

**P4P** Global Learning Series



# Markets for Quality beyond the World Food Programme

March 2014

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# ACRONYMS

CAC	Codex Alimentations Commission
EAC	East Africa Community
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FOs	Farmers and Organizations
ISO	International Standards Organization
NGO	Non-government organization
P4P	Purchase for Progress
SHF	Smallholder farmers
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization

# INTRODUCTION

The World Food Programme's (WFP) Purchase for Progress (P4P) pilot program connects smallholder farmers (SHF) to markets using WFP's position as a major staple food buyer. (WFP purchases more than 75 percent of its food annually from developing countries.) The five-year pilot tests innovative approaches to procuring more directly from SHF, usually through farmers' organizations (FOs), to build marketing capacity, increase productivity, and ultimately increase the incomes of SHF.

P4P Pilot Countries
<b>Africa:</b> Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia
<b>Asia:</b> Afghanistan

WFP piloted P4P in 20 countries. The pilot concluded in most countries in 2013 or 2014, depending on when each country began implementation. WFP's primary role in P4P has been to purchase food; convene and foster capacity-building partnerships; engage in policy dialogue; and build capacity in specific areas, including commodity storage and handling, warehouse operations and food procurement. For the pilot, WFP relaxed some of its more stringent procurement requirements (but not quality) and added new procurement modalities to address the various marketing constraints of FOs. For example, to address the problem of limited access to credit, WFP signed forward purchase contracts with FOs. In some cases, this facilitated access credit from financial institutions for production and aggregation.

In many pilot countries, WFP had quality standards well above those of other buyers, and many FOs were able to build capacity to meet these standards. To the extent that the results of P4P depend on FOs' access to high-value markets for quality commodities, the sustainability of results depends, in part, on FO' ability to identify and sell to other quality-conscious buyers. As the pilot nears its end, WFP needs to determine the sustainability of the market for quality beyond WFP and whether P4P has developed a capacity that will have value beyond the WFP market. Access to quality markets beyond WFP is of critical importance to the sustainability of the P4P pilot results. In anticipation, WFP has, through P4P, worked to identify and develop markets for quality.

## Methodology

This report is a review and analysis of reports by 17<sup>1</sup> of the participating countries on the state of markets for quality commodities beyond WFP. The report synthesizes the country-specific information to better understand the scope of the markets that are available to help sustain market opportunities for SHFs and FOs. All data in this report was compiled from the 17 country reports.

## Country Reports Methodology

The 17 participating countries provided reports analyzing interview data from a sample of buyers within each country to assess whether there is a potential market opportunity for farmers and FOs beyond P4P (Table 1). There were a total of 156 buyers interviewed and although buyers varied in type, 44 percent were traders (Annex A).

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<sup>1</sup> Quality studies were conducted in Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, El Salvador, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guatemala, Honduras, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia.

The process for identifying and selecting<sup>2</sup> interviewed buyers was based on the following considerations: capacity, experience in country, location (to provide representation from different regions), being officially registered and on WFP’s supplier list, types of commodities (similar to WFP’s), and were not to exceed 10 buyers unless country context justified a larger number of buyers.

Once buyers were identified they were interviewed with a structured questionnaire provided by WFP. All data were analyzed and supplemented with a document review to provide background information on food quality and safety rules and regulations within the country. The amount of data and background information provided varied between reports, however in general reports included explanation of current country policies and regulations, buyer’s quality requirements and buyers’ characteristics such as, type, suppliers, storage capacity, contract modality, and inspection and laboratory use.

## BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

### WFP Quality Standards

#### Food Quality and Safety

Distributing safe and healthy food commodities is a collaborative effort throughout the entire supply chain, which involves suppliers, buyers, and governments at country, regional, and global levels. WFP endorses a comprehensive food safety and quality management system to control and manage the quality of the food delivered, from primary production to food distribution and final consumption. The system promotes adherence to standards in the form of food specifications, monitoring of vendors’ performance (food suppliers, laboratories and inspection companies), improving the nutritional value of the food commodities and specialized nutrition products, and capacity building of actors throughout the supply chain.

Risk to food safety and quality includes contamination by micro-organisms, toxins, foreign matter and chemicals; excess moisture content; commodity oxidation; nutritional value degradation; and pest infestation. Most of these can be prevented or mitigated by better knowledge of the risk factors for each commodity, appropriate handling of food and careful inspection and analysis.

#### WFP Standards

WFP also has specific standards—commodity specifications—for food commodities used in its operations. The specifications are written descriptions of different commodities and include the specific requirements that the vendor must follow to meet WFP’s contracts.

WFP has diverse food specifications, even for products that are considered the same. Maize specifications, for example, may vary significantly among countries because they must account for grain variety

**Table 1: Number of Buyers Interviewed**

P4P country	Number of buyers interviewed
Afghanistan	9
Burkina Faso	8
El Salvador	10
Ethiopia	9
Guatemala	10
Ghana	14
Honduras	6
Kenya	4
Liberia	14
Malawi	4
Mali	16
Mozambique	6
Nicaragua	10
Sierra Leone	10
Tanzania	5
Uganda	11
Zambia	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>156</b>

<sup>2</sup> Methodology sections were<sup>14</sup> only provided in seven of the reports.

characteristics, risk exposure patterns via food consumption (e.g. intake of aflatoxins), national regulations, and environmental and climatic conditions that may adversely affect foods' shelf-life. Climatic conditions can have a significant influence on nutritional quality of food commodities and specialized nutrition products, which require country- or condition-specific recommendations for their handling through WFP's supply chain.

A specification contains standards relating to the quality, appearance and delivery of the product; conditions under which it is to be grown or produced, packed, stored and transported; explicit descriptions regarding its size, weight, color and nutrient content; details of the inspection process; and specific packing and labeling requirements. Specifications used by WFP are based on international standards and aligned with national requirements and standards of recipient countries. WFP's food safety and quality management system is based on product specification, factory inspections, end-product testing and inspection during processing and packaging. It is also based in approval of new products by a technical advisory group and visual checks of food during storage. All commodity specifications and updates can be found by commodity on the Food Quality website<sup>3</sup>.

## Global Standards

WFP's food specifications for all commodities aim to align with the Codex Alimentarius standards, national legislation and any restrictions of the country (e.g., genetically modified organisms, fortification, microbiology levels, etc.). The Codex Alimentarius refers to specific international food standards, guidelines and codes of practice that contribute to the safety, quality and fairness of the international food trade. The Codex Alimentarius Commission was created in 1963 by Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and World Health Organization (WHO) to develop food standards, guidelines and related texts, such as codes of practice, under the joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Program. The main purposes of the Codex are to protect the health of consumers, ensure fair practices in the food trade, and promote coordination of all food standards work undertaken by international governmental and nongovernmental organizations. Though the Codex standards are only recommendations for voluntary application by members, they serve in many cases as a basis for national legislation.

