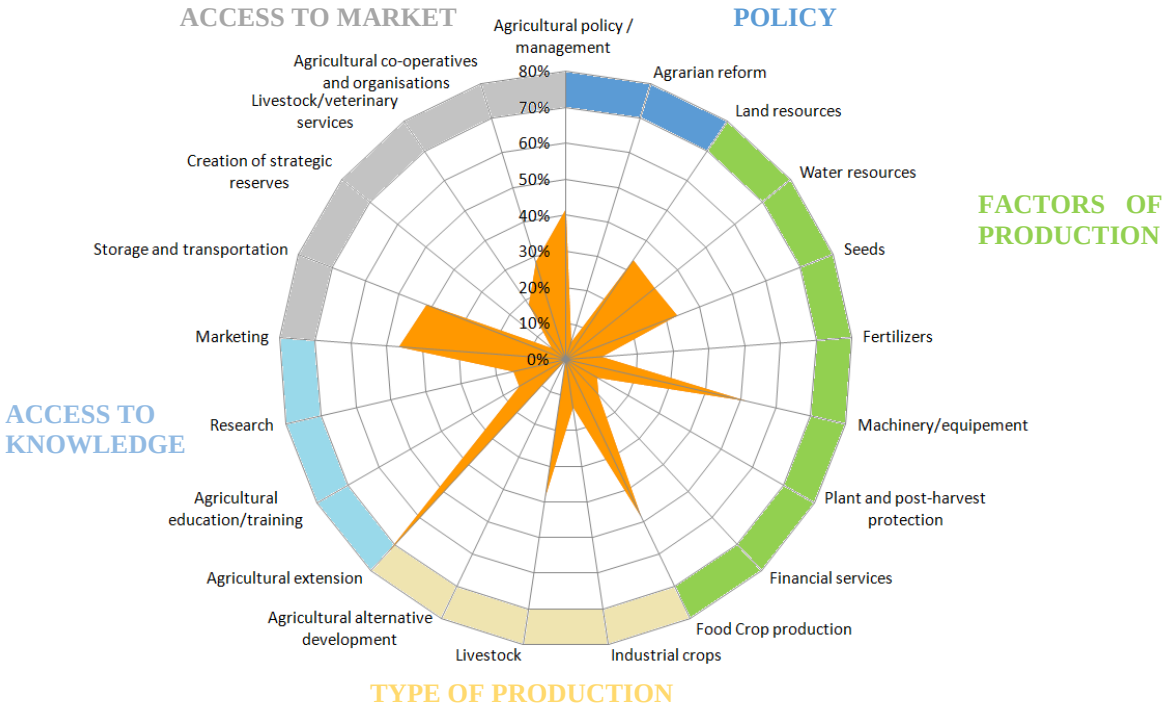

Figure 5. Czech ODA to agriculture according to OECD/DAC sectors

[13] Intent of projects is "to reduce illicit drug cultivation through other agricultural marketing and production opportunities" (OECD, 2015d).

machinery and equipment in more in detail, the Czech Republic has quality agricultural know-how but oriented rather on high-production capacity and intensive agriculture on a large scale. Therefore, the techniques from Eastern countries like Serbia, Turkey, Poland, Italy, India etc. are more and more likely to be better adapted and used by implementing organization for future Czech ODA target countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova, Georgia and Ethiopia. However, the Czech Republic has been profiting for example from comparative advantage in know-how on organic farming and beekeeping.

The Czech ODA to agriculture in terms of number of projects focuses more on food crop production (fruit and vegetables, potatoes, etc.) than livestock (cattle breeding, poultry, pigs, sheep, goats, bees, Przewalski's horse, etc.). It also supports policy and administrative management (like e.g. farmer's training centres in Ethiopia, central livestock evidence in Mongolia, centre for livestock insemination in Zambia). Furthermore, the Czech ODA to agriculture focuses on land and water resources including anti-erosion measures (e.g. consistent work in Ethiopia since 2008) and cooperative approach or other type of farmer's association and horizontal integration (e.g. farming services centres in Georgia).

4.1.2 Length of Implementation Phase

In reference period from 2008 till 2015, the CzDA has supported new three-year period projects in more than 60% of cases. Furthermore, the Czech ODA to agriculture has included four-year (18% of projects), two-year (18% of projects), and one-year (4% of projects). We can also see that time period has been slightly increasing, except the year 2009, when the CzDA was able to announce just one new project (formal agricultural education) due to the process of transformation (see Figure 6). But still, the length of the agricultural projects is one of the biggest challenges of the Czech ODA, since 2-3 years long project usually covers 1-2 agricultural seasons, which is not enough for sustainability and proper transfer of results to the local recipients.

Implementing organisations have not finished their project activities in the given period in all cases. They have an option to request CzDA to prolong the period of implementation. Another possibility is to apply for a new follow-up project. That means that they continue under a new project status with similar activities. In this case the

crucial question is who will be the implementing organisation that continues in follow-up project, since the extension is (usually publicly announced).

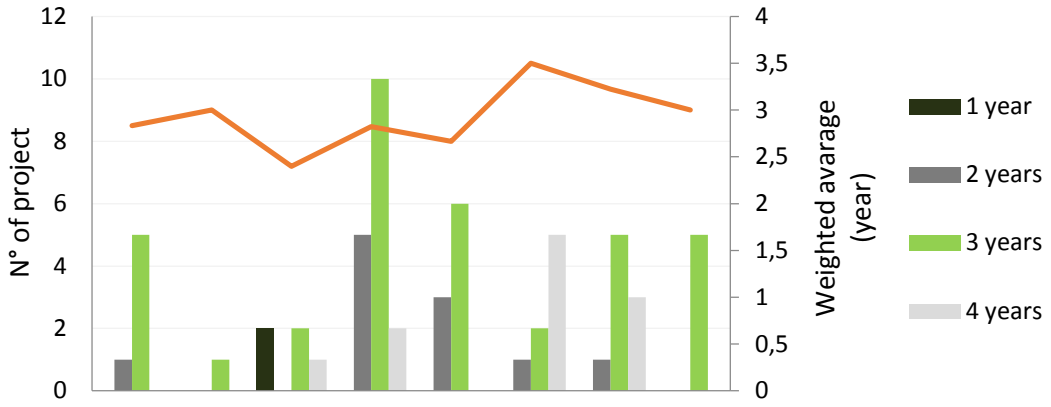

Figure 6. Time period per new project in initial year

CASE STUDY 1 (NGDO, academic sector)

Anti-erosion project in Ethiopia has been implemented in target region since 2008. At the beginning, Czech NGDO effectively included local communities into project activities. In 2010, when project formally ended, new projects were announced and another implementing organisation (academic sector) took over the project with follow-up activities (2010–2012). The effectiveness of implementation decreased since the new organisation took time to adapt to the local environment, especially to understand participatory methods set by previous organisation and struggled to be legalized in Ethiopian legal environment (also cooperation with local Czech embassy at that time was not effective). Both organisations communicated, but not so frequently. Nowadays, the academic sector is still operating in Ethiopia and it is considered as an example of good practices.

4.1.3 Target Countries of Czech ODA to Agriculture

The Czech ODA to agriculture concentrates its activities mainly to Programme countries - Ethiopia (22% of projects), Moldova (17% of projects), Afghanistan (12% of projects), Mongolia (13% of projects) and Bosnia and Herzegovina (10% of projects) in terms of number of projects. The programme countries, which include agriculture as a sector priority, have obtained the highest volume of the Czech ODA to agriculture since 2008 (see Figure 7). If we take into account their GDP per capita, most of the financial resources and projects are going to the low-income country, Ethiopia. Interesting fact is, that even with high budget for agriculture in Afghanistan, there is only one Czech NGDO operating in agriculture. The Czech ODA to Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova, Mongolia and Georgia builds its activities on shared experience from history, thus: transfer of Czech know-how in processing of agricultural products (added value),

producers groups and cooperatives, intensification of production and adjustment to the European food safety standards. Kyrgyz Republic and Indonesia belonged to the interest of Ministry of Agriculture only till the end of the year 2010.

