

Result Chains to Assess the Impact of Policy Coherence for Development in Selected Partner Countries

1. Introduction and Objectives of this Paper

In today's world, the impact of a country's policies is often felt far beyond its borders. Especially policies of developed countries and emerging economies in areas such as trade, finance, agriculture, taxes, investment, migration and climate change, can have a global reach depending on their political/economic weight and influence. In addition to further improving the effectiveness of their aid policies during the past decades, the OECD and the EU have gained a greater understanding of the importance of development-friendly non-aid policies for development. During the last decade, most OECD countries included the pursuit of Policy Coherence for Development (PCD) in their overall development cooperation strategies. In May 2012, the EU has adopted strong Council conclusions¹ on improving PCD. The OECD also considers that PCD should go beyond minimizing adverse impact of their public policies on developing countries (do no harm by avoiding inconsistencies), and should also entail the systematic application of mutually reinforcing policies across government departments for development (i.e. creating synergies). In its recently adopted Development Strategy², the OECD seeks to deepen its work on PCD through evidence-based analysis of the costs of incoherent policies and the benefits of coherent policies, including the design of robust indicators to monitor progress and assess the impact of diverse policies on development.

In response to a request from the Netherlands' Parliament, the Minister for Development Cooperation committed to make an attempt to assess the impact of Dutch/EU non-aid policies on Netherlands' partner countries. In view of the inherent complexity of such an exercise and the lack of adequate research and a tested methodology, the Netherlands' Minister for Development Cooperation decided to first conduct a pilot in three partner countries: Ghana, Mali and Bangladesh. By selecting a landlocked least developed country in Africa, a strongly growing lower middle income country in Africa and a least developed but emerging country in Asia, the hope was expressed to have a balanced cross-section of developing countries that would allow to draw initial conclusions and to decide whether or not to expand the pilot in the future. For obvious reasons the pilot was suspended for Mali. Compared to evaluating the outcomes of ODA-expenditures, the assessment of the impact of PCD policies turns out to be much more complicated. It raises many methodological questions and involves constructing complex result chains that contain inherent uncertainty about the precise role of developed countries in determining development outcomes in individual developing countries. A developing country's domestic policies will probably affect its own people and firms at least as much as EU/OECD countries' policies and multilateral disciplines and agreements.

¹ Council conclusions on Policy Coherence for Development, FOREIGN AFFAIRS Council meeting, Brussels, 14 May 2012, http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/EN/foraff/130248.pdf

² Paragraph 17 of the OECD Strategy on Development, <http://www.oecd.org/development/50452316.pdf>

The objective of the Dutch pilot is to produce - as a first pragmatic step - so called *coherence reports* that chart the main PCD issues between the two partner countries. These reports do not only cover Dutch policies; for various non-aid policy variables, the impact of EU PCD policies is also considered. Reason is the exclusive competence of the EU for important non-aid policies such as trade and agriculture. The Netherlands is no longer competent in those areas but does play its role as one of the 27 EU Member States in formulating the EU policies. In addition, impacts of the developing country and other OECD countries and/or multilateral disciplines are incorporated as much as possible. Through gathering data and testing evidence-based methods, it is hoped to gain more experience in PCD impact assessments at the level of individual developing countries. Our incremental approach will hopefully trigger other exploratory studies and enhance further insight whether our assumptions on (in)coherence and plausible linkages (intervention logics) in the PCD result chains can be confirmed at the level of development outcomes. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs hopes that this pilot contributes to furthering the PCD cycle in the EU and will stimulate the OECD and others to undertake pilot studies in this field. Our ultimate goal is to better inform (new) policy making by the Netherlands and the EU. Furthermore, we hope that the pilot will contribute to establishing a policy feedback mechanism in which objectives and indicators for PCD policies are continuously improved by assessing their impacts on developing countries in practice. This is a task that cannot be outsourced. In due course, such assessments should also become part of an ongoing policy dialogue of the Netherlands and the EU with partner countries.

The objective of this paper is to explain the conceptual and methodological approach that is developed to guide the PCD impact research in the two partner countries in this pilot. This paper is part of the letter of the Minister for Foreign Trade and Development Cooperation to the Netherlands' Parliament on the coherence pilot. Paragraph 2 starts with a conceptualization of PCD, followed by a brief overview in paragraph 3 of the state of play on how to measure PCD. Paragraph 4 describes the basic analytical framework of the approach in the pilot. Paragraph 5 explains how PCD result chains can be constructed and what challenges and obstacles arise. It underlines the need for better PCD goals and appropriate indicators as the starting point for an impact assessment and an effective PCD policy cycle based on the 3 building blocks identified by the OECD³. Paragraph 6 describes the logical framework approach developed for the two partner countries in four of the five PCD priority areas of the EU. In Annex 1 the four result chains for the two partner countries are elaborated including a detailed description of the sources used. The country statistical annexes for Bangladesh and Ghana contain the data collected for the result chains and form also part of the report to the Parliament.

³ The OECD developed recommendations for good PCD practices based on a three-phase cycle, with each phase supported by a building block: 1. Political commitment and policy statements; 2. Policy coordination mechanisms; 3. Systems for monitoring, analysis and reporting, OECD, 29 April 2010, C(2010)41, <https://community.oecd.org/docs/DOC-32778>.

2. Conceptualizing PCD

First, we conceptualize PCD in terms of how non-aid policies could be made more coherent with development objectives and how these policies - both individually and collectively - affect development outcomes in developing countries. Based on the EU's definition of PCD as developed by the 2005 EU Consensus on Development⁴ and incorporated in Article 208 of the EU Lisbon Treaty and recent Foreign Affairs Council Conclusions, ECDPM⁵ outlines five levels at which coherence can be promoted:

1. **Internal coherence.** Coherence in the policy field itself, which should achieve consistency between its objectives and modalities. In essence this is a neutral concept and not policy coherence for development (PCD).
2. **Intra-governmental coherence.** Consistency across all of the policies and actions of an OECD country in terms of their contributions to development.
3. **Inter-governmental coherence.** Policies and actions should be consistent across OECD countries in terms of their contributions to development, in order to prevent one country from unnecessarily interfering with, or failing to reinforce, the other countries.
4. **Multilateral coherence.** Coherence of the policies and actions of bilateral donors and multilateral organizations while ensuring that disciplines negotiated in multilateral organizations contribute to development objectives.
5. **Developing country coherence.** Developing countries should also be encouraged to adopt policies that allow them to take full advantage of the international environment to enhance their development.

This paper and the result chains will try to incorporate all levels of PCD where possible but will focus on the ex post, implementation phase of PCD policies, i.e. on their actual effects in individual developing countries. Our goal is to try to determine in specific policy areas, if possible, whether a positive, neutral or negative contribution of the policies of the Netherlands/EU towards development in a partner country can be found. This paper does not address directly the issue of how to achieve greater ex ante coherence in the policy formulation phase other than the desire to enhance feedback mechanisms in evidence-based policy formulation.

3. Measuring Policy Coherence for Development (PCD)

The OECD has delineated a two-pronged approach for PCD: i. to avoid adverse impacts on development in developing countries and ii. to exploit synergies across different policy areas (such as trade, agriculture, investment, environment, etc.) and development cooperation. In terms of monitoring and assessing PCD policies, the OECD Members' performance 'beyond aid' has been evaluated in the DAC Peer Review process since 2000. The DAC peer reviews, however, usually limited themselves to an exami-

⁴ The European Consensus on Development (2005), part 6

http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/european_consensus_2005_en.pdf

⁵ ECDPM, Learn to Walk Before You Run, Review of Methodological Options for Evaluating Coherence in the Field of International Cooperation, Maastricht, May 2012, Discussion Paper 132, www.ECDPM.org

nation of a country's institutional efforts towards the promotion of PCD. The 2010 OECD Council Recommendations⁶ identified important lessons learned to foster "whole-of-government" approaches to policy making and assist in better integration of development issues in designing and implementing national policies. The importance of non-aid policies for development was again acknowledged in a broader circle at the 2011 fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan. The Busan Outcome Document⁷ 'Partnership for Effective Development' states: *"Over time, we will aim to increase independence from aid, always taking into account the consequences for the poorest people and countries. In this process, it is essential to examine the interdependence and coherence of all public policies – not just development policies..."*.

Unfortunately, there is little consensus until now among OECD members on how to improve PCD in terms of monitoring the implementation and assessing the impact of PCD and adjusting the content of specific non-aid policies based on the effects at developing country level in practice. Politically it seems to be easier to advocate PCD in general, abstract terms than to mobilize the political will and take specific steps necessary to tackle difficult policy challenges and dilemmas, especially when the interests of powerful vested interest groups are at stake. No country is an exception in this regard. Emerging countries seem also to regard PCD as a matter of responsibility for OECD countries only that does not concern them.

Notwithstanding progress in setting up PCD mechanisms and improving decision making procedures in OECD countries, there has also been little investment in efforts to monitor and assess the actual effects of developed country non-aid policies in individual developing countries. Not much concrete progress has been made thus far in measuring PCD, with the exception of the independent Commitment to Development Index (CDI)⁸. This index, however, mostly measures inputs and outputs of OECD countries' policies (i.e. 'commitment'). On the basis of their efforts, the CGD subsequently constructs a comparative ranking of OECD countries; it does not assess the impact of OECD policies in developing countries. According to ECDPM, most PCD-relevant impact research⁹ is either theory-based and lacks adequate empirical verification or is anecdotal and limited to a specific sector. Cases of manifest policy incoherence continue to be highlighted in the public debate by NGOs with a few notable exceptions at developing country level¹⁰. Non-aid policies will of course impact various developing countries in different ways. Since the actual impacts of policies at country level are largely unknown, the debate on enhancing PCD remains either rather abstract at the level of generalities or very specific at the micro-level of thematic case studies.

⁶ See footnote 3.

⁷ Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation, Outcome Document, paragraph 9, http://www.aideffectiveness.org/busanhlf4/images/stories/hlf4/OUTCOME_DOCUMENT_-_FINAL_EN.pdf.

⁸ Centre for Global Development, <http://www.cgdev.org/section/initiatives/active/cdi/>

⁹ See footnote 4.

¹⁰ EVS (2010), "Traders, Lumberjacks and Fortune Hunters: PCD in practice: the impact of European policies on development in Ghana", <http://www.fairpolitics.nl/doc/Ghana%20impact%20study%20final.pdf>

The OECD has started to build an evidence base through economic analysis of the effects of OECD country sector policies at developing country level. The OECD is also committed to build a stronger evidence base in cooperation with developing countries in order to quantify the costs of incoherent policies and the benefits of coherent ones. This could provide a means to mobilize political will for action to modify incoherent policies into a more development friendly direction though one should be cautious in raising expectations too high. The OECD has longstanding experience of excellent analysis in the area of agricultural policies with limited success in achieving real reform. However, stronger PCD is not something that OECD Members can outsource to the OECD Secretariat but something they have to undertake themselves primarily at domestic level as well as in their policy stances in multilateral negotiations.

The EU produces ex ante impact assessments for important new policy proposals¹¹ and has made modest investments in ex-post assessment in the 2009 EU report on PCD¹². While ex-post studies and ex ante impact assessments are valuable and get some mileage in policy formulation, their conclusions are often too vague and ambivalent and require better empirical verification. This can be illustrated by the ongoing controversy about the net effects of brain drain and remittances on development of partner developing countries or the impacts of the 2020 EU biofuel mandate and the 2012 Common Agricultural Policy reform on food security and sustainable development in developing countries.