## Current Quality in Pilot Countries

Quality varied among the 17 reporting countries, and most reported quality as being a challenge. In the context of these reports quality was based on the marketability of the product, which varied between buyers, but was often aligned with WFP standards of quality mentioned in the previous section. Quality includes attributes that influence the product's value. Some of the negative external attributes are detected in the appearance (size, shape, color, gloss and consistency), texture and flavor (table 2). Internal attributes are contaminations, such as chemical, physical and microbial. WFP considers quality to be one of the key components of safe food and quality standards serve to prevent it from entering the procurement chain. Since there are many contributing

**Table 2: Key Quality Criteria**

Moisture Content
Pest Damage
Rotten and Diseased
Discoloration
Broken or Damaged
Foreign Matter
Filth
Live or Dead Insects
Mold
Inorganic Matter
Mycotoxins
Pesticide Residues
Maturity

<sup>3</sup> <http://foodqualityandsafety.wfp.org/>



factors to food quality, it often varies by commodity, country/region and season.

According to the reports, Latin American countries had slightly higher quality than African countries and Afghanistan. In Uganda, buyers expressed frustration with the continued production of poor quality grains and lack of commitment among farmers to improve and maintain the quality of their grains. In Afghanistan, millers complained about the low quality of wheat, particularly from regions in the north, which at times was unmarketable.

Mozambique and Mali also reported generally low quality in the country. In contrast, El Salvador reported good quality food but expressed challenges with the poor marketing system where buyers have to wait for smallholder farmers to dry grain before it is ready to be sold and since farmers lack the equipment there is significant loss of quality and spoilage.

Of the different attributes that contribute to quality, the top three reasons, in descending order, for crop rejections in the 17 countries were: moisture content, infestation, and aflatoxin or mold. Moisture levels are often used as an indicator for fungus, mold, or rot. Infestation refers to any pest, including insects, rodents and birds. Although aflatoxin was not the top reason for rejection, this might be because not all countries test for it and rely on moisture content and discoloration as predictors. Other reasons for rejections included smell, discoloration, foreign matter/impurities, dirt, disease, defect and broken or damaged.

In 2013, in Kenya, discoloration was a major quality issue affecting all buyers, with millers rejecting up to 50 percent of stocks delivered by farmers and traders. In Tanzania, the majority of consumed food is not regulated strictly for aflatoxin. Although Ghana has made several attempts to address aflatoxin, it is still a problem, especially in rural areas. The lack of awareness among consumers and producers results in exposure to unsafe levels. In Malawi, aflatoxin is a significant problem. In a 2009 study<sup>4</sup>, approximately 25 percent of all market samples of powdered groundnut had contamination levels above 100ppb (WFP's Standard is 20ppb), while 29 percent of maize samples in farmer's households, and 14 percent in the local markets exceeded the safe limit of 20ppb. In Burkina Faso, it is one of the main challenges for farmers to provide quality crops due to lack of storage. El Salvador regulations do not even exist for aflatoxin contamination, which is probably very common in grains.

## Challenges and Constraints for Smallholder Farmers

Many factors can affect the quality of a farmer's crop as well as their access to markets to sell their crops. In the pilot countries, the main constraints and challenges for smallholder farmers to achieve high quality are the lack of resources (e.g. financial, post-harvest equipment, etc.), poor infrastructure, limited access to inputs (e.g. fertilizer, pesticides, etc.) or credit, lack of information about standards and good practices, distance to markets and the high cost of transportation, and lack of storage and warehouses. Below are the main challenges for the smallholder farmers that were discussed in the country reports.

**Limited access to finance and need for immediate cash.** Many countries reported a lack of access to credit or financing for small producers. Lack of access to finance assistance limits farmers' abilities to invest in their farm and improve crop quality. Loans can be used to purchase inputs (e.g., fertilizer and pesticides), storage facilities or equipment. Absence of alternative sources of income or means for farm investment affects crop quality and often forces farmers to sell crops immediately after harvest for cash rather than wait to receive higher prices during the lean season, as a group, or at a higher quality. In Malawi, lenders perceive

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<sup>4</sup> The International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) in collaboration with the National Smallholder Farmers Association of Malawi (NASFAM) carried out a study in 2009 to map the occurrence, significance and distribution of Aflatoxin contamination in groundnuts and maize in Malawi.

loans to farmers as risky because there is no national system of personal identification. Even in countries where credit is available, interest rates are very high.

**Lack of post-harvest handling.** In multiple countries, buyers said that smallholder farmers need improved technical equipment, storage capacity, and cleaning capacity to meet buyers' demands. Huge losses occur as a result of poor handling during post-harvest. According to the U.K. Natural Resources Institute, in many developing countries, the full potential of local purchase is not reached because up to 30 percent of harvested grain can be lost through poor post-harvest handling and storage.<sup>5</sup> One of the main challenges is no or inadequate storage facilities at the farm level, which causes crops to be susceptible to pest infestation, fungus, aflatoxin, and rot. Farmers often rely on buyers to purchase and store the crops. However, in Sierra Leone, buyers lack the capacity to meet the increasing demand by the producers since a majority of them are retailers and lack post-harvest equipment and storage, which creates a specific constraint of quality of the product.

**Lack of market and food quality information.** The dissemination of standards and the importance of food safety—often lacking—are relevant to both suppliers and buyers. In Mali, it was noted by buyers that despite the existence of grain standards, there is a lack of access and education, which has resulted in farmers and some buyers not being able to clearly distinguish between basic and other grades. Countries need to work to provide information, particularly to farmers, about standards, best practices, and market information to increase their competitiveness in the market. Educating farmers on how to avoid contamination during production and processing will help increase quality. As stated in Burkina Faso, there is little awareness about aflatoxins among farmers, traders and consumers and an increase in awareness could significantly decrease the high levels experienced in Burkina Faso. There is also limited access to extension services to teach farmers skills, standards and best practices. Without proper information and knowledge, farmers will not be able to be competitive in the market and the quality of their crops will suffer.

**Competition.** Price competition is a challenge for farmers. In some countries, such as Liberia and Afghanistan, imported products are cheaper than local products, making it challenging for farmers to compete. Often times, this is caused by suppliers not being able to meet the demand of the country, as well as adverse policies or lack of consumers demand for quality. In Liberia, for example, low levels of domestic production create lack of will to enact food safety and quality standards for domestically grown food. Buyers also decide to purchase imports or pay for lower quality since they are cheaper. Without demand for quality from consumers through retailers, traders may choose to purchase from the cheapest (low-quality) sources to keep the prices at which they sell to retailers low. In Uganda, there is a large market for non-graded grains, creating stiff competition because the price difference between basic and graded quality grain is small. Some farmers don't have an incentive to clean their grains if the price difference between basic and graded quality grain is minimal.

**Weather.** Although uncontrollable, weather often affects crop quality, particularly when drought or unusual rainfall patterns occur. Since farmers lack storage, rain often inhibits the drying of crops, leading to fungus or mold. In some countries, natural disasters are also of concern, for example in Nicaragua which experiences frequent floods and hurricanes.

**Poor transportation infrastructure.** Although not directly related to quality, all countries reported limitations due to poor infrastructure, often citing poor roads, which limits access to markets and buying centers. Poor infrastructure affects the ability of farmers to access and be competitive in the market. Since farmers are usually located in rural areas with limited mobility, some traders and intermediaries will buy at the farm gate, insisting on very low prices because of high transport costs.

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<sup>5</sup> Training Manual for Improving Grain Postharvest Handling and Storage, prepared on behalf of UN World Food Programme by Prof Rick Hodges and Dr Tanya Stathers, Food and Markets Department, Natural Resources Institute, UK, July 2012.