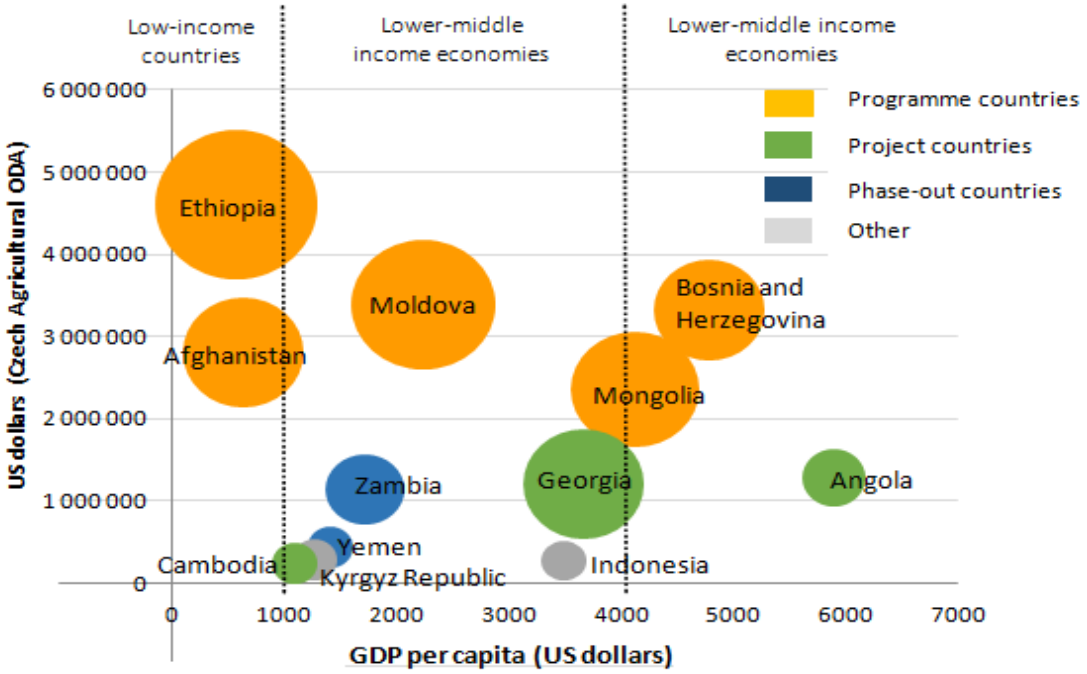

Figure 7. Target countries according to GDP per capita and Czech Agricultural ODA to agriculture

Source: Work of authors, data gathered from World Bank (2016)[14]

4.1.4 Implementing Organisations and Their Capacities

The Czech ODA to agriculture includes four groups of implementing organisations: NGDOs, academic sector, private sector, and state institutions (see Figure 8). NGDOs have implemented more than half of the projects since 2008 to 2015 - especially two biggest NDGOs with 38% of projects and 12% of all projects respectively.

Based on their own self-evaluation during interview both lacked sufficient experience in agriculture before 2008. The representative of first NGDO put it:"*we learned a lot during the project that was held in Ethiopia (2008–2010), especially in terms of working with communities*." Furthermore, the representative of other NGDO mentioned: "*if we initiated new topic in agriculture we did not have much experience, therefore we*

[14] Bigger a bubble is a higher N °of project is implemented, USD to CZK gathered 10/3/2016 at XE, 2016)

relied on external experts. Since 2008 the situation has improved a lot." First NGDOs focuses its activities especially on cooperative approaches, access of Eastern Europeans farmers to European market, consulting and agricultural extension in Ethiopia, Moldova and Mongolia. Second NGDO has been working mainly in Georgia through farming service centres (associations of farmers; crop production, processing and access to the market).

The Czech ODA to agriculture includes also academic sector (33% of projects), especially one agricultural university from Prague and one from Brno. Czech agricultural universities have been profiting from agricultural knowledge and experience in development projects. Therefore, they have usually been implementing organisation working alone (85% of projects) since 2008. Nowadays, the positive trend is that various types of organizations apply as partners or subcontractor. The private, state or academic sector usually becomes partner to some bigger NGDOs. This fact is supported by various initiatives and even CzDA, but especially by the practical fact that Czech NGDOs have already established networks of their missions or partners in target countries, which significantly improves efficiency of logistics, administration and adaptation to local environment. Universities, companies and state institutions lack this capacity.

The university in Prague is involved especially in cooperatives, formal education, extension services, consulting and livestock (insemination, production quality, etc.). The university in Brno has long experience with anti-erosion measures, forestry and water management.

Czech private sector is involved in 17% of projects since 2008. Private sector implements project without any cooperation in 60% of projects. At the moment, private companies are usually involved in projects focusing on livestock (60% of projects). Some dominant companies are focused on animal insemination; other companies specialize in anti-erosion measures, water in agriculture and plant production. Private sector participation in the Czech ODA to agriculture is stable especially due to a high demand of its expertise and access to Czech agricultural knowhow and technologies. The representative of private sector highlighted: "*We prefer bilateral Programme of Development-Economic Partnerships (B2B) where we can include a profit and especially to work with motivated people*". Even though the know-how of some

companies is appreciated, the involvement of private sector into the development cooperation is currently widely discussed topic (e.g. the role, motivation and financing of Czech private companies together with topics of tight aid and support of Czech export). Private sector also sometimes perceives the Czech ODA to agriculture as very risky - during the interview, we learned that one private company was facing legal dispute due to their development project.

Public institutions, the last category of implementing organizations, have implemented only 10% of projects since 2008. About 83% of them have been targeted to European countries (Moldova, and Bosnia and Herzegovina). We can deduce that the state institutions prefer to cooperate with countries with which they can share experience from the post-Soviet history and similar structure of state apparatus. It is also the reason why the institutions from target countries demand directly the assistance of Czech state institutions which have know-how monopoly over legislation in the Czech environment. This type of cooperation supports the access of target countries to the EU market (e.g. state control systems, veterinary services, registration of wine, ecological production, etc.). Geographical proximity and some knowledge of Russian language among older Czech experts, enable also frequent exchange visits of experts and farmers to and from the Czech Republic.

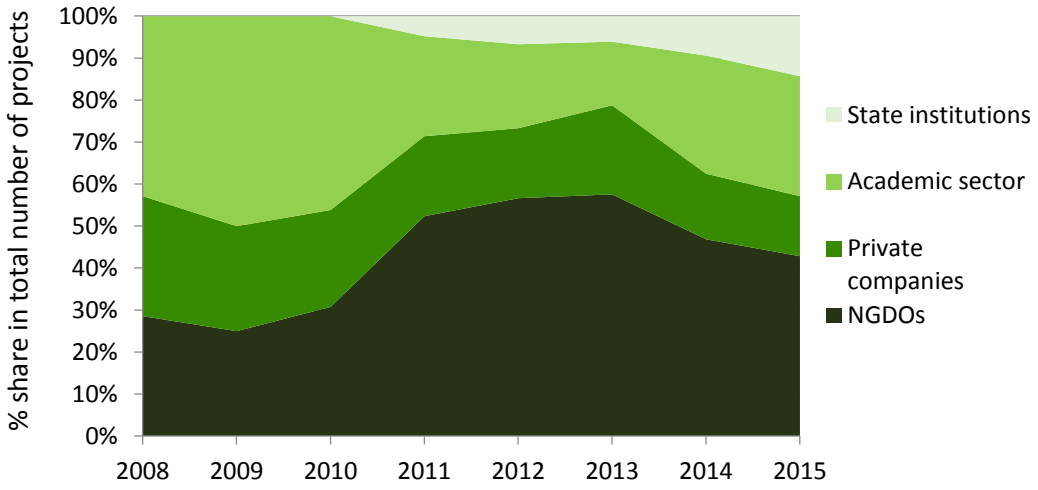

Figure 8: Engagement of Czech implementing organisations in Czech ODA to agriculture

4.1.5 Project Financing

Agricultural development projects are mostly funded as grants (61%) followed by public procurements (31%) and budgetary measures (8%). NGDOs often make use of grants (85% of projects), academic sector is financed by both, grants and public procurements in balance. Private sector makes use of public tenders[15] (90% of projects) and state institutions focus on budgetary measures (100% of projects). The Ministry of Agriculture in the past supported especially public procurements. Nowadays, grants prevail and appropriates of public procurements, which are more rigid and formalized (formulation of the project is done by the CzDA) is intensively discussed as a right tool for funding soft agricultural projects, which need high degree of flexibility and knowledge of the local context during the project preparation.