In the 2012 Council conclusions on PCD¹³, the EU Foreign Affairs Council endorsed the need for a more evidence-based approach and a better assessment of the impact of EU non-aid policies at country level and the interaction with partner countries' policies. In these conclusions the EU Council also requested, as part of the forthcoming fourth (biennial) PCD report in 2013, to receive an independent assessment of progress in the area of PCD, including the qualitative and quantitative effects and an estimate of the costs of policy incoherence. The Commission was encouraged to build on the current PCD Work Program for 2010-2013 and to further improve monitoring, implementation and follow-up. The Council also recognized that relevant baselines, indicators and targets should be developed, including for measuring the impact of PCD. Thereby, the EU Council seems to recognize - implicitly - the rather abstract nature of its current PCD goals or the lack of them and the absence of proper indicators to measure progress in the current PCD Work Program¹⁴. Having this awareness is a first necessary step for change but not sufficient if it is not followed up with concrete action.

4. A Basic Framework for Assessing the Impact of PCD in Developing Countries

When attempting to assess the impact of EU and Netherlands policies on individual developing countries, the starting point of our analysis is how donor policies affect developing countries. In general, interactions between developed and developing

¹¹ http://ec.europa.eu/governance/impact/index_en.htm

¹² http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/SWP_PDF_2009_1137_EN.pdf, see chapter 4.

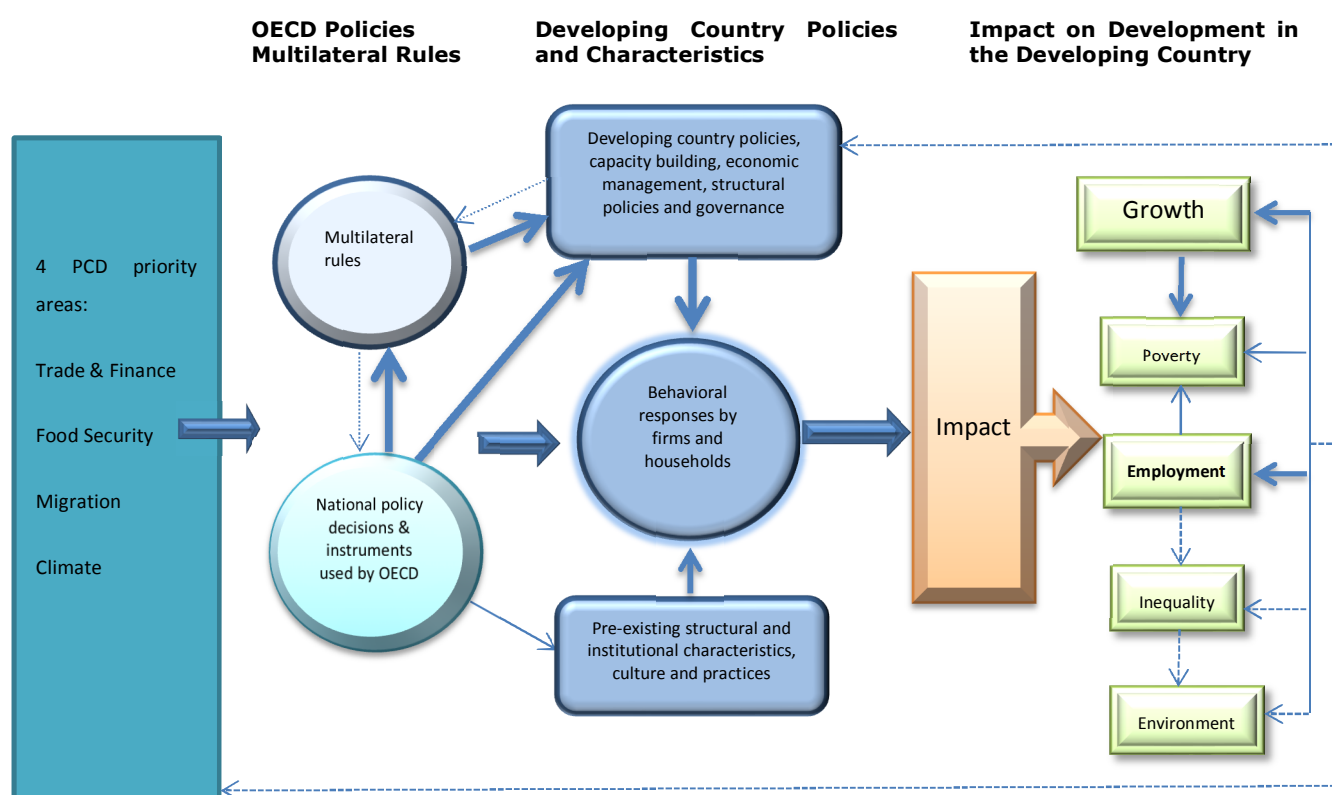
¹³ See footnote 1.

¹⁴ Commission Staff Working Paper SEC(2010) 421 of 21 April 2010, doc. 8910/10 ADD4.

countries take place through policy vectors or instruments such as trade in goods and services, capital mobility (ODA and Other Official Flows; private financial flows and foreign direct investment), labor mobility (migration and associated remittances), technology and knowledge transfer, climate change and environmental impacts, and security related actions.

In this pilot we limit ourselves to four broadly defined “policy areas” that consist of four of the five PCD priorities of the EU: 1. Trade & Finance; 2. Food Security; 3. Migration; 4. Climate Change & Environment.¹⁵ Within these domains, we distinguish various policy instruments. Figure 1 schematically models the interactions and impacts of OECD policies and decisions, multilateral rules and developing countries’ policies in these four policy areas.

Figure 1: Assessing the Impact of PCD at Country Level: the Basic Framework¹⁶



In the simplest conception of the model, which was developed by Dayton-Johnson and Katseli (2006), there are only two countries, i.e. the developed country and the developing partner country. Since this does not adequately resemble reality, this slightly adapted version also takes into account the influence of the PCD policies of other OECD

¹⁵ The fifth priority, security, is not covered by this pilot study,

http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/what/development-policies/policy-coherence/index_en.htm

¹⁶ Adapted from the Basic Framework used in Policy Brief no. 28, OECD Development Centre, Jeff Dayton-Johnson and Louka Katseli, figure 2, page 11, http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/development/oecd-development-centre-policy-briefs_20771681.

countries (including policies adopted at intergovernmental levels, e.g. in the EU) and relevant multilateral disciplines. According to this model, policy shocks occur in developed countries in the domains of trade & finance, food security, migration and climate change/environment. The developed countries' policy decisions and their policy stances in ongoing multilateral negotiations have an impact on the socio-economic environment in the developing country. For analytical purposes they can be compared to external shocks. It is assumed that OECD countries (still) have the decisive say in multilateral negotiations and in the subsequent policies applied and disciplines enforced by these multilateral institutions though the influence of emerging countries is clearly rising. In turn the multilateral institutions influence a developing country's policies and its available policy space.

Dayton-Johnson and Katseli (2006) envisage that external policy shocks trigger up to four possible types of adjustment in developing countries:

1. The first response is usually either a price and/or quantity adjustment. For example, a negative external shock consisting of a protectionist measure reducing market access in an OECD country or displacement on the world market through trade-distorting subsidies, could cause a fall in the demand for the developing country's exports and its export revenues. Domestically, this could result in a wage decrease (a price adjustment) or it could cause a reduction in output and an increase in unemployment (quantity adjustments). Another example of a price adjustment at macro-level could be a depreciation of the exchange rate and terms of trade. In the context of an individual developing country, which are mostly price-takers rather than price-setters, it is usually export quantities responding to external shocks rather than export prices.
2. A second type of adjustment might be a deteriorating quality of the exported goods while prices and quantities remain unchanged, at least in the short term.
3. A third type of adjustment could be a transition of economic activity from the formal to the informal sector. External shocks might raise the ratio of informal to formal-sector workers and hence impact working conditions and tax revenues negatively.
4. Finally, the external shock may change economic behavior and the technology used in production. For example, following the initial stages of labor emigration from rural areas, there may be an expansion in the labor force participation rate in the sending country or a mechanization of agricultural production to accommodate labor shortages that arise.

Dayton-Johnson and Katseli (2006) take account of the fact that the impact of these OECD-countries' policy decisions on economic agents in the developing country will be conditioned by a host of characteristics of the latter country. The developing country's economic and social policies will probably affect households' decisions at least as much as EU/OECD countries' policies and possible multilateral disciplines if not more. So will the pre-existing structural environment in the developing country consisting of the quantity and quality of its publicly provided infrastructure and its institutional environment. This includes the domestic political economy which will determine the quality of economic governance, the enforcement of property rights, the general rule of law and cultural practices and the management of the natural resources. All these characteristics

will condition economic decision making and behavior by firms and households in the developing country. Incentives and external shocks provided by OECD country policy making will be filtered or amplified through the developing country's policy and institutional environment. The net outcomes of all these decisions will be reflected in the developing country's rate of growth, the gross national income per head, the level of poverty, the level of employment and wages and the extent of inequality, the level of sustainable use of the natural resources, in other words the development impacts at country-level in the broadest sense.

Another issue that arises in the interaction between OECD policy instruments and outcomes in developing countries pertains to the question of causality and its direction. When trying to establish impact at developing country level, there is also a need to distinguish between gross and net outcomes, i.e. the societal outcomes as observed in the developing country respectively the effects that can be attributed or related to OECD PCD policy instruments, both individually in a partial analysis and collectively (estimating the possible synergy between instruments). Finding a correlation in cross-country studies is not the same as establishing causality. The direction of causality also needs to be established. For example, the question may be posed: does the provision of aid influence bilateral trade flows and the content of the developed country's trade policy, or does the causality run in the opposite direction, i.e. from trade to aid with (tied or implicitly tied) aid being allocated to those trading partners who support the developed country's trade policy goals?

There are various methodological options or perspectives available for assessing PCD, according to the research overview by ECDPM¹⁷: i. A side-effect perspective; ii. A horizontal perspective; iii. A trade-off perspective. In this pilot we intend to follow the 'horizontal objective' perspective in which a result chain focuses the analysis on the effects of the policies concerned on one overarching policy objective that is not 'owned' by a particular sector or Ministry, i.e. the 'horizontal objective' of development.

5. Constructing PCD Result Chains: Defining Objectives and Indicators

Starting from the partner country's angle

Estimating the PCD sensitivity of EU aid and non-aid policies is a complicated exercise fraught with methodological difficulties and facing considerable data availability problems. It is important for two reasons to start from a partner country's angle. First, seeking to understand the actual impact of EU non-aid policies allows policy makers to test their assumptions on PCD against the views of those at the receiving end. While awareness of possible policy incoherence often starts out as a subjective and impressionistic idea, one needs to gain a more thorough understanding of how policies play out in practice. Secondly, actors in the partner country, be it in government, civil society or donor embassies, should be in a better position to assess the local implications of (new) EU/Dutch policies and the interaction with domestic policies than policy makers in Europe or elsewhere from a distance.

¹⁷ See footnote 5.