## Quality Policy in Pilot Countries

National food control systems help to reduce food borne illness by protecting the consumer from unsanitary or adulterated foods. An effective food control system should cover all produced, processed, and marketed food within a country. Key components of this system are to establish food safety and quality standards and regulations; have a management structure; provide inspection and laboratory services to monitor and collect data; and provide information, education, communication and training to food supply chain actors. All 17 countries have some form of food safety and quality laws or regulations. Responsibilities for enforcing regulations are often shared among different ministries and agencies within the country, with a wide variety of expertise and resources. All of the countries also have laws and procedures for imports, exports, and local agricultural and food products. But, countries often have stronger regulations for imports and exports than for food sold and consumed domestically.

In addition to existing legislation and regulations, many of the pilot countries are currently working to improve their laws and regulations. For example, Ghana is currently working on developing a national food safety policy to help coordinate and structure its food safety system. Kenya and Uganda are drafting national agriculture, safety, and quality policies which are currently being reviewed. Nicaragua drafted technical standards and Afghanistan is developing national foods standards. These are important developments as some other countries, like Malawi, lack a national strategic plan.

Beyond national laws and regulations, all of the countries are members of different trade or food safety agreements. For example, all of the pilot countries are Codex Alimentarius members, which produces international standards and resources that are also used by WFP for standard setting. Although Codex does not enforce standards, being a member represents the countries' acceptance of the standards. Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda are part of the of the East Africa Community (EAC), which has harmonized standards, including reaching consensus on moisture content for maize, dry beans, wheat, milled rice, millet grains, peas, sorghum, soy beans, split beans, and brown rice. The EAC adopted the grades and standards from the Eastern Africa Grain Council; the Uganda National Bureau of Standards adopted them for maize and beans. Zambia is harmonizing its standards with other countries in the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa. The country has already done this for more than 80 specifications.

## Challenges and Constraints of Quality Policy Enforcement

All of the pilot countries have some level of established regulations, but they are often not well enforced or implemented. And, although each country is unique, many of the challenges they face with implementing their policies are similar. All of the countries reported a lack of capacity to implement and regulate these laws. The reports discussed challenges, such as a lack of funds, trained or experienced personnel in quality control and assurance, equipment, monitoring and performance standards, and laboratory capacity. The main constraints for policy implementation reported by the pilot countries are discussed below.

**Financial constraints.** Governments need funds to implement standards and regulations. For example, in Liberia, the government has quality and safety measures but lacks necessary funds and skilled personnel to implement the regulations, leaving domestically produced rice with no regulations or oversight. Many of the countries' governments lack the funds to hire and train food safety staff, which limits the overall scope of implementation and enforcement, especially when it comes to monitoring food safety. This is particularly a problem in rural areas, where the majority of smallholder farmers and consumers are located. In Uganda, grades and standards are poorly enforced; therefore, they are often ignored by most stakeholders, such as farmers, FOs, and traders. Lack of funding is a foundational constraint that contributes to many other challenges, including a lack of staff, lab resources, training, inspections, and regulation enforcement.

**Fragmentation and Communication.** Consistent and continuous regulatory actions are key to a strong food safety system. Fragmentation of responsibility for implementation of regulations and laws across different ministries or agencies within the country leads to uncoordinated and ineffective implementation. In Malawi, there is inadequate collaboration and coordination among the different stakeholders involved in food safety and quality control. In addition, they lack a comprehensive food law or clear strategy to harmonize food safety and health issues performed by different sectors. In Ghana, there are 12 different ministries implementing some kind of food safety regulation as well as additional commissions and partners. In Uganda, although there are several policy frameworks in place with regulations to improve the production and trade, some of these regulations duplicate each other and are not well publicized.

**Technology.** Countries lack the capacity or technologies to regulate safe food, including inadequate laboratory capacity and equipment for food sample analysis. Malawi, for example, has no capacity to develop, test or regulate their imports—a big challenge because persistent food shortages means that food has to be imported or donated. Afghanistan has inadequate monitoring laboratories. The labs that exist have constraints with using necessary methodologies and equipment and lack qualified personnel. Mozambique does not have good laboratory practice or accredited labs. Currently, however, there is International Standards Organization (ISO) accreditation underway to bring laboratories up to international standards. Labs and technology help with science-based testing and accuracy.

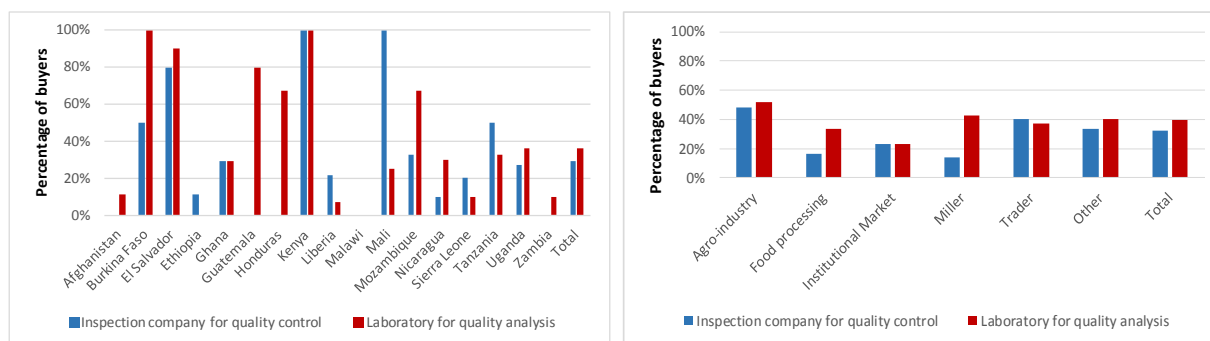
**Standards and Food Safety Information.** The lack of standards and food safety information dissemination results in a lack of implementation of standards among buyers and farmers. Although explained in the previous section as to how lack of dissemination of standards affects farmers and buyers, the effect on enforcement should also be noted, since this increases the challenge of enforcing standards on groups with little to no understanding of the regulations.

## Quality Standards of Buyers

With an absence of a control mechanism for quality requirements, many buyers rely on their own standards when purchasing food crops. These standards have some differences, but most of them share similar criteria. The main criteria usually consist of checking for moisture content, coloration, foreign objects, mold or fungus, aflatoxin, dirt, damage, and rot. Although most buyers use similar criteria, they vary a little in the way they measured the criteria and which level of standards they accept.

Although the number of buyers who use specific methods to determine quality was not collected, according to buyers' listed criteria and report narratives, most buyers relied on physical observation with the exception of moisture content testing device, which seems to be used more regularly, especially by the larger buyers. Some buyers relied on inspection companies or did lab testing of the crops (Figure 1). Only Burkina Faso, El Salvador, Kenya, Mali, and Tanzania had 50 percent or more of their buyers using private inspection companies (Annex B). Kenya and Mali are the only countries where all buyers use inspection companies. Mali inspections are done through the Office of Agricultural Products of Mail. Afghanistan, Honduras, Malawi, and Zambia conduct some government inspections, although the reports did not give specifics, but do not use private inspection companies. Third-two percent of all buyers used inspection companies and 39 percent used laboratories for quality analysis (Annex B).