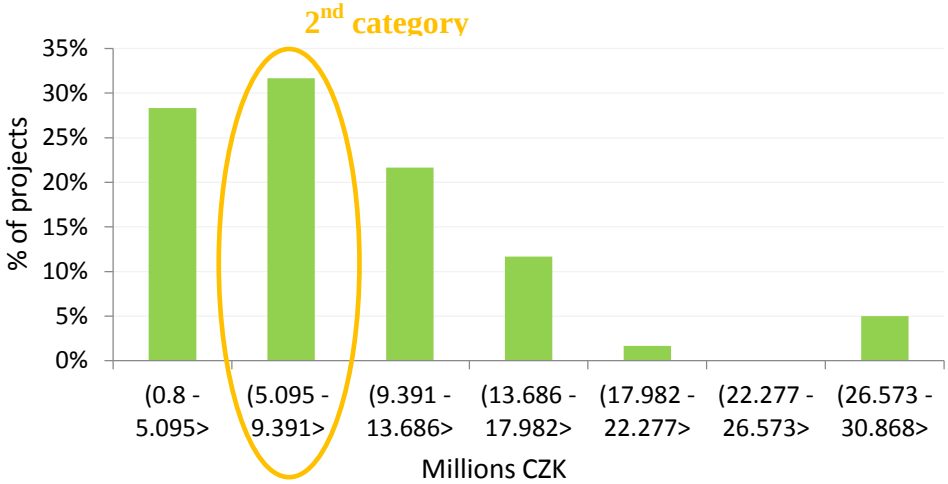

Figure 9: Redistribution of Czech agricultural projects according to size of budget

The new agricultural development project cost 9,143,594 CZK (335,188 EUR[16]) in average since 2008 to 2015 (the amount covers the entire length of one project). One can observe that the redistribution of Czech ODA to agriculture is highly stratified (see Figure 9). One of the problems of the Czech ODA to agriculture is that all the categories of budget are still very small. The projects are usually divided into several smaller projects between several organizations, which increase the administrative costs of the whole program, and makes coordination and communication with local partners difficult. Moreover, the problem is seen in the Czech legal system that does not allow

[15] The private companies are excluded from participation in grant call for proposals by the law.

[16] EUR: average exchange rate EUR 1 = 27.279 from 1 January 2015 to 31 December 2015 (European Central Bank, 2016)

for projects' consortia of several partners except public procurements where it is still legally complicated for involved partners. The agricultural projects have been mostly financially supported in the second category since 2008 (see Figure 9).

4.1.6 Results of Evaluation Reports of Czech ODA to Agriculture

Since 2010, the MFA has undertaken 16 projects evaluations in agriculture (38% of them in Georgia, 25% in Moldova, 13% in Ethiopia) (see Figure 10). The rest of evaluated projects (13% of projects in both, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Mongolia) had been implemented before the year 2008. External experts hired by public procurement of MFA evaluated two projects in Georgia twice (one year after termination and then repeatedly after two years) with similar results.

	Project country	Implementation period	Relevance	Effectiveness	Efficiency	Impact	Sustainability
1. Establishment and support of agricultural service center	Georgia	2011 - 2012	high	rather high	rather low	rather high	rather high
2. Establishment and support of agricultural service center	Georgia	2011 - 2012	rather high	rather low	rather high	rather high	rather low
1. Enhancing the efficiciency of small farmers	Georgia	2008 - 2010	high	rather low	rather low	rather low	rather low
2. Enhancing the efficiciency of small farmers	Gerogia	2008 - 2010	rather high	rather low	low	difficult to	low
Anti-erosion measures around Lake Awassa	Ethiopia	2008 - 2010	high	rather high	rather high	high	rather high
Sustainable soil, forest and water management	Ethiopia	2010 - 2012	high	rather high	rather high	rather high	rather low
Support of organic agricultural development	Moldova	2011 - 2013	rather high	rather low	high	not defined	rather low
Development of organic agriculture	Moldova	2011 - 2013	high	rather high	not possible to define	rather high	rather high
Increase competitiveness and efficiency of Moldovan small-scale and medium-scale farmers through their focus on production with high added value	Moldova	2011 - 2013	high	high	high	rather high	rather high
Development of entrepreneurial skills of Moldovan small-scale farmers through knowledge transfer	Moldova	2012 - 2013	rather high	rather high	rather high	not defined yet	rather low
Support to cooperation and capacity development of small farmers	Georgia	2011-2012	rather low - low	rather high	rather high	rather high	rather low
Support to cooperative farming among farmers	Georgia	2011-2012	rather high	rather low	rather low	difficult to	rather low

Figure 10. Final evaluation reports of ten agricultural development projects

On the basis of our external evaluations review the relevance of agricultural development projects (taking into account the priorities of agricultural development programs in the target countries and Czech foreign development policy, needs of target groups, etc.) is assessed as the highest, while the sustainability is evaluated as the most critical (see Figure 10). We can observe that professional evaluators assessed the sustainability of agricultural projects as rather low in 58 % of cases and low in 8% of cases. This is definitely worrying situation.

4.2 Sustainable Practices of Czech Development Actors

Based on the general review of projects and results of independent evaluations, this chapter aims to answer the research question: To what extent does the Czech ODA to agriculture follow the sustainable practices recommended by IFAD in the Project Cycle Management? And does the CzDA foster their inclusion?

4.2.1 Effective Linkages between Project Components

In terms of combination of different approaches to the agricultural development, the IFAD criteria recommend to combine several of them within one project. Based on the data from our respondents for this objective, the Czech organisations combined in average nine different practices from the OECD/DAC definition of agriculture. Furthermore respondents integrate other activities to ensure farmer's stability (see Figure 11). One can observe that implementing organisations focus on capacity building in all projects. The diversification of production is also an important part of project activities. On the contrary, off-farm activities and advocacy are not a priority.

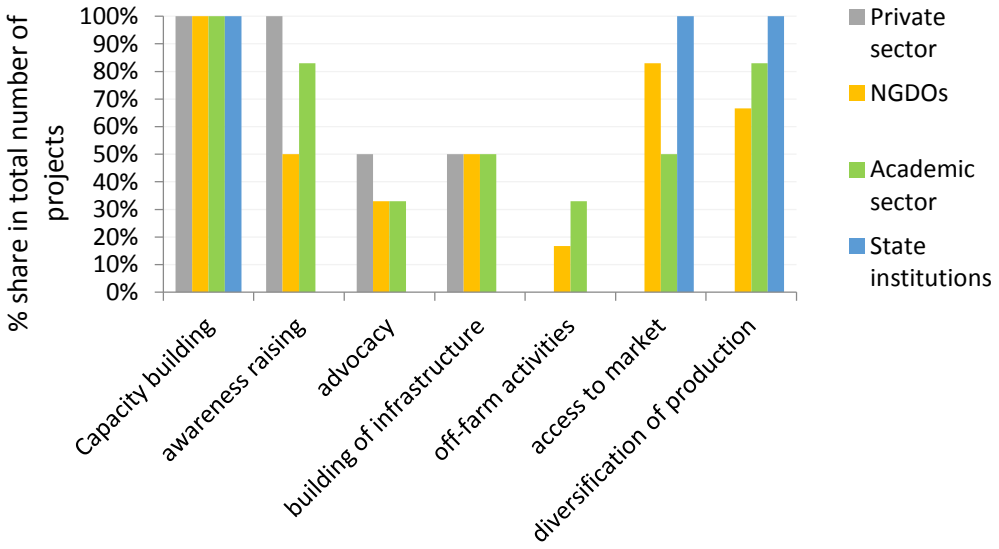

Figure 11: Involvement of different components by implementing organisations

CASE STUDY 2 (NGDO)

One NGDO implemented in their project the anti-erosion measures around Lake Awassa as a primary activity. Beside several trainings and workshops on sustainable management of soil, they planted indigenous trees and plants in the area of 30 ha. Their activities included also extension of food crop production (mango, avocado, papaya, olive trees) around in target region. They also provided seeds of multipurpose plant Moringa that contributed to the increase of farmer's income and diversification of production. Therefore, we can regard this project as an example of project built on several different synergetic components.

4.2.2 Community Participation

Even though the community participation is recommended at all levels of PCM, the Czech implementing organisations include local communities during the phase of implementation in most of projects. In one case from our sample local community was not included at all. About 80% of respondents said that they also include local communities into project formulation; local communities even co-decide on some activities in 23% cases. The CzDA involves local community during the identification and formulation of public procurements. The agency employs practices from informing through consulting and co-deciding on future activities with local communities during those two phases. The representative of CzDA mentioned: "*If the identification form is sent by local associations, then we can even talk about emancipation of Initial project proposal".* Furthermore, he added: "*Level of participation also depends on the type of project (work with government institutions versus local farmers) and where the identification and formulation is held. Ethiopia, for instance, the work with communities is an essential part of every project".*

The level of local community integration during implementation phase (from any participation to emancipation) differs for different types of institutions (see Table 3). The academic sector involves local community on the highest level. On the contrary, private sector usually informs local community about project activities. However, it is influenced by different type of project they implement - they work typically with public or state authorities directly and not in the rural areas. As a representative of private sector confirmed *"the projects that are designed as public procurements for private sector have different logic and cooperation with local communities is not relevant"*. In Table 3 one can see which target groups of the local communities are typically involved (type of community) and how the most involved category, farmers, participates (participation methods).