In evaluating the impact of aid interventions at developing country level, it has become standard practice to construct so called result chains. These tools attempt to connect logically donors' inputs and outputs to outcomes in developing countries and thereby to establish their impact on development on the ground. In trying to construct PCD result chains, we face a number of challenges and obstacles such as:

1. Lack of properly defined PCD objectives and indicators in key Dutch and EU policies;
2. Various types of indicators and their implications;
3. Technical requirements that indicators and data should meet;
4. How to establish plausible linkages or even better causality between our PCD outputs and development outcomes in developing countries.

Lack of proper objectives and indicators

A major problem from the start is that many non-aid policies, including those of the Netherlands and the EU, lack explicitly defined objectives and appropriate indicators. This makes it difficult to measure progress in PCD. Baselines of the existing situation in partner countries before PCD policy changes are contemplated are mostly completely absent. In those non-aid policy areas where PCD objectives have been formulated they remained very broad and unspecified, such as 'increased development', 'more market access' or 'poverty reduction'. Once objectives are defined more smartly, realistic indicators are important to help measure progress or the lack thereof. For instance, development in partner countries could be confirmed if it is defined in terms of growth of Gross National Product (GNP) per capita. But perhaps this objective is achieved at the cost of rising inequality and with hardly any reduction in the absolute number of poor people. If poverty reduction is the main objective, then the income level at which it is deemed to have been achieved or the reduction in the number of absolute poor should be specified.

Ambiguity about the domestic policy objectives of non-aid policies, often for political reasons, also undermines the quality of the analysis of its impact. When adding PCD objectives, the analysis can be further obscured by vague or non-existent criteria for measuring progress in PCD. If it is not clear what the different non-aid policies seek to achieve in terms of development, then it will prove impossible to determine whether and to what extent these policies are coherent with each other in promoting positive development outcomes in developing countries.

Various types of policy indicators

In this context it is also helpful to be a bit more precise about the various types of indicators used to measure PCD and the implications of the choices that are made in this pilot. Keijzer et al (2012)¹⁸ identify three types of PCD indicators that are relevant: 1. Policy inputs; 2. Policy outputs; 3. Outcome indicators.

1. **Policy Inputs:** Policy input indicators can be useful when it is difficult to capture the output of a policy in a single indicator. Input indicators usually consist of the budget

¹⁸ Keijzer, N., King, M., Spierings, E., Matthews, A., 2012. [Measuring Policy Coherence for Development: Final Report](#). Study commissioned by The Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development. Maastricht: ECDPM.

expenditure in a particular policy area or country, with budget size acting as a proxy for effort. Examples include the volume of aid for trade (positive) or the level of trade-distorting subsidies (negative). Input indicators are easily measurable and comparable across OECD countries (if the data are collected) but fail to capture the effectiveness of such expenditures or their (in)coherence in meeting development goals in developing countries.

2. **Policy Outputs:** Policy output indicators try to capture concrete changes in efforts designed to make policy more 'development-friendly'. Such indicators are attractive because they are directly under the control of policy-makers who can be held accountable. Examples of a policy output are the level of the tariff rate or the overall trade-restrictiveness for agricultural imports from developing countries. The challenge is to select those output indicators that have a logical 'story' and that link the indicator to outcomes and success in development in the partner countries.
3. **Outcomes:** Outcome indicators are defined as socio-economic variables in developing countries such as income per capita or child malnutrition rates, as in the case of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). They measure real trends resulting from both policy and societal changes. Outcomes may, however, only be partly influenced by the evaluated OECD policy instruments and therefore not accurately measure the impact of their policy efforts. For example, OECD countries in close proximity to developing countries and sharing a language are likely to receive more labor immigrants, irrespective of the openness of their immigration policy. Some existing outcome targets do not include sub-targets for relevant processes that contribute to these outcomes, i.e. output targets. For example, a problem with MDG 1 is its lack of indicators that relate to relevant policy interventions to achieve halving poverty and hunger.

In addition to these three types, Keijzer et al (2012) analyze the possibility of developing **policy stance indicators**. This could be relevant in the phase of policy formulation and ongoing multilateral negotiations when the emphasis lies on policy stances. Policy stance indicators are useful in the case of ex-ante decision-making and to influence negotiations within multilateral organizations such as the WTO, IMF and World Bank and regional organizations such as the EU or in regional/bilateral negotiations where developing countries are involved such as Preferential Trade Agreements. When a process of multilateral/regional negotiations results in a compromise, the ensuing discipline does not of course reflect the negotiating positions of the participating states. The compromise may, however, reflect the balance of (economic) power between the negotiating countries. Inclusion of policy stance indicators in a PCD impact exercise can therefore be difficult because it may require – ex post – a comparison between the agreed outcome and the pre-negotiation positions of states which are not always transparent or easily available. Where relevant (e.g. in ongoing multilateral negotiations) and possible, an effort will be made in this pilot to include policy stances of the Netherlands and the EU in our result chains when describing the concerned policy instrument. The emphasis in this pilot will be on assessing outcomes and analyzing the influence of relevant policies. Collecting better data on policy inputs and analyzing them may also be needed to better interpret the outcomes found and to consider possible improvements through feedback mechanisms.

Requirements for appropriate indicators and data

PCD indicators should – ideally – not only be used to compare different OECD countries (in terms of a relative ranking) but should also be comparable over time for each country in order to be useful as a feedback mechanism. In constructing PCD result chains, the following characteristics of indicators and data are therefore important:

- Transparent data with sources, calculations and methods explained in detail;
- Comparable data to allow comparison between OECD countries;
- Replicable data to be able to construct time-series for other partner countries;
- Continuity of data sources which allows indicators to be strengthened over time.

Meeting all these requirements may be difficult in a possible future expansion of the country coverage of this pilot. A compromise may have to be struck between technical perfection and expansion of the number of developing countries since countries differ on available data, definitions and the extent of harmonization of certain indicators.

Plausible linkages or causality between PCD outputs and development outcomes

The main challenge in this pilot exercise or any PCD assessment is of course to construct causality or at least plausible linkages between the PCD policies observed at output level in the EU/Netherlands and the outcomes in developing countries. According to Alan Matthews¹⁹, a PCD impact assessment typically starts out as a partial analysis by taking an individual OECD country policy, for example its agricultural policy, and then evaluate its impact on a group of developing countries or an individual country. When policies are examined from the perspective of a developing country's objective such as its food security, then a range of OECD policies may become relevant, not only its agricultural policy in a narrow sense.

Relevant are also the ways OECD non-aid policies influence development outcomes, either directly or indirectly. One way the EU Common Agricultural Policy impacts food security in developing countries is through its effect on the level and instability of world market prices of food and agricultural products. By insulating its own farmers from those undesired effects through border protection and domestic support the policy shifts the burden of adjustment to unprotected and unsubsidized producers. Prices and export volumes will be also the channels through which other non-aid policies may have an impact. Matthews lists other non-agricultural policies that may influence food security in developing countries. They include policies in the areas of food safety, protectionist sanitary and phyto-sanitary (SPS) standards, trade, environment, fisheries, renewable energy, climate change, plant variety protection and research and innovation.

Confirming the collective impact of various EU/Dutch policy instruments and establishing causality in the result chains is a challenging task because of the inherent complexities within PCD. Matthews (2012) points out several reasons for this. First, trade-offs between development objectives within PCD may occur. For example, tensions exist between the goals of industrialization in developing countries (objectives: economic growth and structural transformation) and the reduction of carbon emissions worldwide (objective: reducing climate change), and between enhancing agricultural production and protecting biodiversity. Second, heterogeneity between and within developing

¹⁹ See Keijzer et al (2012), footnote 5.

countries creates both winners and losers in response to changes in developed countries' non-aid policies where often a distinction needs to be made between effects in the short and longer term. A good example is the erosion of their trade preferences that some of the poorest countries will suffer in the EU as a result from further multilateral reduction in tariff rates in the Doha round of the WTO. Third, coherent policies in OECD countries may still produce negative effects on development outcomes when developing country institutions and policies fail to deliver for their citizens or stakeholders.

Matthews (2012) proposes a Logical Framework Approach (LFA) as a tool to help analyze and manage these inherent complexities. The LFA is a long established intervention design methodology used by a range of major multilateral and bilateral donors that can be adapted for the purpose of assessing the impact of PCD. Result chains can help to clarify plausible linkages between policy instruments, their indicators and development outcomes, record and test underlying assumptions. They can also assist in identifying 'winners and losers' by using indicator scores (see further paragraph 6 and annex 1 for the two pilot countries).

An implied assumption throughout the logical framework is that if EU/Netherlands would improve their indicator scores on PCD inputs or outputs, improvements in development outcomes in partner countries will follow. In many cases, promoting integrated whole-of government policy-making is assumed to be beneficial for development but this result does not happen automatically. A solid diagnosis remains crucial. Linking potential indicators measuring policy coherence inputs/outputs to development outcomes through verifiable result chains and refining and updating these result chains over time will be crucial to improving PCD. Our data sources offer more insight in the changes in the selected indicators for OECD outputs and development outcomes in the pilot countries but it remains difficult to determine which policy instrument has caused what change on the ground. Collecting reliable and replicable data time-series that can underpin the result chains is nevertheless a valuable exercise in itself, even though it may not yet be possible to establish net outcomes and confirm causality and its direction in all cases. For this, a further deepening of our understanding of the underlying problems remains indispensable.

6. Defining a Logical Framework Approach for the Pilot Countries

A one-size-fits-all recipe to promoting PCD is inappropriate since outcomes in partner developing countries are often highly context-specific. This presents a challenge as non-aid OECD policies are not very explicit on their external dimensions, let alone that they differentiate between different (groups of) developing countries unless the intention is to discriminate certain countries as is the case with preferential trading agreements. The interplay between different policies and the relationships between policy objectives of both developed and developing countries are often country-specific. Result chains will have to take this into account since not all developing countries will be affected in the same way by EU/Dutch PCD instruments. Similarly, policies adopted by developing countries' governments themselves are likely to have a dominant influence on the impact that OECD policies may have on both different groups within those countries and over time.

Following the model approach as set out in the previous paragraphs, the result chains in this pilot are being built up as a logical framework (input, output, outcome and impact) while taking account of the local situation and data availability in the two countries. The logical framework is based upon answers to three general PCD questions, which can be descriptive or quantitative:

1. What are the objectives of the Dutch/EU PCD policy in the relevant policy area (targets and preferably measurable indicators)? The four priority areas in the 2010 Commission Work Program and/or Netherlands' policy documents are the starting point for assessing policy targets and indicators. In case no explicit objectives have been formulated for the policies, proxies will be adopted.
2. What is the national policy environment ('parallel' targets and indicators) in the partner country for the specific policy area? For example, EU policies to enhance imports from a partner country are mirrored with the policy of the partner country to promote exports which may also include the trade restrictiveness of its own import protection policy.
3. What is the (relative) influence of other international/regional actors and the multi-lateral policy framework (if available) in this regard? To keep the pilot manageable, this element will not be covered exhaustively for each policy instrument but only when the relative influence of these other actors or multilateral rules is evident.

Annex 1 to this paper presents a series of linear result chains for the four priority areas of PCD: i. Trade and Finance; ii. Food Security; iii. Migration and Development; iv. Climate Change and Environment. The two partner countries selected for the pilot are: Ghana and Bangladesh. The collected data cover the period 2000-2011 and/or the latest data available.