**Figure 1: Percentage of Buyers Utilizing Inspection Companies and Laboratories**



Six of the 17 countries said that 65 percent or more of their buyers used labs to check for quality. El Salvador and Guatemala reported 80 percent using labs, while Burkina Faso, Kenya, and Honduras reported 100 percent (Annex B). Conversely, in Malawi, none of the four buyers interviewed reported using inspection companies or labs. Zambia had one buyer out of ten that used labs and Ethiopia had one buyer that used an inspection company. Generally, more buyers reported using labs than inspection companies. However, two buyers in Tanzania and one in Guatemala did not always use these resources but rather would provide lab tests or inspections if it was requested from their buyer, for example, when they were selling to WFP.

### WFP vs. Buyer Standards

According to the criteria that were listed in nine of the reports, the buyers’ have similar quality criteria to those of WFP; however, they are not always as strict or evaluated using scientific methods, such as lab samples. As stated above, all countries are Codex Alimentarius members; however, with lack of government oversight, companies rely on their own standards. Not all reports included the buyers’ standards limits and none of the reports stated how many of the buyers within each country follow the standards. Of the nine reports that noted standards thresholds, most were similar to both WFP and Codex standards. For example, the Codex standard for maximum moisture content in maize is 15.5 percent; the WFP standard is 13.5 percent. Pilot country standards ranged between 11–18 percent, with most being around 13 percent. Similar comparisons can be seen with the other testing methods (Table 3).

**Table 3: Key Criteria for Maize Quality Inspection**

	Codex Standards	WFP Standards	Buyer standards*
<b>Moisture Content</b>	15.5%	13.5%	11 – 18%
<b>Foreign Matter</b>	1.5%	1%	1-3%
<b>Broken or damaged crop</b>	6%	4%	.5 – 8%
<b>Aflatoxin</b>	20 ppb	20 ppb	20 ppb**
<b>Discoloration</b>	2- 5%	1%	1%

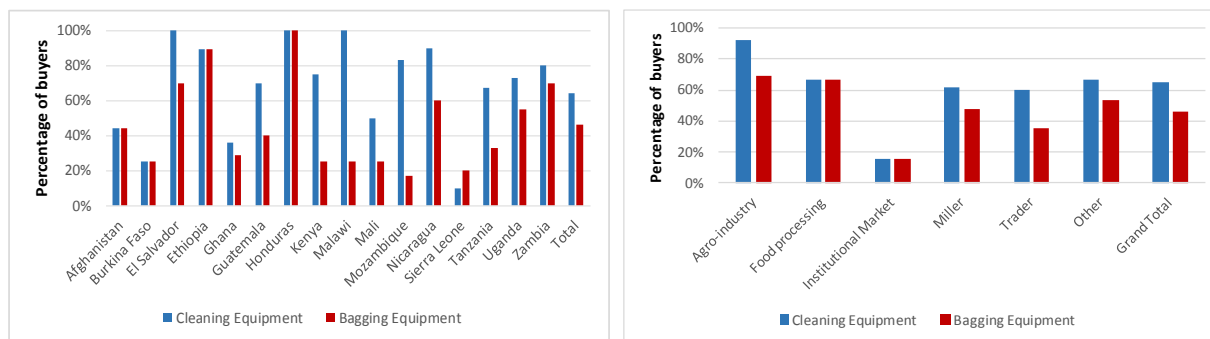
\*Buyer standards are limited to the 9 of 17 countries that provided this information.

\*\* This information was only provided in two reports.

Although buyers reported having these standards, the country reports state, without giving precise numbers, that most of the buyers rely on visual and physical observations to determine the crop quality. For example,

in Malawi, although some companies use moisture meters to determine moisture, some test the moisture content level by biting. In addition, many buyers have invested in post-harvest equipment and are prepared to clean or package the crop after they purchase it, meaning they are willing to purchase at a lower standard knowing that they will improve the quality with their post-harvest interventions (Figure 2). Other buyers will just reject crops if they are not of good quality. Overall, 65 percent of the buyers had cleaning equipment and 46 percent had bagging equipment (Annex B). In El Salvador, Honduras, and Malawi, 100 percent of the interviewed buyers had cleaning equipment, while in Ethiopia, Mozambique, Nicaragua, and Zambia 80 percent or more of the buyers reported having cleaning equipment (Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Buyers' Use of Quality Enhancement Equipment and Services**



\*No data was provided from Liberia on these questions

## EXTENT OF MARKET BEYOND WFP

Most of the interviewed buyers from all of the countries said that they would be interested in purchasing higher quality products, even at a slightly higher cost. At least 40 of the interviewed buyers in each country reported that they would purchase quality commodities, except Sierra Leone, where only one buyer (7 percent) was interested in paying more for higher quality. In Burkina Faso, Ghana, Liberia, Mali, and Tanzania 100 percent of buyers were interested in buying quality. Overall, 77 percent of buyers said they would consider purchasing their commodities at a higher price for quality. Table 4 summarizes data on potential buyers and their procurement characteristics.

A majority of buyers interviewed expressed interest in having long-term contractual arrangements with smallholder FOs if they could be assured of high quality and volume. Advantages to these long-term contracts, if met, would include reliability of delivery time, avoidance of price fluctuations, financial benefits, capacity-building trainings, and consistent supply of quality product.

Better quality would equal savings, because cleaning would be unnecessary and transport rates would be lower. Eight of the 17 countries interviewed large traders (capable of delivering more than 20 to 40,000 mt) willing to pay a little more for quality crops and contract with FOs. Also, although there was limited data, it was mentioned in the Malawi report that some of the larger buyers would partner with NGOs or other stakeholders to support livelihood programs, including trainings and input or credit loans. In Liberia, it was mentioned that buyers wanted to support local farmers.

**Table 4: Key Characteristics of Potential Buyers for P4P**

Country	Commodities	Total Buyers	Buyers that currently or would consider paying for quality	Collection	Supplier	Modality	Price Premium	Est. Volume Demanded in Metric Tons (2013)
<b>Afghanistan</b>	wheat	9	5 buyers (4 millers, 1 trader)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	middlemen, farmers, traders	verbal	1–5%	1,000–12, 000 wheat
<b>El Salvador</b>	maize, beans, sorghum	10	8 buyers (4 agroindustry, 4 traders)	traders, collection points, farm gate	farmer organization, farmers, middlemen, small traders, large traders, commodity exchange	verbal, contract	3–5%	300–100,000 maize, 100– 17,000 beans, 100–28,000 sorghum
<b>Guatemala</b>	white maize, black Beans	10	8 buyers (3 millers, 1 retailer, 4 traders)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	local traders, farmers, middlemen, farmer organization	verbal, contract	no but considered, 8–10%	5,000–18,000 maize, 2,000– 5,000 beans
<b>Honduras</b>	maize, beans	6	5 buyers (4 traders, 1 other)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	farmers, farmer organization, middlemen	verbal	1–5%	500–4,500 maize, 1,000– 3,500 beans
<b>Nicaragua</b>	maize, beans	10	5 buyers (2 traders, 3 agroindustry)	farm gate	farmer organization, farmers, middlemen	verbal, contract	3–15%	2,270 maize, 1,590 beans
<b>Ethiopia</b>	white maize, white and red haricot bean	9	8 buyers (2 grain traders, 4 food processors, 1 institutional, 1 pulses/oil exporter)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse, trader	farmer organization, farmers, small traders	verbal, tender, contract	1–11%	2,000–7,000 maize, 1,000– 14,000 white/red haricot beans
<b>Kenya</b>	maize, beans, sorghum	4	4 buyers (3 traders, 1 miller)	local/regional warehouse	middlemen, small traders, big traders, government reserve	verbal	5–7%	25,000–60,000 maize, 10,000–25,000 beans, 3,000–5,000 sorghum