Regarding the monitoring, this phase is ensured by the CzDA which does not systematically integrates communities, except for one project in Zambia, where local community monitors the project itself. Finally, under this framework we also observed gender integration into project's activities. Implementing organisations seek to partly integrate women into project activities in 47% of projects, while claiming equal gender participation in 20% projects. Gender issues were not taken into consideration in 33%

of projects (100% of projects implemented by private sector, 33% of projects implemented by NGDOs and 17% of projects implemented by academic sector).

Table 3. Level of local community involvement in projects according to type of implementing organisations

Explanation	Variable	NGDOs	AS[17]	PS	SI
LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION DURING IMPLEMENTATION PHASE[18] 1 – no participation, 5 high participation	Local community	3	3.66	1.5	3
TYPE OF COMMUNITY (% share in total N° of projects)	Municipalities, elites	33%	100%	0%	0%
	Farmers	100%	100%	50%	100%
	CBOs	50%	17%	0%	0%
	Experts	50%	100%	50%	100%
PARTICIPATION METHODS FOR FARMERS (% share in total N° of projects)	Workshop	100%	83%	50%	100%
	Lecture	83%	83%	50%	100%
	Consulting	83%	33%	50%	100%
	Demonstration field	50%	83%	0%	0%
	Manual labour -not paid	33%	67%	0%	0%

CASE STUDY 3 (NGDO)

"We identified together with local authorities one or two key farmers in villages. They were well recognized by community and had a good local support. If those farmers agreed on project activities, they provided their own fields to demonstrate whole cycle of production. Our NGDO provided seeds and necessary agricultural equipment to them. Furthermore, we chose 30 farmers to participate on demonstration fields. They followed the process from planting to harvest. If chosen 30 farmers become more interested, they obtained vouchers to buy seeds for their own fields."

CASE STUDY 4 (private sector)

"We were limited by public procurement description to integrate local communities more into project activities. Therefore, the project was mainly one-way oriented and our representative just informed local communities about the project."

[17] AS - academic sector, PS - private sector, SI - state institutions, CBOs - Community based organisations
[18] 1 - no participation, 2 - informing, 3 - consulting, 4 - co-deciding, 5 - emancipation

4.2.3 Flexible Design

The CzDA responds to proposals for modification rather flexibly, especially in case of grants and budgetary measures (see Figure 13). The representative of CzDA stated: *"in case of grants the implementing organisation can negotiate almost about everything with the CzDA*". Public procurements are less flexible. During our interviews we learned that the implementing organisations ask for changes in already agreed project design and financing in 80% of projects and the CzDA has not approved just 8% of them. Therefore, the implementing organisations were able to adjust project activities and budget in 83% of projects. The indicators and partner organisations were changed in 25% of projects.

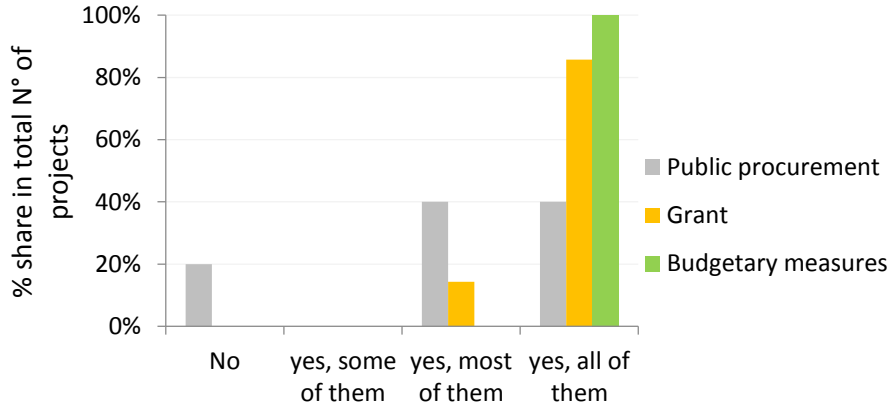

Figure 12: Was it possible to make changes during project implementation?

CASE STUDY 5 (academic sector)

"We usually made changes due to demand of local partner. As a consequence, some activities were more expensive than we expected. During the project implementation, we also had a possibility to buy cheaper beehives. Thus, we rather supported diversification of production of farmers. The CzDA allowed all necessary changes."

CASE STUDY 6 (NGDO)

CzDA procured one milk tank without insulation. NGDO was chosen on the basis of the best bid as a supplier of this technology and equipment for target country. When the NGDO bought it and exported it, the project coordinators realized that the tank without insulation is highly ineffective. Therefore, they had to add insulation in the Czech Republic on their own costs. The same NGDO won other call for proposals within the same project for 6.5 million CZK. When the NDGO assembled all the technology, they realized that the partner whom it is addressed does not have the right to import technology from abroad. They asked the CzDA for assistance. However, the CzDA has not responded as the NGDO hoped. Since then, the NGDO with long history in development assistance is no more biding for the development project's calls of the CzDA.

4.2.4 Institutional Analysis

The level of institutional analysis, meaning the analysis of the institutional environment in the target country before the project implementation, is rather high with the weighted average of 3.8[19]. It means the implementing organisations usually approach mapping of local actors, their expectations and capacities (see Table 4).

During projects, development organisations work with different types of partners and include them differently into projects' activities. The academic sector integrates local government most frequently (co-decide project activities in 67% of projects). NGDOs co-decide project activities together with local NGOs in 50% of projects.

In several projects, we observed that cooperation with local partners failed, especially due to insufficient knowledge of needs, motivations and financial capacities of partner (e.g. *Anti-erosion Measures around Lake Awassa* in Ethiopia and *Increasing the Efficiency of the Artificial Insemination of Cattle* in Mongolia).

Table 4. Institutional analysis and partners according to implementing organisations

	Variable	NGDOs	AS	PS	SI
Institutional analysis 1 - no analysis, 5 systematic analysis	Institutional analysis	3.75	3.83	3.5	5
TYPE OF PARTNERS (% share in total N° of projects)	Central Government	17%	33%	100%	100%
	Local Government	33%	100%	0%	100%
	NGOs	67%	17%	0%	100%
	Academic sector	0%	67%	0%	100%
	Private sector	0%	33%	0%	0%
LEVEL OF COOPERATION 1 - no participation, 5 - high participation (emancipation)	Central Government	2.0	2.0	3.0	4.0
	Local Government	3.5	3.42	-	2.0
	NGOs	3.8	3.0	-	2.0
	Academic sector	-	3.0	-	2.0
	Private sector	-	2.5	-	-

CASE STUDY 7 (private sector)

"We equipped local insemination centre as one of the best quality in Africa. Profits from the insemination centre go to central government (our main partner). Then the employees of insemination centre have to demand money from the central government in order to keep the centre running. When we try to explain to authorities of the central government that there is a need to have also some extra money for the amortization of equipment, they were not willing to take steps to take it into account."

[19] 1 - no analysis, 2 - only intuitive analysis, 3 - basic mapping of local actors and their expectations, 4 - quality mapping of local actors, their expectations and capacities, 5 - systematic mapping of local actors, their expectations, capacities and interactions.

4.2.5 Longer Project Cycle

Development organisations generally consider project period as rather insufficient (weighted average is equal to 2.07[20]) for full sustainability; especially NGDOs (see Table 5). Arguably, the projects should be prepared in a way to allow for sufficient time for sustainability of results. However, even the CzDA considers such a short period of whole PCM as insufficient. Interestingly, even in case the implementing organisation considers the project as insufficient, it does not usually ask for the project period prolongation officially.

From the interviews we understood that private sector is less motivated to continue with project activities due to the low interest of public servants (target group) to fully participate rather than the profit issues of involved companies. Low interest of NGDOs in project period extension was partially explained by the cross-financing of projects from other donors who are active in same target areas as the CzDA. Even though the CzDA is facing frequently demands for extension, they are limited by system and budget planning of the Czech government that allows for having projects of four-year length in maximum. Furthermore, each country is limited by the maximum allocated budget. For this reason the CzDA cannot guarantee the extension of every project.

Table 5. Project period sufficiency in terms of sustainability

	NGDOs	AS	PS	SI
Was implementation period sufficient to sustain results? *1 - highly insufficient, 5 - highly sufficient*	1.83	2.33	2.0	2.0
Would you like to prolong project period? *1 - no, 2 - yes, no official demand 3 - yes, we officially demanded*	1.6	2.33	1.5	3.0
Did the CzDA prolong project period? *1 -no, 2 - yes, partly, 3 - yes, according to our requirements*	2.5	1.75	1.0	3.0

CASE STUDY 8 (academic sector)

"We wanted to prolong the period of project implementation. The CzDA partly accepted our demand but without extension of the project budget. Time period was extended by half a year. Because of that we are able to implement exit strategy leading to better project sustainability".