We have employed a 'theory-based' approach that starts from the policies as defined (i.e. a 'horizontal objective' perspective) and which is expressed as an 'intervention logic'. This intervention logic describes a 'virtuous' PCD cycle in which 'improvements' in the indicators for the donor policies and the mirroring policies of the developing country are assumed to have beneficial development effects on the ground. In trying to attribute effects to EU/Dutch policy interventions, where possible at this stage, we attempt to distinguish between gross and net outcomes, i.e. the societal results as observed in the developing country respectively the effects that can be attributed or related to the PCD policy itself (see also the discussion of 'plausible linkages or causality' in paragraph 5).

For the time being our ambition is modest: our aim for the PCD result chains is to produce a qualitative assessment and a reasoned estimate of the relative contributions of the policy variables towards development outcomes in the partner country and to identify specific incoherencies in the bilateral relationship with the two countries that require attention.

The matrices in Annex 1 are showing indicators for the Netherlands/EU policies starting on the left with the various PCD policies to impact indicators in the partner country on the right side of the framework. The four PCD priorities have been elaborated into relevant policy instruments or variables, for example in the case of food security: import

protection (tariffs and non-tariff barriers), tariff preferences, trade-distorting support (export subsidies, domestic support and food aid), technology transfer, intellectual property rules and agricultural R&D, aid for trade, and aspects of the fisheries' policy.

These matrices should also be regarded as a manual for collecting the relevant data for each policy area and country. Data sources and more details for each indicator are therefore included in the tables, including for the description of national policies of the partner country. The indicators and data sources were identified through a structured literature review. Where possible, the result chains include and build on relevant components of the EU's 2010-2013 Work Program on PCD, in order to allow the results of this PCD pilot to be used in further discussions on enhancing PCD in the EU.

Though the linkages identified and described in the report to Parliament and in the statistical country annexes do provide telling illustrations of PCD or the lack of it, more in-depth evaluation and genuine impact assessment studies will be needed to further demonstrate causality at country level and to fully understand the complexity of the noted PCD effects.

In view of the commitment towards informing the Netherlands' Parliament, our goal is also to produce a synthesis of the information that will be collected in the matrices and condense this in the form of so called '**PCD at a glance**' sheets for each partner country in the pilot (see annex 2). The aim of these information sheets is to give a public friendly overview of the interactions of policies from the EU/Netherlands and the partner country involved and to identify possible options to enhance PCD.

Annex 1A: PCD Result Chains on Trade in Manufactures and Services and Financial Flows for Development in Ghana

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: More Market Access of Manufactures²⁰(NAMA) in NL/EU:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development of a strong manufactures sector can be important step in the structural transformation of the economy of developing countries. It increases their export earnings and incomes in the export sector, leads to more higher value-added products, creates forward and backward linkages in the economy and reduces vulnerability due to the dependency on a few agricultural export commodities. Imports can foster growth through their pro-competitive impact, reallocation of resources towards more efficient uses, improvements in domestic manufacturing by lowering the cost of inputs and of capital goods and access to foreign technologies embedded in inputs but can also destroy weaker domestic producers especially when imports are subsidized. Increased openness to developing country exports stimulates the export of manufactures but tariff escalation and restrictive (preferential) rules of origin may discourage adding more value locally in-country. The preferential trade status determines the relative competitive position in the medium term versus other exporters to the EU market but it can create a preference trap in the long-term. Even with low (preferential) tariffs, non-tariff barriers in form of stringent TBT and SPS measures may prevent access to NL/EU markets when the local capacity to adapt to these norms is low, the costs prohibitive or access to appropriate finance is lacking. Trade integration should also focus on promoting more effective regional integration among developing countries because opportunities for trade growth and diversification remain unexploited. 								
Enlarge total imports manufactures of NL/EU	Trends in NAMA imports (c.i.f.) and growth rates of EU and NL from developing countries and Ghana.	UN Comtrade Data. WTO. World Bank databank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trade main-streaming in national policy. Reform strategy to create regional markets and involving private sector. 	Trade performance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Value NAMA exports (f.o.b.) total and to EU/NL. Ratio of NAMA in total exports. Ratio of NAMA in total GDP. Trade performance ranking: competitiveness. 	World Bank/WTO country sheet Aid for Trade. WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Openness to NAMA imports from developing countries and Ghana in main trading partners and within region (Ghana export shares by main destinations). Multilateral rules and tariff negotiations in WTO Doha round, FTAs and regional FTAs (EPA). 		
Reduce overall import	Trade restrictiveness indices for NAMA Goods	ITC, www.macmap.org .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Export promotion policy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall import restrictiveness 	See above. www.macmap.org	Overall Trade Restrictiveness Indices (applied	Vulnerability of Ghana may depend on few export	

²⁰ Trade in agricultural products and agricultural policies are covered in the result chain for food security and agricultural development.

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
protection in NL/EU	<p>from developing countries:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall trade protection (ad valorem equivalent) for NAMA Goods (applied tariffs, preferences and NTMs); Tariff trade restrictiveness: ad valorem equivalent (applied tariffs + preferences). 	<p>org</p> <p>World Bank, World Trade Indicators</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Export diversification policy. Trade restrictive tariff measures. 	<p>of Ghana.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Level of export duties on relevant export products and revenues. Product diversification in exports (number of equivalent products at SITC 3 digits). 	<p>rg.</p> <p>http://databank.worldbank.org</p>	<p>tariffs and NTMs) for NAMA Goods in other main export markets of Ghana.</p>	<p>products (cocoa) and minerals (gold). Development of strong export sector through easier market access in third markets increases export earnings and incomes of workers in the export sector and those employed indirectly.</p>	
Reduce level of tariff protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NAMA Tariff Rate weighted by importance in exports from Ghana. Tariffs and tariff escalation for specific NAMA products of interest to Ghana. 	<p>WTO/ World Bank</p> <p>OECD, WTO and EU tariff schedule.</p> <p>EU online tariff rates database (TARIC).</p>	<p>Linkage of domestic market to world and regional markets.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall import restrictiveness of Ghana and actual tariff protection. Use of countervailing duties or contingent trade measures. Non-transparent licensing procedures. 	<p>See above.</p> <p>WTO TPRM: doc. WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1.</p> <p>http://databank.worldbank.org</p> <p>www.globaltradealert.org.</p>	<p>Overall Trade Restrictiveness Indices (applied tariffs and NTMs) for NAMA Goods in other main export markets of Ghana.</p>		
Preferential trade status Ghana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preferential trade status of Ghana and trade preference compared to MFN or GSP tariff levels in 	<p>EU WTO-TPRM</p>	<p>Ability to comply with preferential rules: administrative cost and restrictive rules of origin.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Utilisation rate of EU trade preferences by Ghana. 	<p>Eurostat Data Website.</p> <p>http://databank</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trade preferences of other important trading partners. Regional trade opportunities. 		

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
	NL/EU. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Share of duty-free imports of NAMA goods from Ghana. Administrative costs to comply with EU regimes. Status of EPA negotiations. 	Eurostat data website.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trends in regional trade. 	k.worldbank.org			
Reduce non-tariff barriers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall Trade Restrictiveness Index (applied tariffs+NTMs) for NAMA Goods from Ghana. Use of trade restrictive measures and type of measures. Specific TBT and SPS constraints for important export products of Ghana. 	World Bank, World Trade Indicators 2009/10 Online Database. WTO TPRM EU. www.globaltradealert.org	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National enabling environment for exporters. Non-tariff trade restrictive measures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall trade restrictiveness index Ghana. Standard institutions and extension services. Use of trade restrictive measures and type of measures; level of price raising effects. 	WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. Doing Business Indicators World Bank. World Bank, Global Monitoring Report 2012.		Check for EU NTMs that are more burdensome for Ghana due to composition of its exports.	

PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Technology Transfer and Appropriate IPR Protection

- National development requires structural transformation in the form of faster productivity growth and hence stronger national innovation systems and science, technological development and innovation capabilities, in combination with other enabling policies such as political and macro-economic stability, human capital development, entrepreneurship and financial sector development.
- Technology transfer from developed countries and appropriate IPR-protection can play important roles in stimulating innovation, enhancing (foreign) investment and increasing production in developing countries but forcing too strict IPR protection can have negative effects for catch-up possibilities of domestic entrepreneurs, innovation, prices of and access to IPR-protected goods, royalty outflows and equity.
- Allowing a certain flexibility to partner countries to establish appropriate IPR-regimes to strike the appropriate national balance between protection of (mostly foreign) IE-holders and other societal interests.

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Enhance technology transfer and intellectual property rules	<p>Policy efforts of NL/EU to incentivize transfer of industrial technologies to developing countries.</p> <p>Restrictions on flow of technology to developing countries: index.</p> <p>Use of humanitarian licensing.</p>	<p>Notifications to WTO TRIPs Council.</p> <p>CGD, CDI</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National innovation policy and institutions. IPR-regime of Ghana. Compulsory licensing for medicines. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Global Innovation Index Ranking, score and ranking, 2009-2011. Number patents and trademarks filed. Backward linkages and learning from FDI in manufacturing and natural resources. Number of compulsory licenses 	<p>Global Innovation Index 2011, country profile and annexes (6.1.1 and 7.1.1) INSEAD.</p> <p>WTO/TPR/S/194.</p> <p>WTO/TPR/S/194</p>				
Appropriate R&D	Level of focused R&D for developing countries' issues, bilateral (FP-7) and multilateral.	Budget EC PCD 2010	National R&D efforts.	R&D indicators: number researchers, R&D expenditures and quality institutions.	Global Innovation Index, annexes 2.3				

PCD Objectives and Assumptions: More Trade in Competitive Services

- Services constitute a major part of the economy in terms of their contribution to GDP and employment in many developing countries (including Ghana) but often face generic and sector-specific supply-side constraints such as costly and unreliable basic utilities, notably electricity and basic telecommunication, transport, logistical and energy infrastructure and access to competitive financial services.

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A more efficient services sector and needed investments can be stimulated through more trade in services and FDI whereas tailored policies are possible to allow domestic service providers to catch up or keep certain basis services in the public domain . The comparative advantage of developing countries in lower skilled labour may be used to mutual advantage of host and origin countries through more legal labour migration opportunities and can trigger more beneficial market opening trade-offs in services negotiations (labour versus FDI) (see PCD result chain for migration and development). 								
Enlarge trade in services	Trends in commercial services imports of NL and EU from and exports of NL /EU to developing countries and Ghana: value and growth rates.	Aid for Trade at glance, OECD, WTO 2011.	Sector specific policies in services.	World Bank, indicators services sector: value added in \$ and as, % GDP; imports and exports of services in \$ and % of GDP. Trade composition of services imports and exports	WTO/TPR/S/194. Aid for Trade at glance, OECD, WTO 2011. World Bank, databank, Aid for Trade at glance, OECD, WTO 2011, country sheet			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Effective Aid for Trade <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aid for Trade should target both the binding constraints that prevent partner countries to turn trade opportunities into trade flows and those that choke the impact of trade flows on economic growth. Aid for Trade can assist in mainstreaming trade in development strategies, establishing a fair and transparent import and export regimes, trade-facilitation and building the trade capacity of the private sector. Increased Aid for Trade to promote frictionless borders would enhance the productive capacity for domestic and export markets and attract FDI thereby allowing countries to make more use of existing and new market opportunities. 								
Provide Aid for Trade focused on manufactures	Aid for Trade and capacity building efforts of EU/NL to assist Ghana to comply with TBT Rules, etc.	OECD/WTO/ World Bank.	National enabling environment in Ghana.	Trade facilitation (ease of doing business) and trade costs (time to export and import).	WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. Doing Business Indicators World Bank. World Bank databank.	Aid for Trade expenditures of other donors. Aid for Trade framework in WTO.		