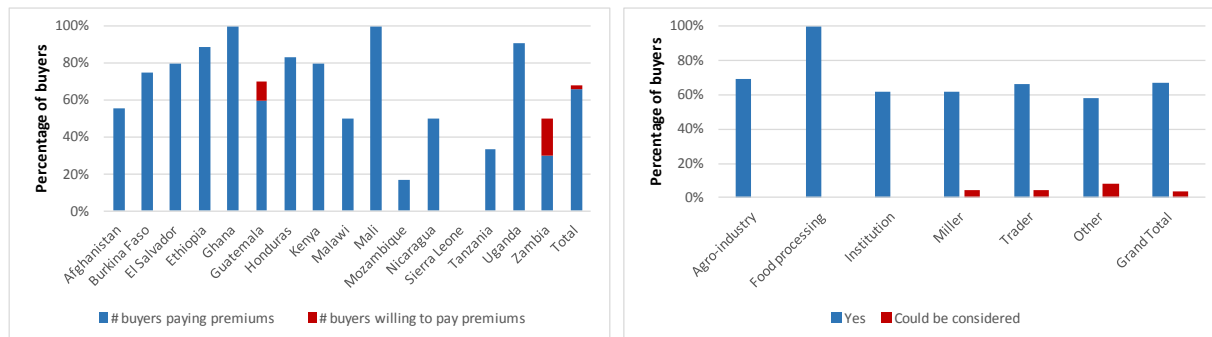
Country	Commodities	Total Buyers	Buyers that currently or would consider paying for quality	Collection	Supplier	Modality	Price Premium	Est. Volume Demanded in Metric Tons (2013)
<b>Uganda</b>	maize, beans, sorghum	11	10 buyers (7 agroindustry, 2 traders, 1 brewer)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	farmers, farmer organization, middlemen, small traders	verbal, contract (farmers)	3–15%	800–14,000 maize, 3,000–3,000 beans, 1,000–9,000 sorghum
<b>Malawi</b>	maize, pulses	4	2 buyers (2 traders)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	farmers, farmer organization, middlemen	verbal, contract	4–30%	150–800 maize, 2,350–3,000 pulses
<b>Mozambique</b>	maize	6	3 buyers (1 trader/miller)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	Farmers, farmer organization, warehouse	verbal, contract	10 USD/MT	60,000 maize
<b>Tanzania</b>	maize, beans	5	5 buyers (1 institutional, 1 miller, 3 traders)	farm gate, middlemen, traders, local/regional warehouse	farmers, farmer organization, small traders, middlemen	verbal, contract	penalize for low quality, considered	5,000–241,000 maize
<b>Zambia</b>	maize	10	5 buyers (2 millers, 1 trader, 1 NGO, 1 other)	local/regional warehouse	big traders, small traders, farmers, government reserve	verbal, contract (farmers)	5%	89–70,000 maize
<b>Burkina Faso</b>	millet, sorghum, maize, white beans	8	8 buyers (2 institutional, 5 traders, 1 miller)	local warehouse	large traders, farmers, farmer organization, middlemen national reserve	tender, contracts, farmers and farmer organization	N/A	maize: 10,783 MT, sorghum: 17,101 MT, beans: 10,213 MT
<b>Ghana</b>	maize, rice	14	14 buyers (3 agroindustry, 2 traders, 1 NGO, 3 hospitals, 4 schools, 1 other)	farm gate, local/regional warehouse	farmers, middlemen, farmer organization, local traders	contract, verbal, tender	0–15%	35–40,000 MT maize
<b>Liberia</b>	rice, beans	14	14 buyers* (1 trader, 3 urban retail, 1 NGO, 5 concession, 3	local warehouse, farm gate, market, traders	imported, middlemen, farmers, local company	verbal, contract	N/A	10–1,500 MT beans, 18–11,000 MT rice



Country	Commodities	Total Buyers	Buyers that currently or would consider paying for quality	Collection	Supplier	Modality	Price Premium	Est. Volume Demanded in Metric Tons (2013)
			institutional, 1 UN) <i>*This specific questions was not report on, however in report narrative interest from buyers was expressed.</i>					
<b>Mali</b>	sorghum, millet, rice, maize, beans	16	16 buyers (1 institutional, 3 millers, 12 traders)	farm gate	farmers, farmer organization, middlemen, government reserves	verbal, contract and FDC with trader and farmer organization, grain exchange	yes, premium of 25 \$/MT	1,750–80,000 MT millet, 3,000–25,000 sorghum, 200–6,5000 maize, 200–2,500 rice, 10–500 MT beans
<b>Sierra Leone</b>	rice, garri, pigeon peas	10	1 buyers (1 Trader)	local or regional warehouse,	farmers, FOs, local traders	Direct contract	N/A	500 MT rice, 500 MT Garri

Sixty-six percent of buyers interviewed reported paying premiums for quality crops, and two percent reported that they would be willing to offer premiums (Chart 3 and Annex C). All of the food processors are paying premiums, however processors represent just 4 percent of interviewed buyers (6 of 156) (Annex D). However, some of the other countries' systems, punish farmers for poor quality with lower prices rather than rewarding good quality product, which was the case in Tanzania. Overall, buyers reported paying premiums from 1 to 30 percent, with an average of 5 percent (Annex D). In some countries, such as Ethiopia, the suppliers, not the farmers, received the premium because they are the ones in direct contact with the exporters or food processors.

**Figure 3: Percentage of Buyers Willing to pay a Premium for Quality**



\*No data was provided from Liberia on these questions

In 14 of the 17 countries, 60 percent or more of the buyers interviewed reported buying from FOs. However, most buy through intermediaries and traders who buy directly at the farm gate. Few (8 percent) reported using contracts while 36 percent reported buying through verbal agreements at the farm gate (Table 5 and Annex E). In fact, in only 5 of the 17 countries did any buyers report using contracts to buy from a farmer or FO. All countries use some form of contract with either traders or farmers, except for Honduras and Kenya, who rely on verbal contracts only. In Uganda, of those buyers that use contracts, 50 percent are with farmers (3 out of 6). The other 4 countries have only 1 - 3 buyers using direct contracts with farmers (Ghana, Guatemala, Zambia, Nicaragua and El Salvador).

In Liberia none of the buyers purchased directly from farmers. In Uganda, 36 percent of buyers already have contracts with farmers; however, most that purchase directly from farmers and FOs do not have official contracts and rely on verbal agreements at the farm-gate. Often times, buyers set up rural centers where farmers will bring their product to be inspected and sold. In some regions, buyers will travel to farms to purchase the crops.