CASE STUDY 9 (NGDO)

"Even though we had been reporting sufficient time for finalization of activities, we had been also giving the CzDA a warning about low impact and sustainability of activities in case of project termination in 2015. Till these days, there is no decision on follow-up project. If there is a new call, it will take a lot of time (min. 9 months) to write new public procurement and the activities will not be sustained as could be with direct extension"

[20] 1 - highly insufficient, 2 - rather insufficient, 3 - sufficient, 4 - rather sufficient, 5 - highly sufficient

4.2.6 Risk Assessment

The respondents make risk analysis in all projects but on different levels. While the NGDOs, academic sector and private sectors incorporate risk management strategy, the state institutions do not (see Table 6). Furthermore, the implementing organisations have met the problems which they expected in 87% of projects. They were not able to react in 8% of projects. Unexpected problems have appeared in 47% of projects. The implementing organisations were not able to react in case of 29% of projects. The implementing organisations face political instability and corruption in Ethiopia, no access to internet to register livestock in Mongolia, livestock diseases in Zambia and Angola and risk of violence in Afghanistan.

At the same time, they created an exit strategy just in 47% of cases (academic sector in 67% of projects, private sector in 50% of projects and NGDOs in 17% of projects). In 86% of positive cases, they consulted the exit strategy with the partners. The respondents consulted agreement on liability (100% of positive cases), dissemination strategy of benefits and financial resources (71% of positive cases).

Table 6. Level of risk analysis according to type of implementing organisation

	NGDOs	Academic sector	Private sector	State institution
Risk analysis was done without risk management strategy	60%	50%	50%	100%
Risk analysis was done, risk management strategy created	40%	50%	50%	0%

CASE STUDY 10 (NGDO)

"Because of the remoteness, we imported bred seeds to farmers. After a year, we asked farmers if they are going to buy seeds next year but they did not know where to buy them. Therefore, we asked seeds suppliers from the town if they could come at some point to see the farmers and sell seeds in the project area. Afterwards, we made a deal with suppliers and farmers regarding vouchers (farmers could buy one or more types of crop based on their decision). Even though the farmers obtained a direct contact for the sellers, the suppliers were not so interested to go to the project area on their own financial resources."

CASE STUDY 11 (academic sector)

"The biggest problem was seen in votes and changes on the position of project partner. In case of Agricultural office we met with corruption, they blocked our activities. We had to invite someone from regional level to threaten them by termination of cooperation."

4.2.7 Consideration of Environmental Appropriateness

The implementing organisations include practices that take the environment into account in 53% of projects (see Figure 13). Environmental practices were mainly involved by academic sector and NDGOs. NGDOs even included environment as a main target in 33% of projects. Private sector and state institutions have not been focusing on the environment at all. Furthermore, the respondents have developed management of natural resources in 33% of projects. In the rest of the projects, it was not considered as appropriate or relevant.

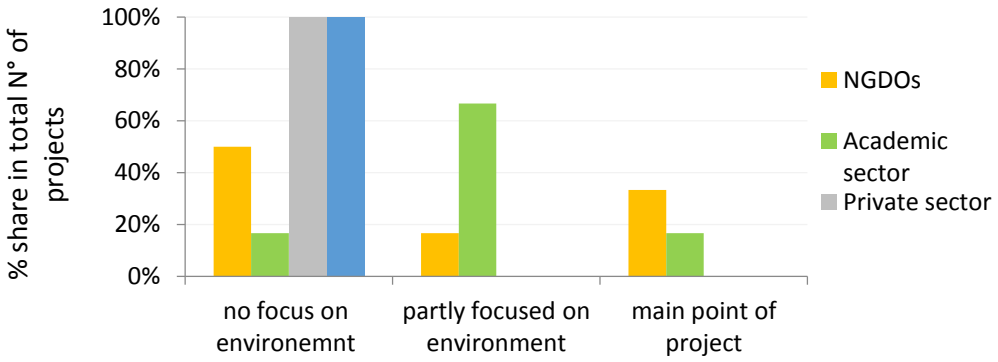

Figure 13: Involvement of environment aspects into projects according to type of implementing organisation

CASE STUDY 12 (academic sector)

"We restored orchards in the place which have both economic and environmental benefits. The orchards contributed to erosion control and reduced the amount of dust in the air. We also introduced fast-growing trees to serve as windbreaks and firewood. During the evaluation two years after the project termination, local farmers highly appreciated the greening of area, stabilization of local climate and improving of the quality of life."

4.2.8 Building on Existing Assets and Knowledge

The respondents do not usually make more than one preliminary field study, except NGDOs and academic sector. NGDOs make problem and needs analysis in each project; livelihood analysis in 50% of projects and agrarian diagnosis in 17% of projects. Private sector makes both, problem and need analysis and livelihood analysis in 50% of projects. Academic sector includes preliminary analysis in 67% of projects - problem and needs (100%), livelihood (25%) and agrarian (50%) analysis. On the contrary, state sector has not done any analysis. The respondents incorporate local agricultural techniques and traditions differently (87% of projects) (see Figure 14). They also involve different type of know how in project activities (see Figure 15).

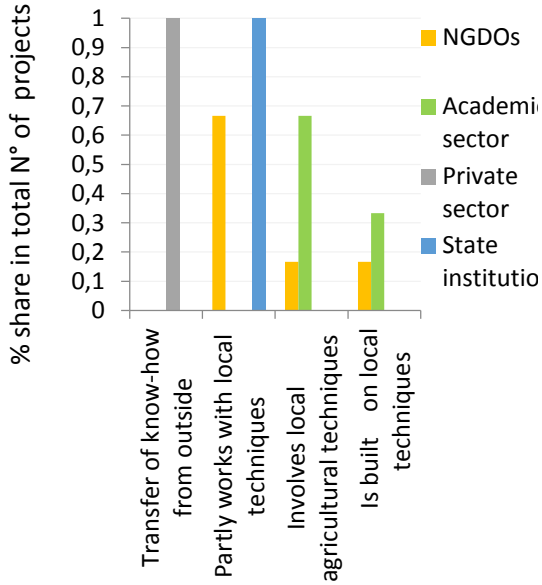

Figure 14. Incorporation of local techniques and traditions in projects

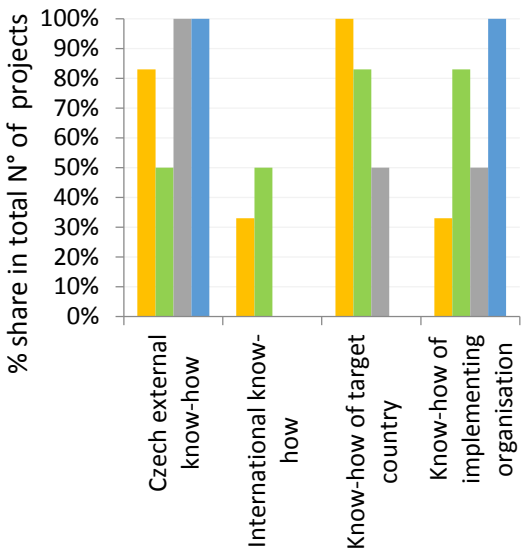

Figure 15. Type of know-how incorporated in projects

CASE STUDY (private sector)

"During the project activities, 16 experts have visited the target area. There were usually two to three experts in the field for 2 to 16 weeks. Our private company worked with approximately five Czech external experts from Secondary School of Agriculture and Veterinary in Lanškroun and the Czech Beef Breeders Association."

CASE STUDY (academic sector)

"When we try to implement innovative techniques, farmers have not them accepted. It was necessary to make lightweight progress; therefore, the workshops were focused especially on local techniques. We have made use of Ethiopian know-how regarding growing oil crops (agricultural research centre), livestock (Awassa University), anti-erosion measures and management of natural resources (local authorities)."

4.2.9 Consistent and Objective Monitoring and Evaluation

Firstly, the projects have gone through different kinds of evaluation (external and internal) in 60% of projects. However, the MFA has evaluated 33% of projects; the implementing organisations have made internal evaluation in 27% of projects (75% of them was made by academic sector). Academic sector has been profiting from students' interest in field evaluations. Other than Czech donor has made evaluation just in 7% of projects (in Ethiopia). On the contrary, there were not any external evaluations financed and specified by implementing organisation. The results of all project evaluation organised by the MFA have been afterwards presented directly to the project leader during the session at the MFA.

To do an internal and external monitoring, there is a necessity to have a baseline data. Most of the respondents have an access to baseline data. The implementing organisations are forced to usually find baseline data on their own (64% of projects), especially the academic sector that covers 63% of those projects. Just in 7% of projects, the implementing organisations have obtained some baseline data from the CzDA. The same level is observed for both, projects that have not any baseline data and projects that enter baseline data collection to external experts (NGDO).