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Ensure trade Finance	Availability of international trade finance to finance exports and imports through export credit agencies.	OECD/WTO/IFC World Bank	Access to trade credit financing.	Availability.		G-20 appeal to maintain trade credit. Trade credit programmes of IFC and ADB			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: More Stable Financial Flows for Development (FFD) and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing countries depend for their external capital needs on portfolio capital, foreign direct investment (FDI), trade revenues, aid (ODA) and other official flows (OOF), and remittances from migrant workers. Due to the volatility of external capital flows, developing countries should be stimulating more stable forms of external financing, such as FDI, migrant remittances and long-term private debt and be assisted in that while poorer countries should continue to receive more ODA grants. 									
Effective Aid (ODA)	Levels and trends in bilateral net ODA flows from NL/EU to Ghana.	OECD/DAC www.oecd.org/dac/stats/dcrannex	Broadening sources of external finance and reducing aid dependency. IDA-graduation.	Overall levels and shares of bilateral and multilateral ODA to Ghana.	MASP Ghana. OECD-DAC 2012. World Bank databank.				
Other Official Flows (OOF)	Levels and trends in net OOF flows from NL/EU to Ghana.	OECD DAC, http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/dcrannex	Broadening the sources of external finance.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Estimated net financial flows (official, private remittances): volume and shares. Trends in external finance sources (ODA, FDI, remittances): volume and % of GDP. 	World Bank databank. Table 7, CGD working paper 300.				

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
FDI promotion	Flows and stocks of inward FDI from NL/EU in Ghana. Political risk insurance coverage for FDI. Foreign Investment Protection and avoidance of double taxation.	UNCTAD, WIR 2012. World Bank databank. EL&I OECD, EL&I	Ghana investment policies and FDI treatment (UNCTAD Implementation Review 2010).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trend in inward FDI: flows, stocks and as % GDP. Country ranking on inward FDI index. Strength of investor protection: score and ranking. 	UNCTAD WIR 2012, annex I.1, I.2. and III.1. WIR Ghana country fact sheet.			
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Reducing Illicit Financial Outflows and Increasing Domestic Tax Revenues</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Since development in developing countries is financed primarily from local resources, the focus should be on better domestic resource mobilisation through generating sustainable tax revenues. Stemming illicit financial flows increases domestic resources for development while increased taxation can enhance legitimacy of the state setting in motion a virtuous cycle of responsibility and accountability. International transactions and transfer pricing and bribery practices remain non-transparent which facilitate capital flight, corruption and tax avoidance by multinationals in developing countries. Special regulations in the tax regimes and bilateral tax treaties of various developed countries with developing countries may favour FDI but continue to play a crucial role in tax evasion and avoidance strategies and thereby may erode the tax base of developing countries. Joining multilateral conventions and initiatives etc. 								
Reducing Illicit Financial Flows	Estimate of illicit flows due to transfer mispricing from Ghana to NL/EU (if available).	http://iffdata.gfintegrity.org/	Public finance management Ghana	Illicit Financial Outflows from Ghana <ul style="list-style-type: none"> CPIA score efficiency revenue mobilization. CPIA score efficiency budget 	GTFI: http://iffdata.gfintegrity.org/ . World Bank databank.			

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
				management.					
	Support for country-by-country reporting on MNE-payments to governments in recipient country.	Extractive Industry Initiative (EITI).	Natural resources policies of Ghana.	Forest rents, mineral rents and total natural resources rents as % of GDP.	World Bank databank. Revenue Watch table. EITI report on Ghana, 2010.				
	Monitoring MNE behaviour in developing countries.	OECD Code on MNEs		Mineral sector payments received.					
More Transparency	Financial Secrecy Index (FSI): value or ranking.	http://www.financialsecyindex.com/2011results.html		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FSI score 	http://www.financialsecyindex.com/2011results.html				
	Presence Double Taxation Treaties between NL and Ghana: level of withholding tax rates allowed and other provisions.	Ministerie van Financiën	Ghana's international taxation policy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of BITs, IIA's and DDTs concluded. 	http://www.ibfd.org/IBFD-Products/Tax-Treaties-Data-base Global InnovationIndex 2011, annex 4.2.1, http://www.globalinnovationindex.org				
Support to tax	Aid for strengthening tax	DGIS,	National efforts at	Tax revenue as %	IMF				

Policy Instrument EU/NL			National policy of Ghana			Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source					
systems	administration in Ghana.	Financiën.	raising taxes	of GDP. Taxes on trade and exports.	World Bank databank				



Covered in EU PCD Work Programme 2010-2013

Data Sources on Trade in Manufactures, Services and Financial Flows for Development:

General overview

Datasets

- WTO, www.wto.org
- World Integrated Trade Solution (WITS) is a software application developed by the World Bank that gives access to major international trade, tariffs and non-tariff data compilations:
 - The UN COMTRADE database maintained by the UNSD: Exports and imports by detailed commodity and partner country
 - The TRAINS maintained by the UNCTAD: Imports, Tariffs, Para-Tariffs & Non-Tariff Measures at national tariff level
 - The IDB and CTS databases maintained by the WTO: MFN Applied, Preferential & Bound Tariffs at national tariff level
- World Bank databank, <http://databank.worldbank.org>
- World Bank, Global Monitoring Report 2012, Food, Nutrition, and the Millennium Development Goals, <http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/0,,menuPK:476823~pagePK:64165236~piPK:64165141~theSitePK:469372,00.html>
- International Trade Centre, www.macmap.org
- EU online tariff rates database (TARIC), http://ec.europa.eu/taxation_customs/customs/customs_duties/tariff_aspects/customs_tariff/index_en.htm
- The Centre for Economic Policy Research (CEPR), databank on (bilateral) trade restrictive measures, <http://www.globaltradealert.org/analysis>
- Centre for Global Development (CGD), commitment to development index for OECD countries, <http://www.cgdev.org/section/initiatives/active/cdi/>
- Eurostat, trade data http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database
- INSEAD, The Global Innovation Index, data on key innovation indicators and country profiles, <http://www.globalinnovationindex.org/gii/main/framework.html>
- UNCTAD, World Investment Report 2012, data on FDI flows, annex Tables, www.unctad.org/wir
- Global Financial Integrity, data on illicit financial flows, <http://www.gfintegrity.org>
- Tax Justice Network, data on financial transparency, <http://www.financialsecrecyindex.com/2011results.html>

Data presented in papers

- Micheal King and Allen Matthews, Policy Coherence for Development: Indicators for Ireland, Institute for International Integration Studies, February 2012.
- Sarah Hardus, Ghana's Traders, Lumberjacks and Fortune Hunters, Impact of European Policies on Development in Ghana, www.fairpolitics.eu
- MDG Gap Task Force Report 2009, Strengthening the Global Partnership for Development in a Time of Crisis, UN 2009

Other Publications with Trade and Financial Flows Data

- OECD, Development Assistance Committee, Peer Review 2011 The Netherlands, annex B.1, Total Financial Flows.
- OECD/WTO (2011), Aid for Trade at a Glance 2011: Showing Results, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264117471-en>, annex A, Key Data
- Financing for Development: Trends and Opportunities in a Changing Landscape, CFP working paper 8, November 2011.
- World Bank (2011), Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011. <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/Factbook2011-Ebook.pdf>
- World Bank 2011, Leveraging Migration for Africa.
- Dev Kar and Sarah Freitas, Illicit Financial Flows from Developing Countries, Global Financial Integrity, December 2011, http://www.gfintegrity.org/storage/gfip/documents/reports/IFFDec2011/illicit_financial_flows_from_developing_countries_over_the_decade_ending_2009.pdf

Country Specific Data

- World Bank databank, <http://databank.worldbank.org>
- World Development Indicators
- World Trade Organization, Trade Policy Review Ghana, report by the WTO Secretariat, WT/TPR/S/xx194/Rev.1, 7 May 2008.
- World Bank and International Finance Corporation (IFC), Doing Business 2012 , Economy Profile Ghana, <http://www.doingbusiness.org/~media/fpdkm/doing%20business/documents/profiles/country/GHA.pdf>
- World Bank, <http://www.doingbusiness.org/data/exploreeconomies/ghana/#trading-across-borders>
- Government website of Ghana, <http://www.ghana.gov.gh/>
- OECD/WTO (2011), Aid for Trade at a Glance 2011: Showing Results, country fact sheet Ghana, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264117471-en>,.
- UNCTAD, World Investment Report 2011, country fact sheet Ghana, www.unctad.org/wir, FDI overview.
- UNCTAD Secretariat, Commission on Science and Technology for Development, STIP Review of Ghana.
- NEPAD, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), Success Stories 2: Ghana, www.nepad-caadp.net
- FAO briefs on Import Surges, No. 5 Ghana: rice, poultry and tomato paste, <http://www.fao.org/es/esc/en/378/406/index.html>
- UNCTAD, Report on the Implementation of the Investment Policy Review of Ghana, 2010, http://unctad.org/en/Docs/diaepcb20095_en.pdf
- Extractive Industry Transparency Initiative (EITI), country report on Ghana, <http://eiti.org/>

Annex 1B: PCD Result Chains for Food Security and Agricultural Development²¹ in Ghana

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Increased Market Access in NL/EU</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Subsidised OECD agricultural export products undermine the local markets for domestic producers and compete with developing country exports in third country markets, while OECD trade barriers make it more difficult for developing countries to export to OECD markets. Increased market openness to developing country agricultural exports stimulates the development of a strong agricultural export sector in developing countries with a comparative advantage in this sector. Trade in agricultural products is an essential component of any food security strategy. It acts as a buffer against domestic fluctuations in food supply while trade integration holds the potential to stabilize food prices, boost returns to farmers and reduce consumer prices and price volatility. High tariffs on agricultural products remain the primary protection instrument while tariff escalation may discourage adding value locally in-country to agricultural commodities in developing countries. The preferential trade status of a country determines the relative competitive position in the medium term versus other exporters to the EU market but can create a preference trap in the long-term. Even with low or no tariffs, non-tariff barriers such as stringent TBT and SPS measures and burdensome preferential rules of origin, can affect world market prices and hinder market access, especially when such measures are targeted against specific exporting countries and their local capacity to adapt is low. Trade promotion should also focus on promoting more effective regional integration among developing countries. 								
Enlarge imports of agricultural products of NL/EU	Agricultural Imports: value (c.i.f.) and growth rates of EU and NL imports from developing countries and Ghana.	UN Comtrade Data. WTO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trade mainstreaming in national policy. Reform strategy towards creation of regional market and involving private sector. 	Trade performance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agricultural exports: total value (f.o.b.) and to EU/NL. Ratio of export agricultural products in total exports. Value added agriculture: value and as % GDP. 	World Bank/WTO country sheet Aid for Trade. WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. Ghana TAAG. World Bank databank.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Openness to agricultural imports from developing countries and Ghana in main trading partners and within region (Ghana export shares by main destinations). Multilateral rules and tariff negotiations in WTO Doha round, FTAs and regional FTAs (EPA). 		

²¹ Policy indicators covering land access and use, impact of bio-energy use and maintaining bio-diversity in developing countries will be covered under climate change and environment.

Policy Instrument EU/NL			National policy of Ghana			Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Indicators (details)			Indicators (details)						
Source			Source						
Reduce overall import protection in NL/EU	Trade restrictiveness Indices for Agricultural Goods from developing countries: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall (ad valorem equivalent) trade protection for Agricultural Goods (applied tariffs incl. preferences and NTMs); Tariff trade restrictiveness (equivalent tariff protection rate). 	ITC, www.macmap.org World Trade Indicators.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Export promotion policy. Export diversification policy. Trade restrictive tariff measures. Trade costs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Level of export duties (%) on relevant export products and revenues. Product diversification in exports (number of equivalent products at SITC 3 digits). Top 5 export products. 	WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. World Trade Indicators. Aid for Trade at a Glance, country fact sheet Ghana. Ghana TAAG.	Overall Trade Restrictiveness Indices (applied tariffs and NTMs) for Agriculture Goods in other main export markets of developing countries.	Vulnerability of Ghana may depend on few export products (cocoa) and minerals. Development of strong agriculture export sector through easier market access increases export earnings and incomes of those working in the export sector and those employed indirectly (small outgrowers and service providers).		
Reduce level of tariff protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agricultural Tariff Rate Weighted by Importance in Domestic Production weighed by the value of production in each commodity. Tariffs, tariff escalation and entry price mechanisms for top 5 agricultural products of interest to Ghana. 	OECD Producer Estimates Database. World Trade Indicators OECD, WTO and EU tariff schedule.	Linkage of domestic market of Ghana to world markets.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Actual tariff protection: avg. weighted MFN applied tariff (incl. preferences) agriculture. 	WTO, WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. World Bank databank.	Overall Trade Restrictiveness Indices (applied tariffs, preferences and NTMs) for Agriculture Goods in other main export markets of Ghana.			

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Maintain preferential trade status Ghana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preferential trade status of Ghana and trade preferences compared to MFN or GSP tariff levels in EU. Share of duty-free imports agricultural goods from Ghana. Status of EPA negotiations. 	EU WTO-TPRM World Trade Indicators. Eurostat EC. Commission	Ability to comply with preferential rules (administrative cost and rules of origin).	Utilisation rate of NL/EU trade preferences by Ghana.	Eurostat Data Website. Ghana TAAG.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trade preferences of other important trading partners. Regional trade opportunities. 			
Reduce non-tariff barriers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall Trade Restrictiveness Index (weighted applied tariffs incl. preferences +NTMs) for Agricultural Goods from Ghana. Use of trade restrictive measures and type of measures. Specific TBT and SPS constraints for important export crops and food staples. 	World Bank's World Trade Indicators 2009/10 Online Database. WTO TPRM EU World Bank, WITS. www.globaltradealert.org	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National enabling environment for exports. Non-tariff trade restrictive measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Infrastructure. Standard institutions and extension services. Use of trade restrictive measures and type of measures. 	WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1. Doing Business Indicators World Bank, Ghana report. www.globaltradealert.org World Bank, WITS		Burdensome EU NTMs for Ghanaese exports. Domestic prices of food staples for consumers are raised due to various NTMs (SPS and TBT norms, transport cost, etc.) while higher global prices are not always transmitted to domestic farmers and result in higher returns.		

PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Fair Competition, Abolish Trade-Distorting Subsidies and Less Trade-Distorting Food Aid

- Agricultural trade policies are designed to insulate domestic prices from world markets and have pro-cyclic effects: protection decreases when prices are high, increasing demand on world markets, and increases

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
<p>when world prices are low, thereby enhancing global price volatility and negative externalities for smaller countries.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Still remaining export subsidies for specific agricultural products distort competition directly in local markets of developing countries while trade-distorting domestic subsidies can displace potential imports and have a depressing effect on global market prices and hence on the potential export revenues of developing countries with a comparative advantage in agriculture. • Changes in food prices create both winners and losers between and within developing countries. There is significant potential for increased food production in many parts of the world but not all countries can or should aspire to supplying all their own food needs; net-food importing countries should weigh self-sufficiency in food production against the benefit of cheaper imports of food. • Increasing agricultural production in developing countries primarily requires an appropriate institutional and incentives framework and adequate levels of public and private investment within these countries. • While the risk of trade displacement has been reduced by increased international and regional sourcing, the provision of food aid remains pro-cyclical and least available when most needed. It cannot be expected to play a useful role in contributing to global food security with the exception of bona fide food aid to respond to unforeseen disaster shocks and humanitarian crises. 								
Abolish trade-distorting export support to agricultural products	Export subsidies for specific agricultural products from EU/NL to developing countries and Ghana.	Notifications to WTO. www.globaltradealert.org	Overvalued exchange rate can discourage exports and encourage imports. Market development linking farmers to regional and international markets.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trend in real effective exchange rate • Use of counter-vailing duties or contingent trade measures. • Support level for agricultural exporters on third markets. • Value and growth rates agricultural exports. 	Ghana TAAG. WTO TPRM Ghana. World Trade Indicators.		In short term less distorted global competition can lead to less (subsidized) production in developed countries and higher prices for imported food in net-food importing developing countries. This may result in reduced household spending power in cities in short term but may trigger production response, employment and exports.	
Domestic support to agriculture	Domestic support payments based on output, input use, and current production, as a percentage of value of production at farm gate, all weighed by the value of production	OECD Producer Estimates Database. Notifications to WTO.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National policy to address supply-side constraints. • Infrastructural and quality support (cold chains, storage, etc.). 	Growth in agricultural trade (domestic, and regional). Trade facilitation	Food Security performance indicators MASP NL for Ghana. Ghana TAAG.			

Policy Instrument EU/NL			National policy of Ghana			Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Indicators (details)			Indicators (details)						
	in each commodity.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficient domestic markets. 						
Only bona fide food aid	Level of food aid: in-kind and cash.	FAO Food Aid Convention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Input subsidies, food storage and extension services for domestic farmers. Safety net policies for vulnerable consumers and resource-poor farmers. 	Food security performance indicators: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sustainable food production index. Food balance (%GDP) MDG1A hunger data. Poverty head count rates. 	MASP NL for Ghana. World Bank databank. World Trade Indicators.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Food-aid disciplines in WTO DDA promote bona fide food aid. Address shortcomings of pro-cyclical donor behaviour and ambiguities in collective and individual commitments in renegotiation of Food Aid Convention in FAO. 			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Technology Transfer for Food Production and Processing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technology transfer by providing efficient plant varieties can play an important part in increasing food production and food quality in developing countries and enhance both food security and potential food exports but too strict IPR protection can have negative effect for resource-poor farmers and equity. More domestic investments in agriculture development and research will be crucial to enhance efficient food production and strengthen agricultural development and trade. Allowing flexibility to a partner country to establish appropriate IPR-regimes for plant variety protection and an appropriate national balance between the protection of IP-holders and societal interests (including resource-poor farmers). 									
Enhance technology transfer	Policy efforts of NL/EU to incentivize food related technologies to transfer to developing countries.	CDI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Compact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Government expenditures in agricultural R&D. Extension services. 	www.nepad-caadp.net Min. Agriculture Ghana.				
Appropriate intellectual property	Policy flexibility for protection of newly introduced plant	EU IPR-regimes in FTAs and EPAs.	IPR-regime in Ghana for plant variety protection.	Which UPOV version or sui generis system for plant	WTO TRIPS Ghana,				

Policy Instrument EU/NL			National policy of Ghana			Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
rules for agriculture.	varieties to enhance productivity while allowing farmer's privileges to exchange seeds.			varieties?					
Agricultural R&D	Level of focused agricultural R&D focused on developing countries' issues, bilateral (FP-7) and through multilateral institutes (CGIAR et al).	Budget	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National agriculture R&D programmes in. CAADP Compact for Ghana. 	Budget expenditures for research efforts. Agricultural production: value, value-added, growth rate and as % of GDP.	www.nepad-caadp.net World Bank databank.				
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Agricultural and Food Security Related Development Cooperation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Smallholder agriculture is a key sector for food security for multiple reasons: as a source of income for vast numbers of poor people, and as the main source of food in the developing world. It is critical to enable smallholders to play a greater role in supplying growing urban markets in their countries, as well as in regional and international markets. Addressing unfair competition for smallholder producers on domestic markets from artificially low-priced imports, or high costs in accessing international markets due to trade distorting policies in their own countries or elsewhere can contribute to greater food security (both availability and access to food) and deepening of agricultural markets, thus reducing the incidence of volatility. Increased aid for trade is important to promote frictionless borders and can induce developing world producers to a supply response thereby making more of existing and new market opportunities. Aid for Trade for improved transport logistics and trade facilitation improve links to markets, promote cost-effective access to food and food inputs and create enabling environment for more private sector involvement. 									
Provide aid for Trade focused on agriculture	Aid for Agricultural Trade and Capacity building Efforts to comply with Food Standards, Animal Health and Traceability Rules and agricultural	OECD/WTO/ World Bank. http://stats.oecd.org/qwids/	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CAADP of Ghana: METASIP. G-8 New Alliance Corporation Framework pilot for Ghana incl. statement intent for private sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Budget expenditures. Agriculture value added: as % GDP, value and growth rate. Permanent crop land as % land area. 	www.nepad-caadp.net World Bank databank.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aid for agricultural development (commitments/expenditures) of other donors: OECD/WTO Aid for Trade framework in WTO. G 8 New Alliance for 			

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
	development.		involvement.	• Food imports and food exports	Aid for Trade at a Glance	Food Security and Nutrition.			
Appropriate R&D on malnutrition	Expenditures on specific R&D on malnutrition	OECD	National research efforts.						
Emergency and nutrition related assistance	Emergency assistance: levels and as a % of GNP. Hunger and Nutrition related health ODA as a % of GNP and absolute levels.	OECD				Disciplines on food aid: WTO DDA and Food Aid Convention (FAC): • FAC renegotiated in 2012. • DDA negotiations on food aid Safe Box at impasse.			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Sustainable Fisheries									
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fisheries play an important role in providing employment and food security in many coastal developing countries while fish exports can generate important foreign exchange earnings. • Global fishing overcapacity leads to undue pressure on already overexploited fishery resources while OECD fishing subsidies distort competition with local fisheries and further encourage overfishing. • EU market protection restricts export opportunities for developing countries with a development potential in fisheries. 									
Reduce external impact of CFP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of coupled subsidies in EU. • Tariffs and tariff escalation for fish exports from Ghana. • Stringent rules of origin for fish products from Ghana. 	EU FAO WTO	National fishery policy: infrastructure, harbour development.	Fish production and exports: level and growth rate	World Bank, WITS http://www.fishbase.org	WTO Fishery Subsidies Agreement being negotiated in WTO Doha round.			

Policy Instrument EU/NL			National policy of Ghana			Optional: impact of non-EU and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Indicators (details)			Indicators (details)						
Sustainable EU Fishery Partnership Agreements	Renegotiating access rights and management under EU partnership agreements with developing countries.	EU	Fisheries management policy and capacity Ghana.		http://www.fishbase.org				
	Fiscal payments for access of EU fleet to fishery resources.	EU	Use of EU funds for national fisheries management efforts.		EC Commission				

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Data Sources on Food Security and Agricultural Development

General overview

Datasets

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- WTO, www.wto.org
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development's Trade Analysis Information System (TRAINS),
- World Bank, World Trade Indicators,
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/TRADE/0,,contentMDK:22421950~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:239071,00.html>
- World Bank databank <http://databank.worldbank.org>
- World Bank, Global Monitoring Report 2012, Food, Nutrition, and the Millennium Development Goals,
<http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/0,,menuPK:476823~pagePK:64165236~piPK:64165141~theSitePK:469372,00.html>
- International Trade Centre, www.macmap.org
- EU online tariff rates database (TARIC), http://ec.europa.eu/taxation_customs/customs/customs_duties/tariff_aspects/customs_tariff/index_en.htm
- The Centre for Economic Policy Research (CEPR), databank on (bilateral) trade restrictive measures, <http://www.globaltradealert.org/analysis>
- OECD Producer Support Estimates, http://www.oecd.org/document/59/0,3746,en_2649_33797_39551355_1_1_1_1,00.html
- OECD/FAO database provides detailed trade, supply and use balances, as well as domestic and international commodity prices for commodities analyzed,
http://www.agri-outlook.org/document/12/0,3746,en_36774715_36775671_45444620_1_1_1_1,00.html
- Centre for Global Development (CGD), commitment to development index for OECD countries, http://www.cgdev.org/section/initiatives/_active/cdi/
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- OECD/WTO (2011), Aid for Trade at a Glance 2011: Showing Results, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264117471-en>, annex A, Key Data
- Financing for Development: Trends and Opportunities in a Changing Landscape, CFP working paper 8, November 2011.

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<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/TRADE/0,,contentMDK:22421950~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:239071,00.html>

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- World Bank 2010, Ghana: Trade at a Glance Table.
- World Trade Organization, Trade Policy Review Ghana, report by the WTO Secretariat, WT/TPR/S/xx194/Rev.1, 7 May 2008.
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- World Bank, <http://www.doingbusiness.org/data/exploreeconomies/ghana/#trading-across-borders>
- Government website of Ghana, <http://www.ghana.gov.gh/>
- OECD/WTO (2011), Aid for Trade at a Glance 2011: Showing Results, country fact sheet Ghana, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264117471-en>.
- NEPAD, the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), Success Stories 2: Ghana, www.nepad-caadp.net
- FAO briefs on Import Surges, No. 5 Ghana: rice, poultry and tomato paste, <http://www.fao.org/es/esc/en/378/406/index.html>

Annex 1C: PCD Result Chain on Migration and Development for Ghana

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Mutually Beneficial Temporary Labour Migration to NL/EU.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Migrants to OECD come predominantly from more prosperous developing countries and leave the poorest countries with little benefit from positive migration effects (remittances and acquisition of skills). • By minimising negative effects and maximising positive effects, circular migration can be of mutual advantage to host countries and countries of origin in terms of economic growth and poverty reduction. • Pressure on illegal migration can be reduced by strengthened migration management to deal with traffickers and by providing more opportunities for demand-driven legal labour migration through Mobility Partnerships. • Circular migration can be facilitated by providing incentives such as the portability of social security and future opportunity to return, in order to stimulate voluntary return and reduce illegal overstay. • Brain drain and skill shortages resulting from recruitment in vulnerable sectors in developing countries can be minimized by combining recruitment with efforts to stimulate re-integration and enhanced capacity development. 								
Greater openness to low and semi-skilled migrants and seasonal workers from Ghana.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low and semi-skilled nationals and seasonal workers from developing countries and Ghana: trends in numbers and as % of labour force and total population in NL/EU. • Targeted legislative initiatives to promote migrants' rights in NL/EU. • Specific legislative initiatives to facilitate legal low and semi-skilled migration 	Commitment to Development Index (CDI) World Bank Prospects NL data on proportion of working-aged immigrants with only primary education in Docquier et al. (for 1990 and 2000).	Migration and employment policies Ghana.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment and unemployment data. • Net Migration data 2005-2010. 	http://laborsta.ilo.org/ (variety of data, but not very complete). World Bank databank. Ghana country paper, Centre Migration Studies, Accra, 2008, table 1 and description of migration policies.	How do NL/EU policies compare with non-EU policies in this respect? ECOWAS Declaration and Action Plan against Trafficking in Human Beings.	Comparative advantage of developing country used to mutual advantage of host and origin countries. Substantial emigration of low and semi-skilled workers could raise level of domestic wages and stimulate local economy but hurt competitiveness.	

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Promotion of high-skilled labour migration	Number of high-skilled immigrants from Ghana entering NL/EU through temporary or permanent migration schemes (knowledge workers promotion visa schemes and intra-EU mobility through EU Blue Card Directive) Specific initiatives taken to recognise academic qualifications from Ghana. Compensation of countries of origin for cost of education of professionals.	Difficult to find country-specific data (NL does not have quota for high-skilled migrants). Proportion of migrants with tertiary education found in Docquier et al. (for 1990 and 2000)	Policies to retain professionals or recoup cost of education of migrants through domestic service requirements or repayment of part of tuition cost.	Share of high-skilled among emigrant stock and flows.	Docquier et al. (country specific data for 1990 and 2000). World Bank, Leveraging Migration for Africa, 2011.	How do EU initiatives to promote high-skilled labour compare to those of non-EU countries in terms of development-friendliness?	Circular high-skilled migration can be beneficial for development, acquisition of skills, technology transfer and creation of business networks. Permanent migration of high-skilled professionals may undermine long-term development and innovation potential and strain fiscal resources.		
Intra-corporate transferees	Number of intra-corporate transferees from Ghana entering NL/EU	Best to identify key MNEs for each country and seek statistics).	Policy on entry of foreign nationals working in multinationals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Market opening in GATS-Mode IV schedule. Number of intra-corporate transferees. 	Ghana TPRM, WT/TPR/S/194/Rev.1 Some data but not specific on services through people: http://stat.wto.org/CountryProfile/WSD	How do EU companies compare to non-EU countries in this regard?	Greater flexibility of entry and intra-company workers may stimulate mutual FDI and trade flows and business networks.		

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
					BCountryPFReporter.aspx?Language=E				
Legal circular migration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities legal circular migration in labour migration schemes from Ghana entering NL/EU (Mobility Partnership or GATS mode IV commitments in specific services sectors) and persons entering under these schemes. • Facilitate voluntary return through portability of social security rights and priority for future participation in labour migration schemes. • Number of qualified nationals temporarily returning to work in country of origin without losing right of residence. 	EU Immigration Portal for conditions of entry and residence in NL/EU.	<p>Legal and institutional framework to manage migration.</p> <p>Involvement Ghana in selecting, training and preparing labour migrants.</p> <p>Policy on re-integration of returning migrants.</p> <p>Ghana dual citizenship Regulation Act 2004</p>	<p>Bilateral labour migration agreements (with EU or others).</p> <p>Number of nationals returning.</p>	<p>Country paper Ghana, 2008, Centre for Migration Studies, Ghana.</p> <p>http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest)</p>	ECOWAS protocol on free movement of people.	<p>Selection bias on high-skilled professionals and possible permanent migration with negative impact on future development potential.</p> <p>Temporary return of qualified nationals can fill critical shortages but may involve high cost of managing programmes.</p>		

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
Recruitment in vulnerable sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of workers from Ghana recruited in NL/EU in vulnerable sectors (health, education). Assistance to human resources development and retention schemes. 		Option of legal temporary migration may stimulate recruitment and (gross) human capital formation in sector.	Number of health workers working abroad. Number of physicians working abroad.	World Bank databank. MDG indicators http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Default.aspx	Similar or different policy actions compared to NL/EU?	Emigration of scarce health workers may undermine health-related MDGs if not compensated through targeted capacity building. Prospect of circular migration may induce human capital accumulation.		
Ethical clauses on recruiting health workers from developing countries	Are policies on ethical recruitment reflected in actual recruitment practices? (<i>Could be binary or 3-point indicator</i>)	WHO	Better pay to retain workers in sectors with critical shortages.	Average wages in health sector Specific legislative actions (e.g. salary incentives in particular regions)	Ghana country paper, Centre Migration Studies, Accra, 2008, table 2. Specific studies	Actual recruitment practices of non-EU countries in the country concerned			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: More Development Enhancing Remittances from Migrants <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased inflows of remittances in countries of origin are beneficial at all levels (individual, household, community and national) and can stimulate (local) development, consumption, investment and poverty reduction. The stocks of migrant populations (both permanent and temporary) in host countries determine the potential financial flows. More transparent and lower costs of transfer of remittances can generate increased volumes and more use of formal channels while parallel efforts by countries of origin and technological advances could also improve rural access to financial services and the efficiency of these flows towards productive investments. 									
Enhanced and efficient remittances flows	Annual remittance outflows to Ghana from NL/EU	World Bank Prospects DNB	Regulatory policies to trigger more remittances and enhance macro-	Workers' remittances: receipts (BOP, \$) and share in	World Bank databank.				

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
		Estimates for 2010 at World Bank Prospects website.	economic and developmental impact.	external finance sources. Specific schemes to enhance impact (HTA's,, saving accounts, special exchange rate, etc.).	Remittance data at World Bank Prospects website				
Lower cost of transfer of remittances	Cheaper, faster and official money flows to Ghana: cost measured as % of the amount remitted.	Remittanceprices.worldbank.org	Policies to enhance efficient transfer of remittances.		World Bank, Remittances Markets in Africa, 2011, chapter 5 on Ghana.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transfer cost of remittances from US. • Implementation General Principles International Remittance Services (CPSS). 			
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Increased Knowledge Transfer and Engaging Diasporas in Migration Policies and Development of Countries of Origin <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased acquisition of skills and development of knowledge which are useful and applicable in sending countries' economies by migrants, students and researchers during their stay abroad. • Increased participation of students and researchers in education and research programmes, in order to stimulate future business and investment networks between countries. • Enhanced involvement of diasporas in the development of their country of origin can be supplement development activities and help build networks to strengthen bilateral trade and investment ties. 									
Stock of migrants from Ghana residing in EU and NL	Number of citizens in NL/EU born in Ghana.	CBS	Specific legislative initiatives to engage diaspora in NL or EU.	Specific ministry or minister for diaspora					
Return migration	Number of emigrants moving from NL and EU to Ghana. Return packages.	CBS Eurostat MFA	Re-admission and re-integration policies.	Number of return migrants.	Ghana country paper, Centre Migration Studies, Accra, 2008.		Increased mobility and enhanced skills of Ghanese nationals contribute to development and stronger innovative capacity.		
Stimulate brain gain via	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of students from 	CDI	Policy to enhance return of students	Number and percentage of					

Policy Instrument EU/NL	Indicators (details)	Source	National policy of Ghana	Indicators (details)	Source	Optional: impact of non-EU countries and multilateral frameworks	Impact of measures of EU/NL, national policy and third countries in Ghana	Relative contribution to PCD objectives EU/NL - Ghana	
students from Ghana studying in NL/EU	developing countries and Ghana and as percentage of all foreign students. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability fellowship grants and level of tuition fees. • Policy to enhance return of students after graduation. 	NL policy	after graduation abroad. Facilitation of students to locate fellowship grants.	students returning home after graduating.					
Stimulate researchers from Ghana	Number of researchers participating or research cooperation programmes, and dedicated return mechanisms	http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/statistics_explained/index.php/Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics	Re-integration policies of researchers.	Number and percentage of researchers returning home after completing research.		Comparatively easier or more difficult for Ghanese researchers to cooperate?			
Engaging diasporas in migration policy	Financial resources devoted to supporting and engaging diaspora networks in NL/EU.	Government budget	Involving diasporas in development of country of origin.	Tailor-made involvement of diaspora's in development.	UNCTAD study on maximising development impact of remittances in Ghana, 2011.		Dynamic network effects of diaspora organisations can support development in country of origin.		

 Covered in EU PCD Work Programme 2010-2013

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General overview

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Annex 1D: PCD Chains for Climate Change and Energy

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Mitigate Adverse Impacts of Climate Change on Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce GHG emissions. • Reduce trends regarding the loss of biodiversity, degradation of ecosystems and desertification. • Contribute to the understanding of the climate system and the implications for mitigation and adaptation in the world, including developing countries. • Facilitate transitions towards low carbon economies and fuel generation. 							
<p>Reduce emissions of GHG-gases worldwide.</p>	<p>GHG-emission reductions by the EU and the Netherlands:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CO₂-emissions (kt) • CO₂-emissions (metric tons per capita) (2006-2011) <hr/> <p>Ratio of renewable/ fossil energy use:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Electricity production from renewable sources (% of total); • Energy production from natural gas sources (% of total); • Electricity production from oil, gas and coal sources (% of total) • Fossil fuel energy consumption (% of total) • Energy imports, net (% of energy use) 	<p>iv v</p>	<p>Has a GHG reduction policy been installed?</p> <p>Has a National Communication submitted to the UNFCCC-secretariat by the partner country?</p>	<p>GHG emissions reductions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CO₂-emissions (kt) • CO₂-emissions (metric tons per capita) (2006-2011) <hr/> <p>Ratio of renewable to fossil energy use:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Electricity production from renewable sources (% of total). • Energy production from natural gas sources (% of total). • Electricity production from oil, gas and coal sources (% of total). • Fossil fuel energy consumption (% of total). • Combustible renewables and waste (% of total energy). • Energy imports, net (% of energy use). 	<p>v</p>	<p>Reduction of GHG-emission will reduce adverse impacts on developing countries, such as drought, floods, climate instability and others.</p>	

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
Reduce emissions and loss of biodiversity from deforestation and forest degradation/ reduce tropical deforestation rates	Number of FLEGT processes implemented and launched in 2010 in partner country x. Level of international finance sustaining tropical forest management from the EU and The Netherlands	vi NAvii	Is a baseline with data on reforestation rates available?	(De)forestation trends: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forest area % of land area (2000-2010) Forest area sq km(2000-2010) Forest rents Total natural resources rents (% of GDP) GEF benefits index for biodiversity (0= no biodiversity potential to 100 = maximum) 	vi v	Reforestation and reduction of deforestation may lead to several co-benefits for the local climate, local biodiversity, water system and local communities. FSC certification of community forests helps access international markets for timber and non-timber forest products and leads to better forest management. Deforestation may lead to a chain of	
Assure that only legally harvested timber is imported into the EU (from countries agreeing to take part in the FLEGT Action Plan.)	Value of tropical timber imports, including legally harvested timber by EU and The Netherlands.	vi		Value of timber exports, including legally harvested timber to the EU. <i>Forest rents</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Value or percentage of exports with an FSC-label or a different valid certificate representing sustainable management. 	vii, viii ,	local problems such as loss of biodiversity, loss of income, climate changes, loss of natural protection against droughts, floods and diseases.	
^{ix} Enhance fossil fuel subsidy reform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fossil fuel subsidies (% total energy subsidies); RES subsidies (% total energy subsidies); 	x xi xii xiii xiv xv xvi		Energy policies targets diversification; decarbonization; RES; access to modern energy services; subsidies?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fossil fuel subsidies (% of total energy subsidies); RES subsidies (% total energy subsidies); 	xvii xviii xix xx xxi	

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
						opportunity for diversification of the power sector.	
<p>PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Strengthening the Comprehensive Approach to Climate Change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeking synergies between climate, energy, and development policies. • Facilitating access of developing countries to low-carbon and climate resilient technologies. • Facilitating access to sustainable financial instruments to sustain national mitigation and adaptation plans. • Support to developing countries taking climate change measures including through their participation in the international carbon market. 							
Strengthen the knowledge and understanding of climate change	Within the annual work program on research, the number of climate change topics specifically targeting developing countries.	xxii	Characteristics of national climate change policy and research development; i.e. number of studies dedicated to assess local adaptation and mitigation options; number of consultations with private sector companies, knowledge institutes and other stakeholders; institutional characteristics of cc policy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number EU-funded-climate change research projects targeting partner country between 2009 - 2012. • Number of Dutch/EU funded-climate-change research projects between 2009 - 2012 • Drought, floods, extreme temperature (% of population, average 1990-2009). 	NA xxiii v	Possible deliverables of research projects include strengthened knowledge about local adaptation and mitigation strategies and needs; knowledge on local risks related to climate change; critical information substantiating sustainable spatial planning, agriculture and fishery schemes and forest management.	
Identify the impacts of the EU Renewable Energy Directive's	Level of biofuels imports from developing countries to EU and The Netherlands.	? xxiv	Is the country a biofuels producer and exporter to the EU market?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biofuel production levels from country x; • Biofuel exports levels 	NA	Biofuel production may provide growth opportunities for developing countries. Several adverse impacts of increased	

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
biofuels provisions on developing countries exporting biofuels to the EU.	Level of biofuel production subsidies (net M Euros/% of consumers price) ^{ix} .	?		from country x.		biofuels production have been reported however including land grabbing, decreased local food production, increase in food prices and communal loss of land and income. Competing claims on water, 'water grabbing'. Direct and indirect public support for biofuels – especially when combined with policies such as blending mandates – can also create perverse incentives that introduce complex distortions into markets for biofuel feedstocks.	
	A methodology is established for monitoring and reporting on the impacts from increased consumption of biofuels in the EU and the main third countries of supply from 2008 onwards.	xxivxxvi xxiv	Are baseline data on biofuels production available?	Narrative or numerical data available on impacts on land use? Narrative or numerical data available on impacts on income generation?	NA		
	A set of baseline data is established describing the situation in 2008, so that the impact biofuels production can be measured from that date onwards.		Are policies in place to foster the (increased) production of biofuels?		NA, xxiv		
	The report on indirect land use assesses the impact of the promotion of biofuels and identifies ways to address any negative effects.	xxv xxvi			xxiv xxvi NA		
Annually provide €2.4 billion climate finance for the period 2010-2012, combining different financial instruments, in a coordinated way at EU level and meeting	Amount of funding available to developing countries for adaptation and mitigation measures in 2010: EU reporting on fast-track funding.	xxvii xxviii	Has a so called National Action Plan for Adaptation been submitted the LDCF?	Amount of EU climate funding available for the partner country between 2009 and 2012?	GEF; NA; xxiii	Access to climate change funding is a condition to comply with UNFCCC requirements on mitigation and helps developing countries to adapt to unavoidable impacts of climate change.	

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
developing countries expectations and needs.							
Appropriate channels are used for effective spending of fast-start funding.	Access to climate change funding through other channels (GEF, WB, private sector etc.) 2009 and 2012?	xxvii	Inclusion of climate change in national development strategies/PRSP's?	Levels of climate related ODA in the partner country between 2009 and 2010.	WB; GEF; DAC; NA	Clean development schemes.	
Integrate fast-start financing into development strategies.	Does the EU CSP or Dutch MJSP for country X include climate change between 2010 and 2012?			CDM finances to the country in from 2010 and onwards.	NA		
Adapt the CDM to facilitate the offsetting of emission reductions also in LDC.	CDM finances in 2010.	?		CDM finances to the country in from 2010 and onwards.	NA		
PCD Objectives and Assumptions: Liberalize Trade in Environmental Goods and Services at International Level. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Liberalizing trade in biofuels through phasing out tariffs and reducing non-tariff barriers. • Support to developing countries taking climate change measures including through their participation in the international carbon market. • Facilitating access of developing countries to low-carbon and climate resilient technologies. 							
Removal of tariffs and non-tariff barriers on environmental goods and services.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of tariff protection; • Existing NTCs 	?	Are subsidies or other incentives (tax) on use and import of environmentally friendly and energy saving technologies in place?	Non-tariff barriers on environmental goods and services.	? NA	Participation of developing countries in the international carbon market and sustainable production patterns. Increased use of renewable energy and other modern technologies.	
Affordability and availability of environmental goods and services, including for developing countries.	Exports of environmental goods and services.	?		Narrative or numerical data on exchanges in environmental goods and services from the partner country.			

Policy Instrument ⁱ EU/NL	Indicators EU-level	Source	National policy characteristics Country X	Indicators ⁱⁱ	Source	Impact in Country ⁱⁱⁱ	Relative Contribution to PCD-objective
International exchanges in environmental goods and services.	Value of trade in environmental. goods and services.	?		availability of environmental goods and services to the partner country.			

ⁱ PCD Objectives (derived) from EU PCD Working Programme 2010-2013 SEC(2010) 421 final,

http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/SEC_2010_0421_COM_2010_0159_EN.PDF

ⁱⁱ Most indicators coincide with explicit indicators from the EU PCD Working Programme 2010-2013 SEC(2010) 421 final

ⁱⁱⁱ Expected impact in country items are all derived from intentions and commitments by EU-decision taking

^{iv} http://unfccc.int/ghg_data/items/3800.php

^v <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/home.aspx>

^{vi} <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/forests/flegt.htm>

^{vii} NA = National administration partner country

^{viii} <http://www.cbd.int/reports/search/>

^{ix} Additional PCD Objectives derived from EU consensus

^x <http://ictsd.org/i/publications/135518/>

^{xi} http://www.iisd.org/gsi/sites/default/files/effects_ffs.pdf

^{xii} http://www.iisd.org/gsi/sites/default/files/ffs_awc_3canprovinces.pdf

^{xiii} <http://www.iisd.org/gsi/news/report-highlights-fossil-fuel-subsidies-24-oecd-countries>

^{xiv} http://www.unep.org/pdf/pressreleases/reforming_energy_subsidies.pdf

^{xv} http://www.oecd.org/document/14/0,3746,en_21571361_44315115_48811278_1_1_1_1,00.html

^{xvi} http://www.oecd.org/site/0,3407,en_21571361_48776931_1_1_1_1,00.html#data

^{xvii} <http://ictsd.org/i/publications/135518/>

^{xviii} http://www.iisd.org/gsi/sites/default/files/effects_ffs.pdf

^{xix} http://www.iisd.org/gsi/sites/default/files/ffs_awc_3canprovinces.pdf

^{xx} <http://www.iisd.org/gsi/news/report-highlights-fossil-fuel-subsidies-24-oecd-countries>

^{xxi} http://www.unep.org/pdf/pressreleases/reforming_energy_subsidies.pdf

^{xxii} EU 2011 Report on Policy Coherence for Development, SEC(2011)1627final; http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/what/development-policies/documents/eu_2011_report_on_pcd_en.doc.pdf

^{xxiii} http://unfccc.int/cooperation_support/least_developed_countries_portal/lcd_work_programme_and_napa/items/4722.php

^{xxiv} <http://www.biofuelwatch.org.uk/>

xxv <http://ec.europa.eu/trade/creating-opportunities/bilateral-relations/statistics/>

xxvi http://ec.europa.eu/energy/renewables/studies/doc/biofuels/2011_biofuels_baseline_2008.pdf

xxvii <http://www.climateinvestmentfunds.org/cif/>

xxviii http://www.oecd.org/statisticsdata/0,3381,en_2649_34421_1_119656_1_1_1,00.html