**Table 5: Purchasing Modality used by Buyers**

Country	Verbal contract at farm gate	Verbal contract with trader	Direct Contract	Forward contract	Contract farming	Tender	Trade fairs/ conventions	Other
Afghanistan	78%	67%	11%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Burkina Faso	50%	50%	25%	0%	0%	25%	0%	0%
El Salvador	60%	20%	30%	0%	10%	0%	30%	0%
Ethiopia	0%	44%	78%	0%	0%	67%	0%	0%
Ghana	36%	21%	21%	21%	7%	36%	0%	0%
Guatemala	20%	40%	60%	30%	30%	0%	0%	0%
Honduras	50%	33%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	17%
Kenya	50%	75%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Liberia	29%	14%	14%	0%	0%	0%	0%	43%
Malawi	25%	75%	25%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Mali	0%	81%	94%	81%	0%	94%	94%	0%
Mozambique	17%	0%	17%	17%	0%	17%	0%	33%
Nicaragua	60%	10%	30%	0%	0%	0%	0%	10%
Sierra Leone	0%	50%	30%	0%	0%	10%	0%	0%
Tanzania	67%	67%	50%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Uganda	64%	82%	36%	9%	36%	0%	0%	0%
Zambia	0%	70%	20%	10%	20%	10%	0%	10%
<b>Global average</b>	<b>36%</b>	<b>49%</b>	<b>37%</b>	<b>17%</b>	<b>8%</b>	<b>23%</b>	<b>14%</b>	<b>4%</b>

## Challenges with Purchasing from Smallholder Farmers

Although many buyers are interested in forming long-term contracts with FOs, this was often expressed with the understanding that a certain level of quality and quantity could be delivered from those FOs. Many of the buyers interviewed said certain challenges precluded them from currently having contracts with farmers and FOs. These challenges included farm location and lack of trust. In addition, some of the traders have less interest in purchasing higher quality crops because they have already invested in equipment to clean the crops after purchase. In Sierra Leone, buyers prefer to deal directly with the producers to cut costs, but they are constrained by transportation problems, including poor or nonexistent roads and lack of transport facilities.

Some buyers said that they have had challenging partnerships with farmers before or felt that FOs could not reliably supply them with the desired quantities of a consistently high-standard product. For this reason, they are hesitant to contractually bind themselves to farmers. Buyers feel that farmers are not prepared to fulfill a contractual agreement of large quantities because of low crop production, which results from bad weather; poor quality; or intentional side selling of produce to other buyers. Continued production of poor quality grains and lack of commitment and capacity among farmers to improve and maintain the quality of their grains has been a challenge in many of the countries.

In the narratives of the reports, although not quantified, buyers mentioned that FOs lack basic business management skills. They also said that FOs need to change their behavior from just selling surplus product to

being market-oriented by transitioning from selling immediately after harvest for very little money to investing in their farms. Farmers need to be aware of the value added from investing which increases income-generation. Farmers need to be established in FOs and trained in farm management and planning, including being able to properly calculate costs. This will benefit the farmers and buyers; establishing a successful business relationship will result in buyers receiving quality product and farmers receiving better prices. For the farmers to engage competitively in quality markets, some key issues—including timeliness, quality, volume, and marketing skills to be able to reach out to the markets and compete with other sellers—need to be addressed.

In Uganda, buyers expressed reluctance to contracting with FOs because (a) if prices fall below the prices agreed upon in the contract (then, the purchasing company will be incurring losses and some companies may cancel the contracts); and (b) if prices elsewhere are above the prices in the agreement, farmers are likely to sell produce elsewhere. Buyers also do not like the expectation from the farmers of having to pay all on delivery, although on average globally 71 percent of buyers are providing cash on delivery (Annex F).

Alternatively, in Zambia, buyers were content with the quality of the crops they received and not interested in paying more for even better quality. Instead, one company had been investing in the extension system to provide services to the farmers, which ensured the quality, and another buyer only buys the quality they want.

## **STAKEHOLDERS' POTENTIAL TO MOVE FORWARD**

Although each country has its own contextual influences to their markets, they all also have some potential opportunities that can be supported with a targeted approach to each country's context. For WFP, there are many different ways it can help support the market depending on how involved it wants to be. To understand some of these ways this section will describe the different recommendations and suggestions that were provided in the country reports by buyers and WFP staff. It should be noted that the section is not meant to provide recommendations beyond direct excerpts from the reports and that within the reports are country specific suggestions that might be lost in general suggestions discussed below. Below are different suggestions from the 17 reports broken into three categories of focus: government, partners and buyers, and farmers.

### **Government**

As discussed above, the pilot country governments generally lack the capacity to implement regulations and standards. WFP could help strengthen their capacity by helping to draft new policy, enhancing their capacity to implement and enforce regulations, or training food safety personnel. WFP could also work to support the government's involvement in controlling quality and prices, rather than leaving it to the forces of demand and supply.

In some countries, like Afghanistan and El Salvador, laws and standards need to be further developed and supported to ensure food safety. Through collaboration with policy makers and implementers, WFP could provide resources to governments to support their policy process. WFP could help support the process by providing expertise or advocating for policy development. As for implementing regulations, WFP can offer guidance and encourage revision of unsound policies. For example, WFP should encourage imposing import restrictions on lower quality products, the importation of which drives quality down throughout the market as local producers try to compete.

Regulations are not enough. Governments need help to educate their food safety staff to increase their regulation enforcement capacity. Inspectors need to be trained so they can inspect local products, lab

technicians need to be able to provide scientific results and implementers need to be trained on policy and regulations. WFP could provide technical training or help to support the government in increasing human capacity and infrastructure to strengthen the implementation of the system. WFP can bring its expertise to mentor the development the government through staff advancements.

Farmers, buyers, and consumers all need education. WFP should work with the governments as well as its partners and industry to better educate farmers and consumers on safe food practices. Furthermore, resources on standards and best practices need to be accessible for industry to be able to use them. In addition, extension services should be supported, developed, or expanded. Extension officers can disseminate important information about practices and standards to farmers and provide access to other resources as well.

Farmers and buyers must be able to access the market. WFP could engage with local governments to open markets up through road development and access to rural regions. Increasing the availability of collection points would also increase access. So would creating or promoting infrastructure/equipment for adequate post-harvest production at the farms. Ghana implements food/cash for work interventions to help improve market infrastructure, including feeder roads and community storage facilities. WFP can partner with or leverage the government or other organizations to help develop the infrastructure which is restricting market access and growth.

## **Partners and Buyers**

The private sector and development organizations have already played significant roles in many of these countries in developing, implementing, and enforcing safety standards. For the private sector, an important component of establishing a sustainable market is to ensure that the relationships between the suppliers and buyers are developed and maintained. WFP can play the initial role in linking existing FOs to buyers, helping to strengthen the engagement and confidence in the relationship. While promoting mutually beneficial relationships, WFP can help manage the relationship and supply chain and provide needed support for different challenges that arise.

In general, buyers and traders believe that if the farmers have been supplying WFP, then they have the required capacity in terms of volume, quality, and contract understanding to supply traders. Buyers interviewed are among the main WFP vendors and have confidence in WFP's systems to ensure quality, and the clearance of vendors and traders for registration. These vendors want to buy from farmer groups working with WFP, if WFP provides the buyers with the cleared list, and introduces the groups to each other, from there they will continue to develop on their own. In addition to creating more relationships, facilitating the linkage of existing buyers and FOs will help in strengthening the engagements and confidence building with both the smallholder farmers and the other buyers.