Firstly, we assume the internal monitoring. The implementing organisation monitors a project differently (unsystematically or systematically with stated indicators). The state sector monitors a project systematically and collects data according to indicators. The NGDOs and academic sector have used systematic approach with stated indicators in 50% of projects. On the contrary, private sector has made only unsystematic monitoring. In conclusion, unsystematic monitoring prevails (53% of projects).

Secondly, the development specialists from embassies or representatives of CzDA usually make external monitoring in the field once a year (see Table 7). We can see that there was not a field monitoring hold in Afghanistan. The CzDA provides external monitoring reports to implementing organisations more often compared to the previously operating Ministry of Agriculture but still rarely (see Table 7).

Table 7. Monitoring of agricultural projects according to type of donor and country

	Country	CzDA	MA
How often did the CzDA/ development specialist from embassies do a monitoring? 1 - never, 2 - once a year, 3 - twice a year	Afghanistan	1	
	Angola		2
	Ethiopia	3	3
	Georgia	2	
	Moldova	3	
	Mongolia	2.5	
	Kyrgyz Republic		1
	Zambia	2	
	Bosnia and Herzegovina	2	
	Socotra	2	
	AVERAGE	**2.2**	**2.0**
Have you received results from monitoring? 1- never, 2 - yes but not after each monitoring phase, 3 - after each monitoring phase	**AVERAGE**	**1.7**	**1.5**

The respondents have also evaluated the quality of people responsible for external project's monitoring. There was a variety of people responsible for external monitoring (development specialists from embassies / representatives of CzDA / representatives of MA). We observe that people responsible for monitoring are usually skilled in monitoring but not in agriculture (40% of projects). People with knowledge in both, agriculture and monitoring are included in 30% of projects. In 20% of projects, people have usually knowledge in agriculture but not in monitoring. Just in 10% of projects, people responsible for monitoring have not been experienced in either, monitoring and agriculture. About half of monitors speak local language (7% of them very well).

> CASE STUDY (private sector)
>
> "There is a need to monitor the functioning of the insemination centre regularly after the project termination. If not, the insemination centre looses importance due to low motivation of civil servants to promote insemination in area (low wages, profit from distribution of sperm is going directly to the government, etc.). The private company established a new company in Zambia. Nowadays, they monitor and visit the insemination centre app. twice a year."

> CASE STUDY (academic sector)
>
> "CzDA or development specialist from embassies monitored projects twice a year. Sometimes there was an expert on agriculture, sometimes not. When not, the monitoring was not so efficient."

5 DISCUSSION

In the research we analysed Czech ODA to agriculture since 2008 (the year of transformation of the whole system) and the presence of the most important preconditions of the sustainability of projects based on criteria issued by IFAD.

For the first objective, we focused on 60 bilateral agricultural projects in order to extract basic descriptive statistics. On international level, the ODA to agriculture has been increasing in terms of financial resources since 2007 (OECD, 2015a). Even though the whole Czech bilateral ODA has decreased since 2008 (MFA, 2015a), the Czech ODA to agriculture has followed the growing international trend. During the same period the Czech ODA to agriculture has allocated most of the resources into the programme countries, especially to Ethiopia (22% of finances). On that basis the Czech Republic has followed recommendation of *Special Review of the Czech Republic,* executed by DAC OECD (2007), which recommends reducing the number of countries and defining clear priorities.

In terms of focus on specific activities and possible components of international agricultural projects we can observe some differences between Czech projects and global trends. While the international ODA to agriculture has been mainly used for supporting integrated farm development and policy and administrative management (OECD, 2015a), Czech projects have been predominantly involved in non-formal agricultural education and supply of machinery and equipment. These trends correspond rather with paradigms and types of agricultural development aid promoted by traditional donors in the 60s and 70s of the 20th century (Eicher and Staatz, 1998; CIDA, 2003; Arnold at al., 2004), and indicate rather elementary approaches of the Czech ODA in terms of experience and know-how of development organization involved in agriculture. At the same time, we agree with Kral at al. (2013) who concludes that CEE countries promote especially soft projects due to less generous aid budgets compared to traditional Western donors.

Nowadays, international agricultural development has been moving from projects to holistic inter-linked programmes for rural development (CIDA, 2003; World Bank, 2005; Farming First, 2014). Together with international organizations (for example the OECD, 2007) Czech experts also recommend shifting from current small, short and

isolated projects to the bigger ones that fit to programmes and sectoral strategies (see for example Svoboda, 2015). Despite this trend, we can consider the Czech projects to agriculture as still rather small-scale (with average budget 9,143,594 CZK per whole project), fragmented into various projects and financial tools (61% grant, 31% public procurements, 8% budgetary measures) and with insufficient length for implementation considering the biological and cyclical nature of agriculture (average length of implementation phase is 2.9 years, which usually covers only two agricultural seasons). Even though the CzDA has created pilot agricultural sectoral strategy for Ethiopia in 2015, for other programme countries no systematic strategy has been developed yet.

Czech ODA to agriculture involves four different legal groups of development organisations - NGDOs (55% of intervention), academic sector (33% of intervention), private sector (17% of intervention) and state institutions (10% of intervention). The participation of NGDOs increased from less than 30% of projects to more than 40% of projects since 2008. The increasing share of NGDOs in ODA has been a global trend, which for example Beddington (2008) and Makoba (2002) confirm. Beddington (2008) also highlights that bigger Northern NGDOs are more successful in facing the bureaucracy demand from donor. Over recent years, several Czech NGDOs also built stronger networks of missions and local partners in target countries and they are better suited (in terms of logistic, knowledge of local environment, legal registration and administration issues, etc.) for projects implemented directly in rural areas with local communities. Their technical capacity also increased significantly, and they systematically built their agricultural expertise by hiring internal agricultural specialists or by developing stable network of external consultants. However, only few bigger Czech NGDOs follow this trend. We can also observe that the Czech ODA to agriculture is from 38% of all projects implemented by one NGDO only.

According to Krylová and Opršal (2013), the role of academic sector is more and more perceived as a source of knowledge, data collection methodology, and support to companies, NGDOs and state sector. Nevertheless, in the Czech ODA to agriculture academic sector is considered rather as a fully implementing organisation (85% of projects) than a subcontractor to other sectors (15% of projects).

Furthermore, Kral at al. (2013) observes that Czech, Slovak and Slovenian private sector is more involved in ODA in comparison to the rest of the CEE countries, where

NGDOs prevail. Several Czech NGDOs scholars (see for example Krylová and Opršal, 2013) even claim that the ODA begins to be a tool for pursuing primarily economic interests again, rather than meeting the needs of the partner countries. Also in agricultural sector, the CzDA is aware of differences in agricultural systems in the Czech Republic (high-productivity - large scale farming) and Czech ODA countries (small-holder farming) that limit the export potential of Czech equipment and know how abroad. However, there is a group of Czech companies with stable and systematic participation in tenders of ODA to agriculture. Their expertise and technologies, partially adjusted to local conditions, were repeatedly successfully implemented in several target countries.

One of the biggest concerns of the Czech ODA (presented in Körner and Píbilová, 2013) is that around 38% of projects are rather unsustainable; in agriculture it is even worse (about 60% of projects). Thus, in our second objective we tried to shed some light on the question: How do Czech organisations stand in terms of preconditions of sustainability based on IFAD criteria for agricultural interventions? In this part we are fully aware of the low number of our respondents and, therefore, lower representativeness of our sample, especially in case of private sector and state institutions. Nevertheless, in spite of the results being rather indicative, we can make some interesting conclusions.

According to Aref (2011) and IFAD (2009), the community participation enables sustainability through proper definition of local needs, empowerment and involvement of target groups during the project implementation. Participation can be implemented basically in all stages of PCM. Czech implementing organisations involve local communities during the implementation phase (93% of projects) but also in formulation (80% of projects). Only private sector includes local community rarely. But this is given by the nature of projects, where the main target groups are usually public servants and state or local authorities. In the case of companies, the sustainability is even more compromised by the fact highlighted for example by Pillay (2004) who confirms that there is low motivation of public servants to participate on projects due to their reduced salaries, high turnover and non-functioning government institutions in general. That is also the classical reason why Czech private sector is not so willing to continue in following activities after project termination. We also found out that the CzDA and

development specialists from Czech embassies do not include local communities into monitoring (except for one project in Zambia) even though some development professionals and organizations (see for example ROPPA, 2008) stress the importance of participatory monitoring in development projects.

If we look at how women and gender issues are tackled in the Czech ODA to agriculture, we see that organizations do not take the question of gender into consideration in 33% of projects (all projects implemented by private sector, 33% by NGDOs and 17% by academic sector), even though gender issues are also on the forefront of current development discourse (Todaro, 2012; FAO, 2011; Farming First, 2014; SDC, 2010).