WFP needs to continue the efforts through P4P to encourage contracts to be formed between buyers and FOs. WFP needs to assure buyers that the FOs can meet the buyers' demands, which also means they need to ensure the FOs can actually meet those demands. WFP can encourage industry to invest in the farmers through training, or providing technical support, in addition to finding new partners, such as financial institutions, to help increase the capacity of the farmers by providing access to business, financial, and private enterprise services to help scale up the existing FOs. WFP should leverage the emergence of new private sector partners that are more socially oriented and support smallholder farmers.

In addition, WFP should continue through P4P to leverage partnerships which is extremely important since WFP doesn't have the capacity to fill in all of the gaps in the supply chain. For example, in Malawi several buyers said they were interested in providing support to farmers and farmer organization. In Kenya, P4P collaborated with partners to organize a market linkage forum that aimed to connect stakeholders in

production and marketing. They brought together banks, NGOs, Ministry of Agriculture, district agriculture officers, large grain traders, processors and P4P registered farmer organization and traders to discuss their different roles. Banks would then provide information on loans to the farmers and even offer special rates for the FOs and traders in attendance. As a result, FOs were able to sell their product to other markets. In addition, FOs also used WFP contracts as collateral to be able to pay their members in advance helped the FO manage aggregation and also met the needs of farmers for immediate cash. Events like these should be used in other countries to leverage available and interested partners into participating in building the capacity of the food safety system.

## **Farmers**

FOs are the key component of many country level P4P strategies and need to be supported. By developing smallholder farmers and FOs' capacity through programs like P4P, farmers can enhance their productivity, which is essential to the improvement of crop quality and quantity to meet buyers' needs. As suggested by these reports, this means providing support in farm management, business and overall best practices, and quality requirements. Building the farmers' capacities through training, access to financial assistance, and access to the market will improve the quality and quantity of their crops, helping to create a sustainable system between the producers and the buyers. It should also be noted that these suggestions are from buyers and WFP staff and although helpful, could lack the full scope of FO capacity building that is needed in each country.

Support can be through providing education and resources to farmers on standards and best practices. This can be given by WFP or leveraged and coordinated with other partners. To reach their full potential, farmers need to be supported with continued sensitization and training in post-harvest handling techniques, business and management of farms, competitive tendering, how to detect good quality, negotiations, and the procurement procedures set by their specific country. This can also be supported through extension services if they exist in the country.

The formation and strengthening of FOs should be a priority. Smallholder farmers should be encouraged to have good community storage to bulk their food to be sold together. WFP can foster partnerships that will help farmers invest in proper storage and handling facilities and will provide farmers more benefits and opportunities to engage in markets. For sustainability, FOs might need a sales representative to establish business strategies with potential buyers as large buyers demand the establishment of formal contracts with legally recognized producers that can guarantee larger volumes. To improve negotiation and marketing ability, the organizations should form or strengthen commissions for commercialization. In addition, FOs could be registered as legal entities that can sue or be sued if a contract is breached. Much of this could come through management and business training, as well as having access to resources, whether through extension agents or other expertise, like WFP, that can assist in FO formation and development.

WFP should find new partners to provide business and financial services, private enterprise training to FOs, and work through associations that can aggregate and supply increased quality crop volumes to private sector buyers. Farmers need to have increased access to capital, which will allow them to purchase supplies, tools equipment and inputs to increase production. WFP could create platform that will bring together the technical and financial partners, so as to encourage the banks to extend credit and commercial partners to provide supplies.

## CONCLUSION

Overall, all 17 reports suggested that there are markets for quality beyond WFP. Based on the findings from the questionnaires it is clear that the majority of buyers, 77 percent, currently pay a premium for quality or would be willing to do so. However, the 17 reports discussed only look at which buyers would be interested in working with FOs, which is a necessary element. But, before those contracts and relationships can be formed, WFP and partners must build the capacity of the farmers so that they can meet the demand of the buyers. And before attempting that, it would be beneficial to receive feedback from FOs and farmers to determine their specific regional challenges and hesitations from joining FOs. It is unclear from the reports how many FOs there are, what their level of quality and volume is and in general, their overall capacity. It is necessary to have a potential market of buyers and to have strong and well-developed suppliers.

A sustainable procurement system requires all points of the supply chain to be strengthened. From the production stage, quality and quantity need to be improved, standards need to be set and enforced, contracts need to be in place and buyers need to purchase crops at an agreed upon price. This leaves many areas where WFP can assist in strengthening the system. However, there are limitations to what WFP can do alone. It is essential to use partners to help support system improvement. This will also allow for more resources and expertise to participate in the development of the procurement system.

Although, this report provides good data on the buyers, there are some limitations. It was not clear in these reports as to how all buyers defined or measured quality and if this varies between buyers or countries. Criteria were provided in 9 of the 17 reports, however it was not mentioned if these were the criteria that were followed by all buyers, in addition there was little discussion on how strict these buyers are with accepting different levels of quality. Without a consistent definition or understanding of the term quality it is difficult to interpret the findings.

In addition, having information on when premiums are given based on quality would be helpful. The reports provided information on which buyers provide premiums, but it was not linked to the level of quality that was required to receive that premium. More specific information on buyers' quality and premium requirements would give more context to understand the demand of quality within each country.

In general, WFP should share with others the lessons learned and experience from current P4P contracts as a way to promote and scale up the program. By learning from the existing challenges and how they can best be addressed, WFP can better manage the development of new partnerships. This includes leveraging existing relationship between farmers and buyers and further fostering their development.

Potential markets for quality commodities exist beyond WFP in all of the pilot countries that submitted reports. But, farmers, governments and buyers face many challenges. For the markets to be sustained, farmers and FOs will need to deliver quality crops at high volumes. As WFP moves forward, it will need to support both the suppliers and the buyers, which means linking FOs and buyers, while building the trust between them and ensuring that farmers can fulfill their contractual requirements.

## Annex A: Types of Buyers by Country

Country	Trader	Agro-industry	Food processing	Institution	Miller	Other	Country total
Afghanistan	1	-	-	-	8	-	9
Burkina Faso	5	-	1	2	-	-	8
El Salvador	4	5	-	1	-	-	10
Ethiopia	3	-	4	1	-	1	9
Ghana	2	3	-	7	-	2	14
Guatemala	5	-	-	-	4	1	10
Honduras	4	1	-	-	-	1	6
Kenya	3	-	-	-	1	-	4
Liberia	4	-	-	-	-	10	14
Malawi	4	-	-	-	-	-	4
Mali	12	1	1	-	2	-	16
Mozambique	2	1	-	-	3	-	6
Nicaragua	6	3	-	-	-	1	10
Sierra Leone	7	3	-	-	-	-	10
Tanzania	3	-	-	1	1	-	5
Uganda	2	8	-	-	-	1	11
Zambia	1	1	-	1	2	5	10
<b>Buyer type total</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>156</b>
<b>Total Percentage</b>	<b>44%</b>	<b>17%</b>	<b>4%</b>	<b>8%</b>	<b>13%</b>	<b>14%</b>	<b>-</b>