Furthermore, several authors (Gorjestani, 2000; Warren at al., 1988) and donors (FAO, 2009) deem important local knowledge in development interventions. The Czech academic sector and NGDOs involve local knowledge most often in comparison with the two other sectors. Another recommendation is targeted at the sound knowledge of local environment and proper project adjustment to social, economic and political environment of target country (IFAD, 2009; CIDA, 2003; Braun at al., 2011). In this regard, the Czech implementing organisations make at least one type of full preliminary study in 80% of projects (simple problem and need analysis in 92% of them).

An intense debate on sustainability also points out the importance of effective, transparent and equal partnership in development activities (IFAD, 2009; SDC 2010; Brillion 2013). However, Czech implementing organisations in general usually involve partners as consultants rather than those who can decide and make a real change. We also observed that a partnership was unsuccessful in few cases, especially due to insufficient knowledge of needs, motivations and financial capacities of partner. Moreover, Czech Republic does not allow for projects' consortia amongst Czech partners except public procurements where it is still legally complicated.

While international experts (Antonaci at al., 2013; Brillion, 2013; IFAD, 2009) and also Czech authors (Körner and Píbilová, 2013) recommend incorporation of sound risk analysis together with risk management strategy, the Czech ODA to agriculture takes it into consideration only in 43% of projects. Several authors (Engels, 2010; Körner and Píbilová 2013; CzDA 2013a) also draw attention to a good exit strategy on termination

of development intervention. However, during our research we learned that the Czech organisations design the exit strategy only in 47% of projects.

Another crucial issue for sustainability, which for example IFAD (2009) and Hardeker (1997) put forward, is that agricultural projects demand lengthy planning and implementation in order to properly adjust to local needs and environment. However, there is no consensus on how long the projects should be (Hardeker, 1997). But, Czech experts see the length of projects as insufficient for sustaining of the results.

In the context of climate change, green growth together with management of natural resources has become a tool for ensuring more resilient livelihoods (IFAD 2009; OECD, 2012; Howden at al., 2007; Farming First, 2014). The Czech ODA to agriculture takes environmental issues into consideration only in 53% of projects. The management of natural resources was considered only in 33% of projects.

Another important criteria for sustainability borrowed from IFAD (2009) consider monitoring as a critical element. In this line, Brillion (2013) starts with necessity to have quality baseline data for consequent monitoring of change. The Czech organisations collect baseline data just in 78% of projects. Another classical limit of good monitoring is that the Czech organisations have not ever had an access to any written feedback from external monitoring visits made by the CzDA or development specialists from embassies in 50% of their projects. There is a priority country of Czech ODA, which lacks external field monitoring completely (Afghanistan). Furthermore the implementing organisations do not usually have sufficient capacity to do a systematic internal monitoring (47% of projects).

Due to the changing local environment, the development experts (Körner and Píbilová, 2013; IFAD, 2009; SDC 2010) and Czech development organisations themselves put considerable pressure on donors to be flexible in terms of project adjustment during the implementation phase. We observed that the CzDA has been answering the requests for changes very flexibly, especially in case of grants and budgetary measures. Public procurements are less flexible.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The Czech Republic has involved agricultural sector as a priority in all "programme countries" of the Czech ODA since 2010. Czech development organisations have already implemented 60 bilateral agricultural projects. In terms of number of projects, the Czech ODA to agriculture goes especially to Ethiopia, Moldova and Mongolia.

Usually Czech agricultural project supports mainly non-formal education and import of machinery and equipment, which makes the Czech ODA rather old-fashioned compared to more advanced Western donors. Besides, Czech machinery and equipment does not seem to be fully appropriate for some Czech ODA target countries that are characterised by small-holder farming and extremely low productivity. But still, besides non-formal education and transfer of technology, the Czech ODA promotes agricultural services in added value and marketing and capacity building of public authorities.

The Czech agricultural ODA is dominated by one NGDO that has been involved in 38% of projects since 2008. Its role is still increasing. Academic sector is the second most active, followed by private sector and public (state) institutions. The Czech ODA to agriculture mixes grants, public tenders and budgetary measures as a tool for project financing.

The crucial challenge is that the Czech agricultural projects are facing rather low sustainability in 60% of cases. Why is it so? On the basis of IFAD evaluation criteria, we observed that the sustainability of the Czech ODA to agriculture is limited especially by insufficient time of the PCM and project implementation period. Many projects also operate with rather small budgets, where significant amount is invested in administration of number of small uncoordinated projects managed by several organizations in one area. Another imperfection is a low level of community participation especially during monitoring phase, but sometimes also during project formulation and in some cases even implementation. Czech organizations also face perceived low quality of local partners who sometimes terminate partnership during project implementation. From the point of view of partnerships among Czech development organizations, institutions and companies, the problem is that the Czech legal system does not allow for projects' consortia of several partners. Only in public

procurements there are exceptions, but they are legally complicated and hardly ever advantageous for partners involved.

Other limits are associated with monitoring. The CzDA or development specialists and embassies provide typically external monitoring, but the quality of monitoring is limited by a lack of agricultural sectoral strategies, which could provide some framework for monitoring, non-existent baseline data and by the fact that monitors usually do not provide monitoring reports back to the monitored organizations. Besides the external monitoring, the implementing organisations do not usually have sufficient capacity to do systematic internal monitoring in the field.

Currently, the Czech Republic ODA and the whole system are under second review by the OECD/DAC. In addition, there is an ongoing preparation of a new strategy for the upcoming period starting from 2018 that promises more complex and better designed ODA to agriculture seeking holistic and strategic approach for rural development. There are also plans for the CzDA capacity extension regarding the number of employees and potential experts directly in the selected target countries. The CzDA will be able to build on this new experience from target countries (establishment of reliable partners' database, better understanding of local social, political and economic environment, support of relations between Czech projects and other international donors) and increase the capacity for monitoring. All these measures indicate the right steps on the way toward higher sustainability of Czech bilateral ODA to agriculture.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APENDIX I: Criteria and indicators for the first objective (60 projects)

Criteria	Indicators	
1.1 Type of project	1.1.1 Agricultural policy and administrative management (31110)	Agricultural sector policy, planning and programmes, aid to agricultural ministries, Institution capacity building and advice, unspecified agriculture
	1.1.2 Agricultural development (31120)	Integrated projects, farm development
	1.1.3 Land resources (31130)	Including soil degradation control; soil improvement; drainage of water logged areas; soil desalination; agricultural land surveys; land reclamation; erosion control, desertification control.
	1.1.4 Water resources (31140)	Irrigation, reservoirs, hydraulic structures, ground water exploitation for agricultural use.
	1.1.5 Agricultural inputs (31150)	Seeds
		Fertilizers
		Machinery/equipment
	1.1.6 Agrarian reform (31164)	Including agricultural sector adjustment
	1.1.7 Food Crop production (31161)	Including grains (wheat, rice, barley, maize, rye, oats, millet, sorghum); horticulture; vegetables; fruit and berries; other annual and perennial crops. [Use code 32161 for agro-industries.]
	1.1.8 Industrial crops / export crops (31162)	Including sugar; coffee, cocoa, tea; oil seeds, nuts, kernels; fibre crops; tobacco; rubber. [Use code 32161 for agro-industries.]
	1.1.9 Livestock (31163)	Animal husbandry, animal feed aid
	1.1.10 Agricultural alternative development (31165)	Projects to reduce illicit drug cultivation through other agricultural marketing and production opportunities (see code 43050 for non-agricultural alternative development).
	1.1.11 Agricultural extension (31166)	Non formal training in agriculture
	1.1.12 Agricultural education/training (31181)	no definition
	1.1.13 Research (31182)	Plant breeding, physiology, genetic resources, ecology, taxonomy, disease control, agricultural bio-technology; including livestock research (animal health, breeding and genetics, nutrition, physiology).
	1.1.14 Agricultural services (31191)	Marketing policies and organisation(added value)
		Storage and transportation
		creation of strategic reserves
	1.1.15 Financial services (31193)	Financial intermediaries for the agricultural sector including credit schemes; crop insurance
	1.1.16 Livestock/veterinary services (31195)	Animal health and management, genetic resources, feed resources

	1.1.17 Plant and post-harvest protection (31192)	Including integrated plant protection, biological plant protection activities, supply and management of agrochemicals, supply of pesticides, plant protection policy and legislation
	1.1.18 Agricultural co-operatives (31194)	Co-operative approaches (Including farmers' organisation)
1.2 Time period of project	1.2.1 number of years	1
		2
		3
		4
	1.2.2 Was there any similar Czech project before?	partly
		completely
		No
1.3 Financing of project (whole period)	1.3.1 Type of financial tool	public procurement
		grant
		budgetary measures
	1.3.2 Size of budget of project (intervals in million CZK)	(0.80 - 5.095>
		(5.095 - 9.391>
		(9.391 - 13.686 >
		(13.686 - 17.982>
		(17.982 - 22.277>
		(22.277 - 26.573>
		(26.573 - 30.868>
1.4 Target country	1.4.1 Target countries according to GDP/capita	Low-income countries ($ 1,045 or less)
		Lower-middle-income economies ($1,046 to $4,125)
		Upper-middle-income economies ($4,126 to $12,735
	1.4.2 Country	write
1.5 Implementing organisation	1.5.1 Type of implementing organisation	NGDOs
		Private sector
		Academic sector
		State institutions

APPENDIX II: Criteria and indicators for the second objectives (15 projects)

Criteria	Indicators	
2.1 Effective linkages between project components	2.1.1 Number of project's components (code 311 OECD/DAC)	1
		2
		3
		4
		5
		6 and more
	2.1.2 Non agricultural components	capacity building
		awareness raising
		advocacy
		building of infrastructure
		off-farm activities
	2.1.3 Market access	does not include access on market
		supports access on market marginally
		access of famers on market is clearly included in project (trainings)
		main goal of project (mapping of local markets, market access strategy, information systems)
	2.1.4 Diversification of production	No
		Yes, extension of crop production or livestock
2.2 Community participation	2.2.1 Type of local community	people with non-agricultural activities
		local municipalities, elites
		farmers
		CBOs
		farmers
	2.2.2 Level of participation of local communities during IDENTIFICATION	no participation
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.2.3 Level of participation of local communities during FORMULATION	no participation
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.2.4 Level of participation of local communities during IMPLEMENTATION	no participation
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.2.5 Level of participation of local communities during	no participation
		informing

EXTERNAL MONITORING	consultation
	co-deciding
	emancipation
2.2.6 Did you take gender into consideration	no
	yes, we try to involve at least some women
	yes, we worked with approximately 50-50 division
	Yes, project was aimed primarily at women
2.2.7 Type of participation methods for people with non-agricultural activities	Workshop
	lecture
	consulting
	locals people with non-agricultural activities learn implementing organisation
	demonstration field
	manual labour
2.2.8 How many of them did you involved	1-30
	31-70
	70 and more
2.2.9 Type of participation methods for local municipalities	Workshop
	lecture
	consulting
	local municipalities learn implementing organisation
	demonstration field
	manual labour
2.2.10 How many of them did you involved	1-30
	31-70
	70 an more
2.2.11 Role of farmers during implementation phase	Workshop
	lecture
	consulting
	farmers learn implementing organisation
	demonstration field
	manual labour
2.2.12 How many of them did you involved	1-30
	31-70
	70 and more
2.2.13 Type of participation methods for local CBOs	Workshop
	lecture
	consulting
	locals CBOs learn implementing organisation
	demonstration field
	manual labour
2.2.14 Role of local CBOs during implementation phase	1-2
	3-5
	6 and more
2.2.15 Type of participation	Workshop

	methods for experts	lecture
		consulting
		locals are experts learn implementing organisation
		demonstration field
		manual labour
	2.2.16 How many of them did you involved?	1-4
		5-10
		11 and more
2.3 Flexible design	2.3.1 Did you do modification during project implementation?	YES
		NO
	2.3.2 Did donor allow you to make changes	no, he did not
		yes, some of them
		yes, most of them
		yes, all of them
	2.3.3 Reasons for modification	write
	2.3.4 Type of modification	goals
		activities
		results
		budget
		indicators
		partners
	2.3.5 Did you want to extend implementation period?	yes, we officially demanded
		yes, but we did not officially demanded
		no
	2.3.6 Was it possible?	yes, according to our requirements
		yes, partly
		no
2.4 Institutional analysis	2.4.1 Institutional analysis before project implementation	no analysis
		intuitive institutional analysis
		adequate mapping of local actors and their interests
		quality mapping of local actors, their interests and potential
		systematic mapping of local actors, their interest, potential and interaction
	2.4.2 Number of partners from target country	1
		2
		3
		4
		5
		6 and more
	2.4.3 Type of local partners	central government
		local government
		NGOs
		academic sector

		private sector
	2.4.4 Level of partner involvement CENTRAL GOVERNMENT	no involvement
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.4.5 Level of partner involvement LOCAL GOVERNMENT	no involvement
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.4.6 Level of partner involvement NGOs	no involvement
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.4.7 Level of partner involvement ACADEMIC SECTOR	no involvement
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
	2.4.8 Level of partner involvement PRIVATE SECTOR	no involvement
		informing
		consultation
		co-deciding
		emancipation
2.5 Length of PCM	2.5.1 FORMULATION	highly insufficient
		rather insufficient
		sufficient
		rather sufficient
		highly sufficient
	2.5.2 IMPLEMENTATION (Was length of implementation phase sufficient for sustainability of project?)	highly insufficient
		rather insufficient
		sufficient
		rather sufficient
		highly sufficient
2.6 Risk assessment	2.6.1 Risk analysis	no risk analysis
		risk analysis was carried out, without preparing risk management strategy
		Risk analysis was done, risk management strategy created
	2.6.2 What risks did appear during implementation period?	write
	2.6.3 What type of risks did appear?	none of the supposed risk did not appear
		risks that we expected, we were able to respond to them
		risks that we expected, but we were not able

		to respond to them
		risks that we did not expected, we were able to respond to them
		risks that we did not expected, we were not able to respond to them
	2.6.4 Have you developed exit strategy?	No, we have not
		Yes, but we did not consult it with partners
		Yes, we consulted it with partners
	2.6.5 What did you consult with partners?	agreement on liability
		dissemination strategy of consequential benefits
		subsequent funding sources
		time schedule
2.7 Consideration of environmental appropriateness	2.7.1 What type of environment appropriateness did you use?	write
	2.7.2 Was project focusing on work with environment?	No focus on environment
		Partly focused on environment
		Environment was main point of project
	2.7.3 Set up of natural resource management	No
		Yes, but it was not so useful, as we expected
		Yes, locals learned to use it
2.8 Building on existing assets and knowledge	2.8.1 Field study before project implementation	No analysis was performed
		we performed Livelihood analysis
		we performed Agrarian diagnosis
		we performed problem and needs analysis
		other (write)
	2.8.2 Consideration of local tradition and techniques in project	project focused only on the transfer of know-how from outside
		project worked with local farming techniques and traditions marginally
		local traditions and agricultural techniques are incorporated into project
		the project was built based on local traditional agricultural practices
	2.8.3 Source of innovation	know-how from external Czech experts
		international know-how, e.g. research centres, foreign experts
		know-how coming from target country
		know-how of the implementing organisation
	2.8.4 What techniques and traditions did you take into account?	write
	2.8.5 What know-how did you use?	know-how of Czech external expert
		International know-how
		know-how from target country
		know-how of implementing organisation

	2.8.6 What was the contribution of Czech external experts?	write
	2.8.7 What was the contribution of International know-how?	write
	2.8.8 What was the contribution of know-how from target country?	write
	2.8.9 What was the contribution of implementing organisation know-how?	write
2.9 Consistent and objective monitoring and evaluation	2.9.1 Was the evaluation held?	any evaluation was made
		external evaluation entered and financed by MFA
		external evaluation entered and financed by implementing organisation
		external evaluation entered by implementing organisation and financed by other than Czech donor
		internal evaluation financed by implementing organisation
	2.9.2 Type of evaluation	mid-term
		final
		ex-post
	2.9.3 Have you received results of external evaluation?	No
		Yes, within communication networks
		Yes, presentation with discussion
	2.9.4 Internal monitoring	no monitoring
		unsystematic monitoring
		systematic monitoring
	2.9.5 Internal monitoring responsibilities	Min. one person was responsible for internal monitoring in project design
		Any person responsible for internal monitoring of in project design
	2.9.6 How often did CzDA/development specialist from embassies/MA monitoring in terrain?	never
		once a year
		two times a year
		three and more times a year
	2.9.7 How do you evaluate external monitoring (CzDA/ development specialist from embassies)	person did not have the competence to monitor
		person was experienced in monitoring but not in agriculture
		person was experienced in agriculture but not in monitoring
		person was experienced in monitoring of agricultural projects

	2.9.8 Have you received document from external monitoring?	No
		Yes, but not each time
		Yes, after each monitoring
	2.9.9 Did you have baseline data?	Yes, we obtained data from CzDA
		Yes, we ensured baseline data ourselves
		Yes, we entered analysis to external expert or organisation
		No