## Annex B: Buyers' Use of Quality Enhancement Equipment and Services, by Country and Buyer Type

Country	Percentage of buyers utilizing			
	Cleaning Equipment	Bagging Equipment	Inspection company for quality control	Laboratory for quality analysis
Afghanistan	44%	44%	0%	11%
Burkina Faso	25%	25%	50%	100%
El Salvador	100%	70%	80%	90%
Ethiopia	89%	89%	11%	0%
Ghana	36%	29%	29%	29%
Guatemala	70%	40%	0%	80%
Honduras	100%	100%	0%	67%
Kenya	75%	25%	100%	100%
Liberia	N/A	N/A	21%	7%
Malawi	100%	25%	0%	0%
Mali	50%	25%	100%	25%
Mozambique	83%	17%	33%	67%
Nicaragua	90%	60%	10%	30%
Sierra Leone	10%	20%	20%	10%
Tanzania	67%	33%	50%	33%
Uganda	73%	55%	27%	36%
Zambia	80%	70%	0%	10%
<b>Average</b>	<b>64%</b>	<b>46%</b>	<b>29%</b>	<b>36%</b>

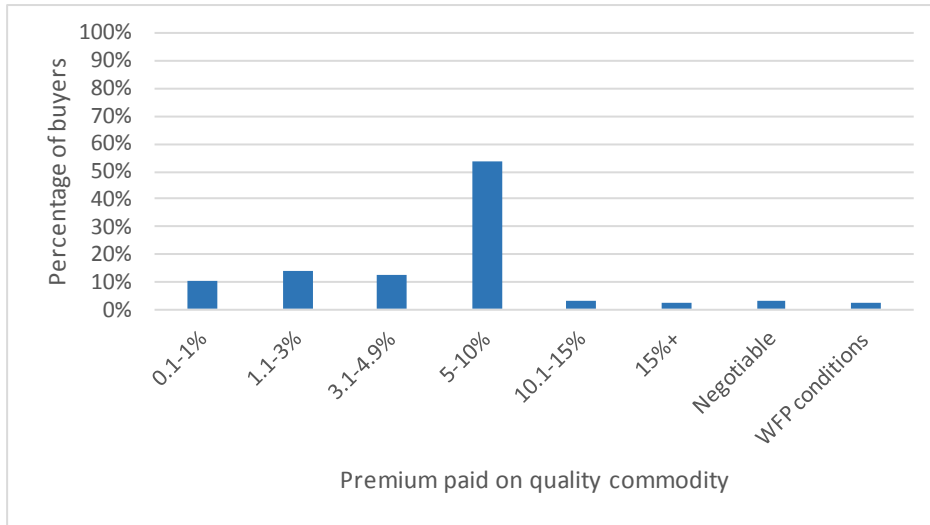
Buyer Type	Cleaning Equipment	Bagging Equipment	Inspection company for quality control	Laboratory for quality analysis
Agro-industry	92%	69%	48%	52%
Food processing	67%	67%	17%	33%
Institutional Market	15%	15%	23%	23%
Miller	62%	48%	14%	43%
Trader	60%	35%	40%	37%
Other	67%	53%	33%	40%
<b>Total</b>	<b>65%</b>	<b>46%</b>	<b>32%</b>	<b>39%</b>

## Annex C: Percentage of Buyers Willing to Pay a Premium for Quality by Country and Buyer Type

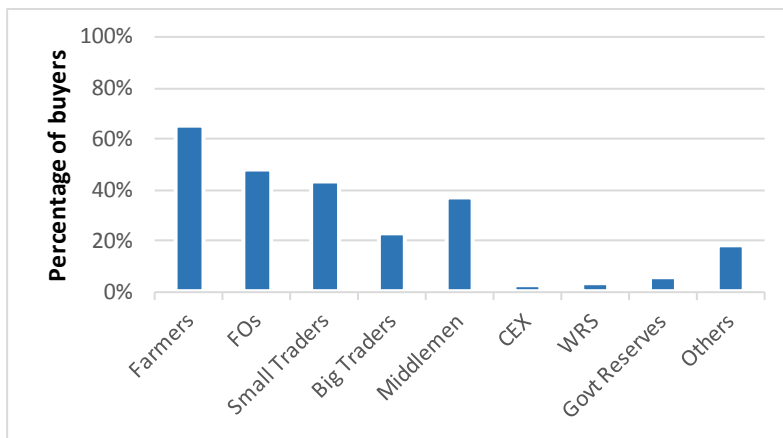
Percentage of buyers willing to pay a price premium for quality		
Country	Yes	Could be considered
Afghanistan	56%	0%
Ghana	100%	0%
Honduras	83%	0%
Liberia	N/A	N/A
Mali	100%	0%
Nicaragua	40%	10%
Uganda	91%	0%
Burkina Faso	63%	13%
El Salvador	80%	0%
Ethiopia	89%	0%
Guatemala	60%	10%
Kenya	100%	0%
Malawi	50%	0%
Mozambique	50%	0%
Sierra Leone	0%	10%
Tanzania	33%	17%
Zambia	33%	11%
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>66%</b>	<b>2%</b>

Percentage of buyers willing to pay a price premium for quality		
Buyer Type	Yes	Could be considered
Agro-industry	69%	0%
Food processing	100%	0%
Institution	62%	0%
Miller	62%	5%
Trader	66%	5%
Other	58%	8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>67%</b>	<b>4%</b>

## Annex D: Distribution of Quality Premiums used by Buyers



## Annex E: Sources of Commodities Utilized by Buyers



# Annex F: Prevalence of Payment Mechanisms used by Buyers

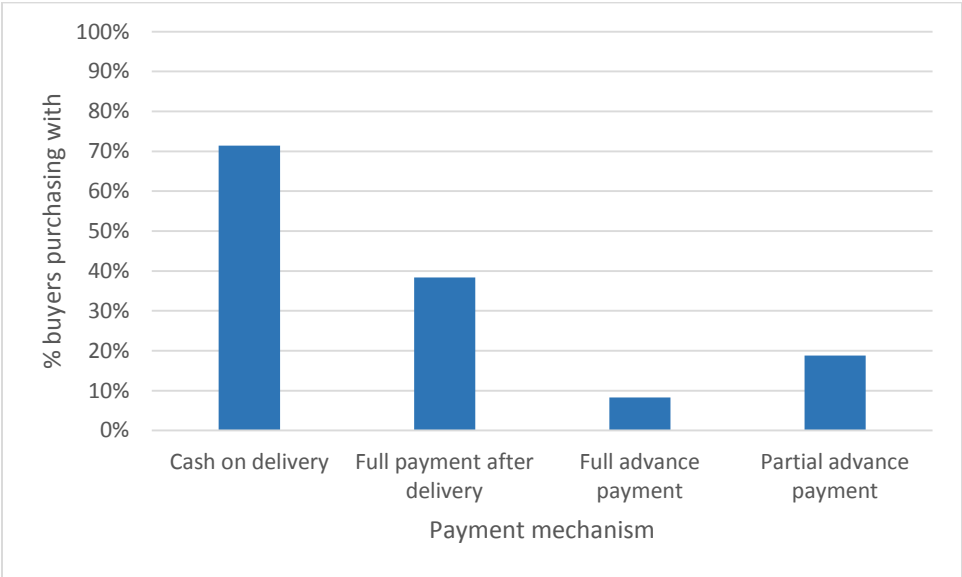




Photo front cover: WFP/Ken Davies

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**20 P4P pilot countries**

**Asia:** Afghanistan

**Africa:** Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia

**Latin America:** El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua