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Organización  
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para la  
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y la  
Alimentación

## CONFERENCE

### INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON AGRARIAN REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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**FAO's Contribution to Good Policies and Practices in Agrarian Reform  
and Rural Development: A Brief Overview**

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## **FAO's Contribution to Good Policies and Practices in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development: A Brief Overview**

### **I. The Global Challenge: the Millennium Development Goals**

1. At the dawn of the twenty-first century, we are still plagued by the morally unacceptable scourge of poverty and hunger. Conscious of its obligations, the international community came together at the Millennium Summit to agree on 8 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that will form the heart of their efforts, undertaken in partnerships between governments, civil society, the private sector and international organizations, to tackle this daunting challenge. Since, of the world's 1.1 billion extremely poor people, 75 % live in rural areas and depend largely on agriculture, forestry, fisheries and related activities for survival, the key challenge to eradicate global poverty and hunger *must lie* in effective agrarian reform and rural development. Thus, FAO's work in this crucial task contributes directly to the achievement of the MDGs – especially MDG 1 (eradicate extreme poverty and hunger), MDG7 (ensure environmental sustainability) and MDG 8 (develop a global partnership for development).

### **II. World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (Rome, 1979)**

2. Twenty-one years before the Millennium Summit, FAO alerted the world to the challenge of poverty and to its rural character at the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD). Attended by representatives of 145 countries, including four heads of state and 89 ministers, as well as UN agencies, inter-governmental organizations and NGOs, the Conference adopted by acclamation the Declaration of Principles and Programme of Action that subsequently became known as the "Peasants' Charter".

3. This charter of the rural poor emphasized that rural development is a global problem that has to be addressed simultaneously on several inter-connected fronts: by building self-reliant institutions *at the village level*, by reorienting national development policies *at the national level*, and by realizing a New International Economic Order, *at the global level*.

4. The charter highlighted the following *principles*:

- The primary objective of agrarian reform and rural development should be to improve the quality of life of all people, especially the rural poor. Growth is necessary but not sufficient; it must be buttressed by equity and people's participation;
- Effective strategies require the building of self-reliant institutions and promote multisectoral measures, to enhance incomes, ensure equitable distribution of assets, and improve the lives of the rural poor;
- Participation of all stakeholders, especially the rural poor who are usually marginalised, in all stages of development processes is essential; and
- Rural development requires both local level activities and the re-orientation of government policies.

5. The *essential ingredients for action* are:

- Access by the poor to land and water; agricultural inputs, services and markets; research, technology development and extension;
- Expansion and diversification of employment opportunities at fair wages, particularly for the landless and near landless in the non-farm sector;
- Improved public and private utilities and services to enhance human resource development and welfare, i.e. education, health, nutrition, safe drinking water, energy, roads and communications,
- Full and equitable integration of women in development,
- Participation by the poor i.e. through active involvement of NGOs, producers' and workers' groups and cooperatives; and
- Enabling macro-policies (i.e. fiscal, price, trade and investment policies) should be adjusted to facilitate the implementation of poverty-oriented rural development strategies.

7. FAO subsequently took the lead, in collaboration with Governments, civil society and other UN agencies, to implement the Programme of Action through a variety of activities which focused on:

- Monitoring progress in agrarian reform and rural development, including the development of indicators and preparation of periodic reports to the FAO Conference and ECOSOC;
- Analysis and dissemination of knowledge and lessons;
- Policy advisory and technical assistance activities at a country level; and
- Assistance in mobilizing resources.

8. While considerable funding was raised for these activities which represented a substantial programme in the 1980s, interest waned in the 1990s. Part of the reason was the growing debt burden facing many developing countries, many of which also undertook massive public sector restructuring exercises, and thus simply did not have the financial resources and institutional capacity to support large-scale agrarian reform and rural development programmes. Part of the reason also lay in the efforts of the elites to protect vested interests and undermine the introduction and/or enforcement of genuine reform measures. Other reasons were the lack of political commitment, bureaucratic inefficiency, inadequate technical capacity, and weak representational and managerial capacities of rural producer, worker and community-based organizations.

### **III. International Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (ICARRD): the New Global Context**

9. The main WCARRD principles remain equally valid today for meeting the daunting and ever-present challenge of eradicating poverty and hunger. However, the context in which they are being applied has evolved substantially. While globalization, industrialization and (often subsidized) commercial agriculture are creating wealth for some,

they are also dramatically increasing the socio-economic disparities within and between countries, further exacerbating land concentration, the push of small farmers and agricultural labourers into casual work in the informal sector, with the more remote rural areas the most marginalized. Demographic changes, such as rapid urbanization, migration, rising mortality rates in some areas from HIV/AIDS, contrasted with longer life-expectancy and the ageing of populations in other areas, are affecting the nature of agricultural and off-farm production, with the labour force becoming increasingly dependent on women and the elderly, and competition growing exponentially for fertile land, water and energy. Trends in climate change, the loss of biological diversity, land degradation and desertification, more frequent occurrences of natural disasters, technology development and urbanization also pose problems for rural landscapes and the environment, as well as for the organization of rural communities and production systems. Investment has tended to favour the development of the industrial, urban and service and often military sectors, at the expense of agriculture and rural development. Within the agricultural sector, high potential areas have received greater attention than the highlands and dry lands where the majority of the rural poor live. These trends exacerbate competition and conflicts over access to land, water and biological resources, accentuate extreme poverty and hunger, and undermine political stability.

10. On the positive side, the increasing number of democratic governments in developing countries and Central and Eastern Europe, combined with decentralized governance in all regions, are enabling the emergence of a stronger civil society that is better equipped to partner with the state and private sector. Of particular significance are the new social movements that operate not only within countries, but also at the regional and global level, thus giving much more effective power and influence to coalitions of the poor in claiming access to land and other livelihood assets, legal and political rights, and (pro-poor) positive discrimination in development policies and services. At the same time, much needs to be done to strengthen the capacities of local community-based and local government institutions, as well as farmers', other producers' and workers' organizations, cooperatives, and chambers of agriculture. The livelihood assets/resources of rural households, communities and territories need to be recognized and enhanced: natural resources (including land and water), financial (savings, credit, financial services), physical (roads, communications, energy, farm structures (irrigation, storage, processing, market infrastructure), human (education, skills training, health, nutrition), and social (both formal local institutions (e.g. cooperatives or water user associations) or informal (e.g. kinship) institutions and networks).

#### **IV. Key ICARRD Principles**

11. Experience has shown that the effectiveness of agrarian reform and rural development policies and programmes is considerably enhanced if they respond to the social, economic, environmental and political trends described above, by taking account of the following principles. Effective ICARRD policies and programme are thus those that generally:

- Are *people-centered and gender sensitive*, addressing people's own priorities and building on and strengthening their own assets, capabilities and livelihood strategies;
- Are *based on rights*, within the context of national laws and customs;
- Recognize the *diversity of socio-economic population groups*, their different and sometimes conflicting interests and needs, and their differential access to power, and

explicitly redress power disparities, with particular consideration for the poor, through good governance and mechanisms for conflict mediation;

- Adopt a *coherent approach that integrates* across multiple sectors, stakeholder groups and levels, including urban-rural linkages, through a territorial perspective;
- Promote land policies that provide *improved access to land and security of land rights* for the rural poor;
- Support national *institutions and programmes of land administration* that ensure fair and secure rights to land;
- Increase investment and provision of essential technologies, infrastructure (including water management), production inputs and markets, services, education and training to *improve land and labour productivity in order to increase incomes and reduce poverty*;
- Provide an enabling environment that promotes public confidence in investment for development, public order and peace in order to ensure that development is *economically, socially and environmentally sustainable*;
- Are supported through adequate *financial resources* (both public and development assistance, as well as land taxation if appropriate) and private sector *investment*, at the appropriate national or decentralized levels;
- Promote awareness of the crucial importance of *appropriate public, civil society and private sector institutions, at different levels*, for implementing agrarian reform and rural development policies, and provide the incentives and capabilities for establishing/strengthening *horizontal and vertical mechanisms for dialogue and partnership between such institutions*;
- Provide appropriate *incentives* for public and private services to operate effectively in rural areas, including adequately staffed and funded *decentralized capacities* to implement policies and programmes that offer positive discrimination in favour of the poor;
- Strengthen the *capacities of producers', workers' and community-based organizations, cooperatives and other civil society organizations*, to be more inclusive of the poor, know their rights and responsibilities so they can hold public services accountable, engage in dialogue and negotiations with policy makers on key policy and legislative issues affecting the welfare of their membership, and provide their members more effective production, processing, marketing or financial services to enhance incomes;
- Generate more *agricultural and non-farm employment* through a variety of policy and programme measures that stimulate agricultural productivity growth and the linkages between agriculture and the local rural/urban economy within a territorial perspective, as well as through direct investment or financial support;
- Are *vigilant to the effects of globalization*, to exploit opportunities and mitigate negative effects, especially on the vulnerable, poor population groups. Globalization, which embodies the notion of the new international order heralded at WCARRD,

cannot replace the need for explicit measures to ensure food sovereignty, small scale family agriculture, secure and remunerative employment for the landless rural poor, social justice, cultural diversity and the right to food;

- *Provide the political will, long-term commitment and resources to design and implement policies, legislation and programmes that consistently promote equity and social justice and discriminate in favour of the poor.*

## V. Paradigm Shift in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development

12. To respond to the challenges in the new global context in a way that meets the ICARRD principles outlined above, a *paradigm shift* in the way we do business is already underway in many countries. The key elements are given in the table below.

<b>Shift <u>from</u> an emphasis on:</b>	<b><u>To</u> an emphasis on:</b>
Rural development as mainly <i>a production issue</i>	Rural development as mainly a <i>socio political issue</i> , i.e. capacity of different stakeholders to adapt to socio-economic and technical change and make informed and meaningful choices on a range of development policy options, methods and technologies
<i>Sectoral perspective</i>	<i>Livelihood and/or territorial perspective</i>
Participation as a consensual approach to <i>gathering information and identifying people's needs</i> (i.e. tends to apply an "instrumentalist" approach to participation)	Participation as an <i>engagement</i> by all relevant stakeholders, including the negotiation of stakeholders' roles and the 'rules of the game', notably in key decision-making processes
<i>Needs-based intervention strategy</i>	<i>Rights-based intervention strategy</i> (as this requires consideration of <u>both</u> people's rights and responsibilities to fulfil these rights, as well as governance issues).
<i>Needs-based capacity development, based on skills</i>	<i>Rights, responsibilities and incentive-based capacity development</i> , emerging from negotiations on stakeholders' roles and the 'rules of the game', to support effective partnerships.

13. Agrarian reform focuses on two *entry points* to bring about change: (i) Access to and more secure tenure of *land*, which is one type of *natural* capital, and (ii) *Policy change* as a means to bring about economic growth and more equitable social relations.

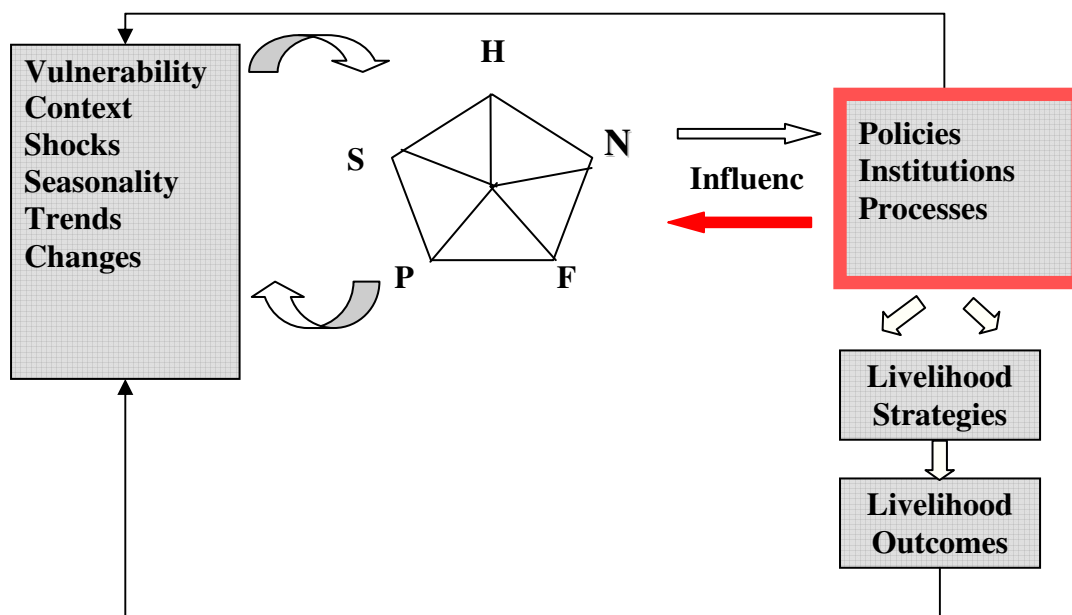
14. As illustrated in the diagram below, it is being increasingly recognized that these two critical changes need to be complemented by other interventions to be effective and lasting. In addition to land, *human* capital (knowledge, skills, labour), other types of *natural* capital (e.g. water), *financial* capital (savings and credit), *social* capital (local organizations and

alliances) and *physical* capital (rural infrastructure and equipment) are also required, both to enable agrarian reform beneficiaries to make productive use of the land and to meet other livelihood needs.

15. In addition, evidence indicates that *policy change needs to be accompanied by institutional changes*. Policies are *implemented* by people through processes that ideally are participatory and involve all stakeholders within a territory. Without adjustments to the roles, responsibilities and incentives of those implementing policy reform, existing power relationships can impede lasting change.

16. This clearly explains a lesson learned about agrarian reform over the past 25 years: ***Access to land is essential but not enough***. It is more effective when beneficiaries of land reform have had prior experience in land and agricultural enterprise management and when they have the capacity to generate sustainable income. Rural infrastructure, improved technologies and a range of responsive rural services, including training, have proved essential to effective and lasting agrarian reform.

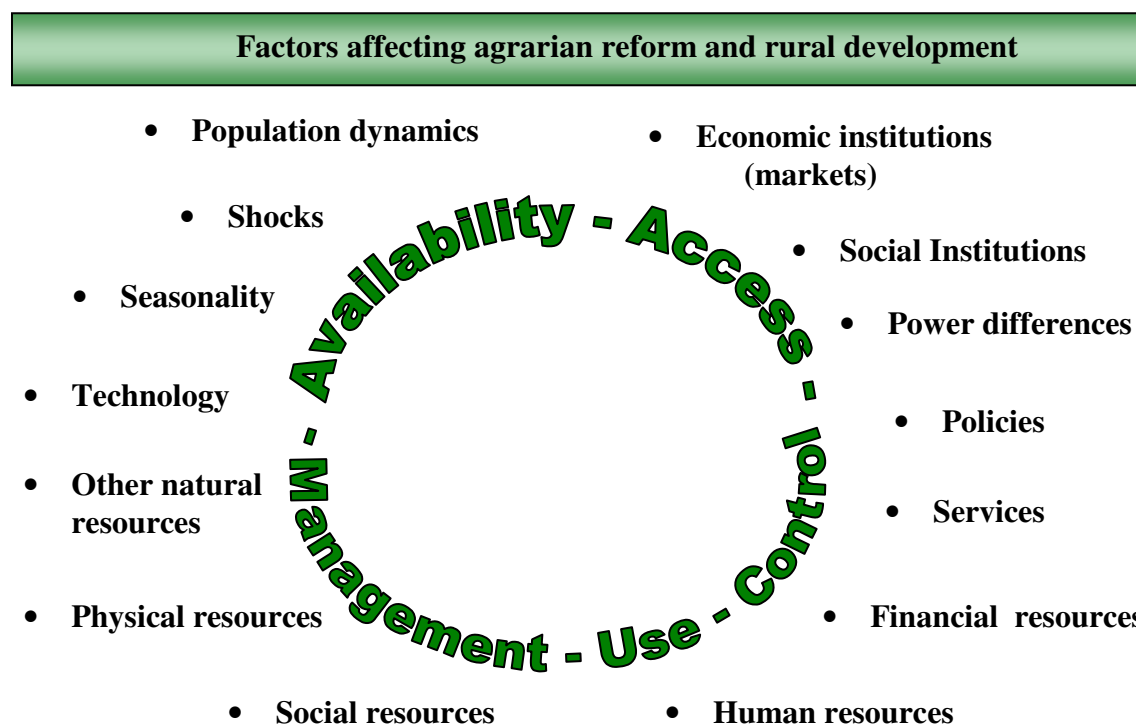
**Agrarian reform and rural development require a territorial perspective and a systems understanding to promote sustainable livelihoods**



**Key** H =Human Capital N = Natural Capital F = Financial Capital S = Social Capital P = Physical Capital

17. The factors that affect agrarian reform and rural development are highly complex, and inter-related, as can be seen from the diagram below. The key elements of availability, access, control, use and management represent a continuum. Many of the factors have been discussed above. However, it is important to underline that the rural poor are particularly vulnerable to economic and political shocks as well as natural risks and disasters, and while their livelihood strategies are designed to better prepare for and cope with such shocks, their limited access to the five forms of capital described above constrains their opportunities for rapid and effective response. Thus, one of the key livelihood strategies is, inter alia, to develop strengthened local institutional mechanisms –at the community and local

government level – to enhance preparedness, mitigation and rapid response in case of emergencies.



## VI. Lessons and good practices

18. The challenge lies in translating the paradigm shift and its related principles into reality. In this section we highlight some lessons in that respect, illustrating them with examples of experiences during the last two decades. These lessons are organized around the five different types of capital, as well as the crucial policy, institutional and process dimensions, that are essential ingredients of agrarian reform and rural development in order to enhance rural livelihoods, reduce vulnerability, and eradicate poverty and hunger. It should be stressed that these lessons are *only some of the possible lessons from experience* and in no way claim to be comprehensive or exclusive.

### A. The five capitals

#### (i) Natural capital (including land)

19. Lessons from experience indicate that *the acquisition of land needs to be coupled with provision of support services for beneficiaries*, including targeted access to capital, services and markets. Reforms that aim to improve access only to land are necessary but not sufficient. (See Annex, case 1)

20. *Reforms to improve access to land are more likely to succeed when beneficiaries have experience in managing the land.* Otherwise, there needs to be a transfer of knowledge and skills related to technology and production systems used by local successful producers to the new beneficiaries. (Case 2)

## **(ii) Social capital**

21. It is now widely recognized that *partnerships and alliances have become a crucial element for long-term success in rural development interventions*. The complexity of current agrarian reform and rural development issues and challenges, and the diversity of interests at stake means that no stakeholder stands any chance of success by ‘doing it alone’. This explains why the success of rural development work often hinges on stakeholder relationships. *Space for dialogue and confidence-building* are two key ingredients for improving relationships, hence rural development. Discussion of micro-projects and stakeholders’ roles in these activities has proved a useful way to begin constructive dialogue. Other ways to encourage interaction between stakeholders include task forces, joint training and workshops. Most projects mentioned in the good practices presented in this paper have made good use of these mechanisms.

## **(iii) Human capital**

22. Experience shows that, in operational terms, meaningful and lasting impacts of *capacity development interventions* require that (i) capacity needs are assessed on the basis of stakeholders’ *new* roles in rural development, after they have been negotiated and agreed by local stakeholders; (ii) capacity needs should and will increasingly be defined by stakeholders themselves, after having agreed on development objectives and their respective roles; (iii) capacity development should be linked to performance incentives that help identify training needs; (iv) in the spirit of stakeholder empowerment and the implementation of a rights-based approach, capacity development should focus more on self-determination, around tangible aspects of rural stakeholders’ livelihood strategies; and (v) a learning-by-doing philosophy should prevail in rural areas, at least in the early stages of capacity development. Experience shows that the provision of training is not necessarily a prerequisite nor sufficient for successful local management initiatives. Assistance can be provided as needs arise and as part of a partnership process. In operational terms, a capacity development strategy should include not only training (based on self-determined needs), but also institutional strengthening, mentoring and networking. (Cases 3 and 4)

## **(iv) Financial capital**

23. *Effective local economic development requires adequate levels of financial means at both the household and the local community level. While the former are obtained through a variety of means (e.g. productive activities, wage labour, trading, remittances, savings and loans etc.), the latter depend on transfers from the central level and/or local revenue generation.* With regard to the management of local funds, there are three main scenarios: local government, village bodies, or a combination of these through partnership arrangements. Evidence indicates each type of situation seems to work with regard to downward accountability, ensuring a good mix of productive and social priorities, and that these can effectively reach the poor. (Cases 5 i and iv, 6 and 7)

## **(v) Physical capital**

24. It is generally recognized that *for land and other natural resources (such as water) to be productively and sustainably managed, additional investments are needed to develop appropriate physical capital*, such as irrigation and drainage infrastructure, farm machinery, roads, bridges and markets, on-farm or cooperative drying, storage and processing facilities.

In many cases, due to the high capital, maintenance, managerial and depreciation costs, these are more effectively purchased and operated by cooperatives or groups of users. Since their efficient and transparent management requires collaboration among the various users, the linkage with the development of social capital is paramount. Thus, for example, social organizations such as water users' associations play a key role in operating and maintaining irrigation and water control structures that benefits fairly all the users, while dairy cooperatives have demonstrated remarkable success in many developing countries (e.g. India) as well as developed countries in providing timely and cost-effective services to their members.

## **B. Policies, institutions and processes**

### **(i) Policies**

25. There is considerable evidence that *non-biased macro-economic policies are crucial for the successful implementation of processes to improve access to land and other key livelihood assets for rural people's livelihoods*. This is particularly important in those processes that aim to build an internationally competitive rural sector. However, while a conducive policy environment is crucial for scaling up "islands of success", experience shows that this is not necessarily a precondition to launch development initiatives. In many cases projects started when such conditions were not met, and have contributed to changes in policies and laws. What is needed is political will and "champion" drivers (which often includes complementary support from external champions) to try something out. Thus experience indicates that for success, existing policies and regulations need to allow space for experimentation, and decision makers must be willing to change policies and laws on the basis of lessons learned. (Case 8)

26. *A rational system of individual economic (policy) incentives is crucial*. When incentives benefit individual families, the response to changes is usually rapid and dynamic. While local economic development is an essential driver for meaningful agrarian reform and rural development, it bears the risks of being essentially captured by local elites and leaving out the more marginalized groups of rural societies. Improved local governance plays a crucial role, among others, in mitigating such risks. Thus, the linkage between appropriate policies on the one hand, and effective institutions to ensure their correct and equitable implementation again reinforces the inter-relationships between different forms of capital, and social processes. (Cases 5 and 9)

27. Lessons from experience show that policies that *ensure fairness between parties are essential to avoiding conflicts and potential negative social and economic impacts*. In redistributive reforms, fairness includes the provision of reasonable compensation packages for land owners, and doing so reduces the potential for violent reactions. In leasing, fairness involves providing a framework for equitable arrangements that balance the interests of the tenant and the land owner. In post-conflict situations, fairness includes addressing the rights of internally displaced persons (IDPs) and the local communities in which they will be settled. (Case 10)

### **(ii) Institutions**

28. *Many programmes and projects point to the crucial importance for success of ensuring local capacity to manage changing circumstances and roles in relation to land*

*husbandry and natural resource management*. This requires strengthening the *resource capacities* (“hardware” such as funds, equipment, material and infrastructure, and “software” such as information, knowledge and skills) and *institutional capacities* of local stakeholders. The latter encompass several factors associated with the concept of ‘good governance’, including:

- adequate information;
- transparency in management procedures;
- accountability, both upwards (to higher administrative levels) and downwards (to civil society);
- inclusive/participatory decision making processes including adequate representation of local interests in decision making forums;
- managerial skills (in particular regarding financial matters); and
- cost-effectiveness. (cases 6, 7 and 11)

29. *Vertical linkages between different levels where different rural actors operate are obviously crucial to ensure sustainability and broad impact*. However, such links are often weak, such as in the case of imposed administrative regulations related to top-down decentralization. Here again issues of power and relationships play a crucial role in the politics of macro (central) – micro (local government) relations, a frequent major drive behind decentralisation choices. One mechanism to counteract micro-macro politics lies in the development of institutional mechanisms between different rural development levels from the bottom up, as in the case of “municipal chain” of the Lempira Sur project in Honduras. (Case 12)

30. Evidence also shows that *appropriate capacity for the administration of processes to improve access to land is crucial*. Where land administration is weak and ineffective, sustainable reforms to improve access to land are undermined by uncertainty over ownership of land and an inability to resolve disputes in a timely manner. Land titling is frequently a costly process but it can have major economic advantages by securing land rights and providing investment incentives. To ensure equity, experience shows that projects must consider the interests of the poor and disadvantaged, particularly women and indigenous peoples, and ensure that they do not lose their rights in the process. (Case 13)

### **(iii) Processes**

31. Lessons from experience all emphasize the key importance of *strengthening social capital through the participation of local communities and stakeholders within a territory in decision-making processes for development*. While this is the ideal, in practice it is not so easy to ensure harmonious decision-making processes, where different actors share power and set agendas jointly. So often unequal power relationships lead to conflicts of interest, and there is a danger of elite capture of benefits. Thus political will, good governance and the rule of law are crucial to ensure the establishment of effective institutions to resolve conflicts equitably through analysis, negotiation and redressing unequal power relations, and to provide adequate services to all categories of rural people. (Case 14)

32. Of particular importance is the notion of *accountability* between right-holders (e.g. communities and producer groups) and responsibility-holders (e.g. local governments, line agencies and other service providers). Accountability lies at the basis of the rights-based approach and implies that both types of partners are sufficiently empowered with regard to access to livelihood assets, adequate institutional capacities and political voice. (Case 15)

33. Field experience suggests that the Participatory and Negotiated Territorial Development approach offers concrete answers to the challenges of improving trust among social actors, strengthening social cohesion and promoting a systemic territorial development to induce socially-legitimized results. It supports bottom-up and participatory decision-making processes and encourages social dialogue and partnerships between stakeholders within a territory. (Case 16)

## VII. Conclusions

34. These experiences indicate that key principles of successful agrarian reform and rural development include:

- *People centeredness*: building on people's own priorities, assets and capabilities
- *Territorial perspective*: integrating across multiple sectors, stakeholder groups, and scales
- *Redressing power disparities*: "rules of the game" can be applied only when the "playing field" is level
- *Building capacities* to manage change

35. A number of promising approaches have been tested, and have been found appropriate in different contexts. These include:

- *Participatory Negotiated Territorial Development* that focuses on stimulating and supporting social dialogue among all actors within a territory for conflict resolution or agreement on development projects, and assists in reconstructing the social fabric and integrating their diversity livelihood strategies.
- *Sustainable Livelihoods Approaches* which ensure that rural development is centred on people's assets and on vulnerable groups, and give importance to policy and institutional processes
- *Rights-based Approaches* to ensure the enforceability of rights by right-claimants and the responsibility/accountability for their enforcement by the duty holders.
- *Policies and institutions that discriminate in favour of the poor*
- *Building capacities at the bottom, responsiveness at the top, pressure and accountability from the side*

36. In all these approaches, partnerships for rural development require: (i) social dialogue and negotiations, (ii) a level playing field, and (iii) purposeful strengthening of weaker actors. Long term success and significant impact on the rural poor often means some sort of

societal change and takes a lot of “trial and error”. Therefore, a stepwise process based on the following operational principles is probably the best course of action.

- *Realism/pragmatism*, embracing the complexity and uncertainty as well as the political and integrated dimensions of agrarian reform and rural development;
- *Patience/time* to allow for attitudes and local power balances to evolve (most of the projects cited in this paper have lasted at least five years, and those with most impact, more than ten years);
- *Flexibility*, because the right mix for success and sustainability varies according to local circumstances;
- *Effective monitoring and evaluation*: ensuring indicators for success *that measure processes and institutional strengthening for sustainable outcomes, rather than only “products”*;
- *The development of partnership agreements through multistakeholder dialogue* as the overall mechanism that should permeate the application of the above principles.

37. Success, however, depends crucially on *political will, the allocation of adequate resources and effective partnerships* between all actors to *promote development with equity to make poverty and hunger history*.

## **ANNEX: CASE STUDIES OF SELECTED PROJECTS AND PROGRAMMES**

### **Case 1: Support services for effective use of acquired land (FAO, 2005)**

In the Philippines, FAO has provided support to the Government's Comprehensive Agrarian Reform Programme (CARP) through a number of projects. The value of the intervention has been recognised by donors as well as Filipino actors and trust funds for FAO-executed projects were provided first by Italy, then by the Netherlands, and now most recently by Australia. FAO's technical assistance is targeted at agrarian reform communities (ARCs), i.e. a cluster of villages (barangays) where 60 percent or more of the population has received land through the land reform programme. Support is provided to ARCs in raising agricultural productivity by:

- Supporting farmer-led development teams within ARCs to identify problems, needs and priorities and to incorporate these in community development plans. This activity is carried out in a participatory and holistic way through the farming systems development approach. Development plans may be used as a basis to source funds from farmers' organizations own savings, from national and local government agencies, from institutional donors and from the private sector.
- Training in a variety of areas including farm and non-farm activities, accounting and bookkeeping, and gender issues.
- Promoting the establishment of linkages between agrarian reform beneficiaries and agribusiness in order to provide the former with market outlets.
- Facilitating access to credit by fostering matches between agrarian reform beneficiaries and financial institutions.

In the Ukraine, technical assistance includes support for the systematic subdivision of the land of former collective farms and the issuing of state deeds for land to individual rural owners; the development of a national cadastre system, and the services for restructuring of farms including explaining legal rights and obligations to the new owners, advising on rental agreements and disputes over land, and on the development of land use plans for land in common use.

### **Case 2: Knowledge transfer to support effective agrarian reform in Brazil (FAO, 2005)**

In Brazil, FAO has provided technical support to the country's agrarian reform and development of sustainable family farming strategies through a series of projects.<sup>1</sup> The extremely skewed distribution of land ownership has periodically led to social conflicts in rural areas. In addition to the redistribution and titling of land and settlement of new farmer families, Brazil has placed emphasis on the sustainable development of small farmers' enterprises and of the rural area itself. There is an ongoing policy development to improve

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<sup>1</sup> UTF /BRA/036/BRA: Agrarian Policy and Sustainable Development Guidelines for Small Family Farming; UTF /BRA/051/BRA: Guidelines for Agrarian Policies and Sustainable Development for Household Agriculture, Brazil; UTF /BRA/057/BRA: Apoyo al Desarrollo Sustentable de la Agricultura Familiar en Brasil TCP/BRA/8922: Integration of Gender Perspective in the Agrarian Reform Sector; TCP/BRA/3452: Superacion de Situaciones Criticas en Asentamientos de Reforma Agraria – Maranhao; BRA/87/022/ /38/99: National Plan for Agrarian Reform.

the access to credits, to offer technical assistance and training and to establish essential rural infrastructure. Within this national policy for sustainable rural development, FAO provided assistance to the Instituto Nacional de Colonização e Reforma Agrária (INCRA) to transfer technology and production systems of successful family farms to the new land reform beneficiaries

**Case 3: One example of a successful training programme in South-East Asia (Polman, 2005)**

The Success Case Replication (SCR) methodology developed in South East Asia with FAO's support is a good example of this. In collaboration with the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), from 1994 to 1998, FAO supported the development of the SCR methodology for multiplication of village-based, food/non-food rural enterprises in a poverty alleviation project covering 3,300 farmer families in eight Asian countries. Subsequent project evaluation found an average annual income increase of US\$500 for farm households covered by the project. The successful entrepreneurs, many of them women, became SCR trainers themselves resulting in a 10 to 100-fold replication of successful farmer enterprises. The strength of this approach is the low cost of initial project preparations aiming at identification of SCR trainers in a selected geographical area. This is done by government extension workers, field officers, and rural banking/development NGOs. It requires the voluntary sharing of specific local farm/non-farm product/production knowledge and 'business secrets' by successful village entrepreneurs who are more effective than external experts as trainers being able to communicate easily in the informal local language. The scale of SCR application ranges from individual households to rural groups, village cooperatives and inter-village cooperative networks to provincial-level cooperative organizations as in Vietnam and Thailand. In 2000 the World Bank selected this SCR project as one of the top ten most effective poverty reduction projects in rural areas.

**Case 4: One example of a comprehensive capacity building programme in the Kompienga Province of Burkina Faso (Pozarny, 2005)**

The overall project objective (funded by the Belgian Cooperation Agency and executed by FAO and the Ministry of Agriculture) aims to increase food security, reduce poverty and strengthen decentralization in Kompienga notably through support to the structuring and socioeconomic and institutional growth of rural farmer producer organizations and their key partners in the area.

Key areas of support in terms of capacity development include (i) fostering self-determination/local ownership, flexible "learning by doing", and strengthening decentralization notably through on-the-job partnerships between project and government staff planning, implementation and evaluation).

Fostering self determination and local ownership: This has been achieved primarily through strengthening of self-determination capacities of producer organisations (POs) regarding monitoring, evaluation, as a basis for self-assessment and programming of project activities. POs regularly self-assess themselves on the basis of agreed upon criteria, and performance in that respect has served as basis for the programming of activities. In this way support relate

to activities which are fully determined and planned by POs. This is a key aspect of mentoring activities, which are demand driven and needs based.

Parrainage: ‘Parrainage’ is the process of project facilitation of PO partnering and mutual learning, so that the first generation POs share and mentor new second generation POs, in areas notably of organization strengthening and network building. This dynamic should strengthen skills of first generation POs, enhancing their performance and sustainability, while also building networks and alliances among them and emerging Pos.

Partnership in ‘learning by doing’ activities: In an effort to enhance collaboration and practices of decentralization among key partners, a series of trainings, animations (and sometimes implementation support) have been conducted in collaboration with local technical and project services on the ground. A key principle underlying this activity is to work together to build capacity in a holistic and complimentary approach. Thus project team members should be circulating and partnering with other developing actors in the field in their every day activities. This is the essence of strengthening partnerships; it should encourage the sustainability of ongoing efforts after project completion. Concretely, support has been completed in specific areas such as improved cook stoves, reforestation, sensitization on certain themes (bushfire, decentralisation, laws concerning farmer organizations, gender, etc.), improved seed production, alphabetization, nutritional training, micro-enterprise development training in skills such as soap making, food processing (e.g. gari), etc.

The comparative advantage of this project approach is foremost on capacity building for sustainable development through organizational and institutional strengthening.

**Case 5:       Examples of ways to reduce the risk of elite capture and ensuring that marginalized groups adequately benefit from agrarian reform ad rural development interventions**

**(i) Re: pro-poor financing mechanisms (Ali, 2003)**

One good example comes from the targeting mechanism used within the UNDP-funded and FAO-supported Community-Based Regional Development Project (CBRDP) in Yemen. Following a wealth ranking exercise (using community indicators), revolving funds were used to fund activities that either directly benefited the poorer groups (selected by a village committee) or to wealthier producers, so long as their activities would have trickle down effects on the poor (e.g. through employment generation).

Another example comes from the World Bank Rural Development and Rural Poverty Alleviation Programs Northeast Brazil (NRDP). In this case, projects are proposed by communities to a municipal council, which includes 80 % representatives from civil society, thus not dominated by local political or executive authorities. Matching grants are provided to communities to finance their contribution to these projects (productive and/or infrastructure and/or social). Eligibility criteria are pro-poor, i.e. funds cannot finance individual acquisitions (including productive means), and fixed installations have to be collectively-owned. Moreover, they extend beyond production and income, and can therefore benefit landless farmers, and it excludes religious or politically-related investments.

**(ii) Use entry points that cut across social differentiation**

A good example of this relates to the recent forest fire coordinated by the NGO Friend of the Earth in several parts of the Brazilian Amazon. The NGO very cleverly chose the health

effects of fire as its entry point to launch its programme. Since these effects concern everybody – whatever your social condition – this strategy has managed to bring together very different groups of stakeholders (such as large landowners and small farmers); which might be at loggerheads on several points, but agreed on the need for effective actions against fire. Through this common interest and frequent interaction, these stakeholders managed to know each other better and begin a dialogue on more controversial issues.

**(iii) Re: local level planning (Goldman et al, 2000)**

As regards community-based planning (CBP), one key way to reduce the risk of local elites high-jacking is to ensure that all social groups have equal say in the process, from situation analysis to selection of priority actions. This has recently been achieved in the CBP process recently followed up by the Khanya NGO in South Africa, Uganda, Ghana and Zimbabwe. One of the early exercises Khanya did with the local ward committee and a broader group was a mini-social analysis. They asked which were the different social groups in the community, who may have more/less access to resources (e.g. youth, aged, landless, self-employed, business people, farmers, unemployed, single mothers with children, widows...). They then carried out a livelihoods analysis on each of these groups, identifying their assets, vulnerabilities, preferred outcomes, livelihood strategies. The preferred outcomes and key vulnerabilities from each of these groups were then consolidated into one list, and a broad community group that was representative then voted. They then took the top 5 priorities, and used those to develop formulated goals, strategies to address these, projects and activities for the strategies etc.

**(iv) Re: what roles for traditional authorities (UNDP, 2003 and Ali, 2003)**

Situations where customary authorities still enjoy significant formal or informal power present a further complication in attempting to sideline local authorities because by-passing traditional authorities can reduce the legitimacy of State institutions, and the creation of new village committees that exclude traditional authorities is an obvious threat to their authority, and therefore prone to cause problems in implementing activities decided by the committees and create conflicts. What seems to work is to involve traditional leaders in the development activities and their related committees, while not giving them primary role in decision-making, as in the case of the UNDP-funded FAO Community-Based Regional Development Programme (CBRDP) in Yemen (UNDP, 2003). In particular, CBRDP promoted the change from individual (i.e. traditional leader) to institutional leadership via the creation of Community Development Organizations (CDOs), which included Executive Boards (EBs). Interestingly, the process of change from individual (traditional leader) to institutional-based (CDO) leadership has been, in most cases, pretty smooth and without harming the already existing social setting. Thus, negative competitive relationship between the CDOs and local elites (i.e. traditional leader, local politicians and social codes of reference) was not evidenced. This is attributed to the following factors:

- Tribal leaders and social codes of reference were the entry point of the program to the local communities. This maintained the honourable socio-cultural position of those leaders, proved the program's goodwill and won the leaders confidence and support,
- Tribal leaders are represented in the EBs of about 45% of the CDOs;
- According to the tied extended-families relations, tribal leaders considered EB members as their sons to whom they owe encouragement, support and transfer of experiences, and;
- CDOs have collaborated with tribal leaders in the execution of some activities such as credit delivery, where tribal leaders act as collaterals for credit recipients; as well as their ongoing advisory support on certain issues.

**Case 6: Two examples of FAO support to effective land administration and taxation (FAO, 2005)**

In Namibia, FAO has provided technical assistance in support of the country's Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act through a TCP project and consultancy financed through the UK/FAO Consultants Trust Fund. The revenues generated by the land tax are to be used to promote rural development by acquiring commercial land for resettlement and improving production in communal lands. The tax is also intended to discourage non-productive and speculative holdings. FAO provided assistance in the preparation of regulations for the land tax and in the preparation for the implementation of the tax.

In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the assistance supports the development of a land titling programme aimed at extending secure ownership by providing a system of clear and enforceable land ownership rights. The project includes the establishment of land registration and cadastre system, and an appropriate system of land taxation.

**Case 7: Examples of good practice regarding good local fund management, through local governments, village bodies, and partnerships between the two**

(i) Local governments in the driving seat (Watson, 2002)

Experience shows that risks are high for local funds not to reach the village level, let alone the most vulnerable groups, when the municipality handles funds on its own. In order to improve such situations support to local governments has concerned better expenditure management and revenue collection practices, and, crucially, the development of downward accountability directly to rural users through transparency of budget information and more claim-making power by the micro level. The District Development Project (DDP) 1998-2001 and Local Government Development Programme (LGDP) 2000 – 2003 in Uganda are a good illustration of how these principles can be applied in practice. DDP featured substantial local fund injections into five District councils, conditional upon their satisfaction of basic entry qualification criteria, including financial accounting and committee scrutiny. Regular guaranteed payments of grants for approved Councils duly followed. However, volumes depended upon meeting basic criteria: provision of reports and accounts on use of funds, and proof that monitoring is in place.

Higher level local governments judged the annual performance of lower levels. If performance was good, additional funds were forthcoming; if poor, future allocations were reduced. Criteria of performance included the extent to which local plans had been honoured; and had followed participatory approaches; whether fund allocations and projects had been pro-poor; and whether adequate publicity had been given to the funds and projects approved and implemented.

Accountability 'downwards' was also enhanced because councillors – faced with funding dependent on fulfilling performance criteria – put more pressure on officers. Councillors became more sensitive to, and responsive towards, community pressures for involvement in planning, priorities and design. Access by communities to intelligible information proved crucial, but also threatening to officials and councillors. A range of media were tested, and only those which were most applicable adopted for dissemination. Popular involvement in checking the performance of local contractors avoided the sorts of abuse and corruption which had plagued project management before.

A co-funding requirement of 10% is mandatory to access central LGDP resources. 80% of LGDP funds should be allocated to priority sectors under the Poverty Eradication Action Plan.

(ii) Village body on the driving seat (Osmani, 2000 and UNDP, 2003)

An interesting feature of the UNDP Community Based Regional Development Project in Yemen was the conscious attempt to build on the rich local tradition of co-operation within Yemeni rural societies, with no bank or NGO involvement. Two traditional institutions were used as basis for the programme, (a) *sandug*, a form of local community-owned funds, which operated UNDP funds, and (b) *musharaka*, a prevalent form of social co-operation for economic production in which different production factors are owned by different people but managed jointly. These institutions managed the funds and related projects.

Two types of funds were developed:

- A community development investment fund (CDIF): it annually provided matching grants for productive investments to community or sub-community levels. The fund was used in the form of loans to finance small and medium Income Generating Activities (IGAs) of small groups (3-6) of households working and investing together (SIGs), and also small IGAs for individual women (limited to women to enhance their participation and to foster their economic empowerment). This type of funds was aimed at strengthening sandug systems;
- A savings-based community loan fund (CLF): this type of fund was managed at community level and provided loans to self-help community groups and/or individuals (SIGs) that had mobilised sufficient savings. The local committee (*musharaka*) decided the use of such fund at community level.

Another interesting feature of these schemes rests in the fact the UNDP grant funds (CDIF) – which was the first step of the microfinance mechanism – had to be used exclusively for productive activities of SIGs. SIG repayments were used to feed the CLF and only these could be used for social services. This prioritisation probably reflects the project promoters' views that:

- Provision of social services is primarily the task of local governments;
- Social mobilisation often remains a distant dream unless poorer groups are (at least partly) relieved from economic insecurity.

The inclusion of productive assets in the financing mechanisms is a good way to avoid the weakness of several Community Driven Development Project, whose planning often ends up focusing almost exclusively on social investments.

In order to get access to CDIF funding, the Community Development Organisation (CDO) had to meet two levels of eligibility conditions: (i) program's membership: This required official registration with the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (act no 1), and (ii) eligibility for fund acquisition, which required the availability of a ranked list of the poorest households (RLP) established by the GA using community-emerged indicators, completion of certain training courses by CDO executive board members; bookkeeping and accounting system has been set up; a prioritized list with project profiles proposed for funding requests, and a first community development plan. The program assisted CDOs through training and technical advice.

(iii) Partnerships between village and local governments (Van Zyl et al, 2001)

An interesting partnership example relates to the Rural Development and Rural Poverty Alleviation Programs Northeast Brazil (NRDP, 1995-present). The program's institutional arrangements evolved in three distinct phases: (a) *Programa de Apoio Comunitario* (PAC), (b) *Fundo Municipal de Apoio Comunitario* (FUMAC), and (c) *Fundo Municipal de Apoio Comunitario-Piloto* (FUMAC-P). State technical units housed in the Ministry of Finance or Ministry of Planning played a key role in all phases. They coordinated municipal councils (MCs) comprising 80 percent elected representatives from community associations, and 20 percent nominated by local governments. In turn, MCs interacted with community associations (CAs) comprising elected community representatives. To be eligible for funding, communities had to demonstrate that their CAs were self-organized and self-governing and had to permit all adults in the community to vote on project-related matters.

1. PAC (State Community Schemes). This approach was used in the first Northeast Brazil Rural Development Project (NRDP) and continues to operate in those municipalities that lack the will or capacity to adopt the more evolved FUMAC or FUMAC-P approaches. The state unit receives applications directly from community groups across the state. To evaluate each request, project staff is required to visit the community to check the transparency of the consultative process, the legitimacy of the CBO formed, and the process of project selection. Based on this visit, the state unit then screens and approves projects. It authorizes the release of funds directly to the CA, upon receipt of an operating agreement that clearly spells out the CA's ongoing obligations. The CA controls and manages accounts for all project funds and is responsible for project design, implementation, and its operational obligations as per the agreement.

2. FUMAC (Municipal Community Schemes). The FUMAC approach was successfully piloted under the reformulated NRDP and continues to operate in many municipalities. Decision making regarding resource allocation is delegated to MCs, which prioritize community demands and approve subprojects within a municipal budget set by the state unit. A fixed budget constraint induces rationality in allocation of scarce public funds. In this way, communities themselves, in partnership with local government (both of which have representatives on the MC), analyze applications, conduct site visits to verify transparency of processes of CA formation, and so forth, and determine the best use of funds at the local level. The state unit performs an oversight function and is informed by the MC of project choices. The MC enters into an operating agreement with the CA that spells out ongoing obligations for the project, and then authorizes the release of funds to the CA. The CA then controls, manages, and accounts for all project funds and is responsible for project design, implementation, and those operational obligations agreed upon with the MC.

3. FUMAC-P (Pilot Municipal Community Funds). The FUMAC-P is a more decentralized variation of the FUMAC, still in pilot phase. Selected high-performing MCs are allocated an annual budget based on a distribution formula and past performance. The MCs then prioritize and approve community-proposed subprojects and finance them from this annual budget—simulating a process of intergovernmental transfers. In this way, locally determined MC investment planning is supported and mainstreamed. Once a project is approved for funding and an operating agreement has been executed with the MC, the MC authorizes the release of funds from its own account to the CAs, which control, manage, and account for all project funds and are responsible for implementation, operation, and maintenance as per the operation agreement with the MC.

**Case 8: Two examples of projects started under unfavourable circumstances but which have influenced policies and laws to improve rural people's access to livelihood assets**

The Belgium funded and FAO-supported project “Participatory natural resources management in the Tonle Sap Region” in Cambodia. The project has encouraged and promoted the practice of community-based natural resources management in Cambodia, where natural resources had been exploited without effective policies or a legal framework throughout the decades of civil strife and economic hardship. Through demonstrated success in the project context, community-based natural resources management has become popularly accepted as a norm for pursuing sustainable development, and has also been significantly influential in the drafting of the New Forestry Code. It is now also pursued by, or included in, many projects supported by other donors. This has resulted in protection and better management of forestry and fisheries resources, resulting also in the reduction of illicit logging and fishing and at the same time, in the improvement in livelihoods and food security of the communities in Siem Reap Region.

The Belgium-funded and FAO-supported Project on the promotion of the use of agricultural inputs by producer organisations has developed over about ten years several ways to ease access to agricultural input by small-scale rural producers, including appropriate financing mechanisms, increase of revolving funds for producer organisations, grouped input orders, and improvement regarding the organisation of input supply through better communication systems and negotiation mechanisms. The success of these measures is currently being used to develop a national strategy for decentralised input supply to producer organisations.

**Case 9: An example of a project that facilitates economic incentives to producers counteracting their limited investment capacity. (Herrera, A. & Molina, J., 2006)**

The PACTA project in Honduras, an FAO-World Bank project, began under the government poverty alleviation strategy. The project objective is to facilitate land acquisition in the framework of a rural enterprise development by single rural poor families or in groups. The project provides services to implement the rural enterprise production project, and for the first two years the extension services needed to initiate the agricultural production part of the enterprise. The funding of the enterprise is provided both through a grant given by the project aimed at the support of working capital investments inside or outside the parcel, and through long term credit from a private bank used to finance the land acquisition. The grant is provided to each single family participating in the enterprise.

Despite the usual lack of working capital that the rural poor experience, the project has been able to address the need for economic support and incentives that a rural poor person would need to develop productive alternatives that can assist the farmer and his family achieve a better livelihood through the grant and the facilitation of access to long term credit.

Moreover the project has found that the functioning of a rural poor agricultural enterprise needs to tackle not just the economic side of incentives and support, but it also needs to address social capital, including education, and organisation. During the 45 months of implementation of the project in three country regions, 137 agricultural enterprises have been initiated, (97 with individual families and 40 with collectives -groups of families) benefiting 603 families in total. These poor rural families are now in the process of developing their

own business. The transformation process will take time, and this has to be considered by national policies and strategies.

**Case 10: Resolving land conflicts and assuring land access in post-conflict contexts (FAO, 2005)**

FAO has been providing technical assistance to improving access to land in Angola by resolving conflicting claims for land arising from the settlement of Internally Displaced Persons through several projects including one under the Special Programme for Food Security. Project preparation is under way through the Co-operative Programme for further substantial project support for activities in the field. The interventions provide support for legal and institutional diagnostics and they have involved the participatory delimitation of community land targeted for settlement of IDPs, resulting in the communities receiving provisional titles for land that had been traditionally under their management. The settlement of IDPs is taking place within consensual negotiations with local traditional authorities.

In Sudan, FAO assistance enabled the land question to be addressed both in the context of emergency (the IDP-resettlement and the minimisation of conflict) and of sustainable development. Under a Planning Framework for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of war-affected areas, emphasis was placed on a rapid transition from humanitarian relief interventions associated with a conflict environment to development interventions that lay foundations for longer-term recovery to former levels of self-reliance and sustainable livelihoods. Assistance was provided to address access to land issues (including customary grazing rights and rights of way) for IDPs and local communities in a manner that minimises conflict situations and promotes rural development.

**Case 11: Linking capacity building to incentives to perform in Uganda (Watson, 2002)**

A good example of this concerns the District Development Project (DDP) 1998-2001 and Local Government Development Programme (LGDP) 2000 – 2003 in Uganda briefly described in Box 4. In this case, capacity building funds are available to help Councils meet entry criteria (which include availability of approved development plans) and to maintain and extend capacities to meet performance criteria (which now include local tax collection effort).

Performance indicators rise annually for each Council: hence there are incentives to improve capacities progressively.

**Case 12: Micro-macro linkages: The example of the municipal chain development in the Lemprira Sur Project in Honduras (Lindemann, 2005).**

In this Netherlands-funded and FAO-supported 10 year project, municipalities played a role in linking families with higher level decision-making bodies in enabling a participatory democratic process of budgetary and political planning to flourish through the consolidation of a “municipal chain” The municipal chain is composed of six levels connected through gradually developed institutional mechanisms supported by the project: families, communities, municipalities, inter-municipal associations or *mancomunidades*,

departmental/provincial associations of *mancomunidades*, and national associations of municipalities – See Box 1 for more details on this project.

A combination of several factors explains why such institutional change became a reality:

- A feeling of being “against the wall” following a crisis situation in terms of very problematic food security situation; which prompted the agreed need that “something had to change”;
- The fact that the project used an entry point that cut across social differentiation, as mentioned in section 5.2. (i), and therefore were everybody’s concern;
- The external support to the project; which had both characteristics of being independent from local politics and “rules of the game” and bringing significant human and financial resources;
- The duration of this type of support, i.e. more than ten years.

Thanks to these factors, it was possible to dismantle the existing governance system, the so called elite-based, weak and poorly linked to villagers ‘needs and aspirations “patronato” system and gradually replace it with the different elements of the “municipal chain. The initial step was the holding of participatory diagnosis workshops with the community and the subsequent promotion of interest groups, both economic and social, in response to the issues and priorities identified in the process. As these groups consolidated, the need for a mechanism to articulate their interests at a higher level arose as well as the idea of creating a “Community Development Committee” (CODECO in Spanish) arose. Once these committees became operational and worked at full swing in addressing problems related to the communities needs and advised the local council, it became obvious that this structure had the advantage of connecting the rural family upward with higher levels of decision-making.

**Case 13: Strengthened land administration capacity and ensuring rights for disadvantaged groups (FAO, 2005)**

The Thailand series of land titling and registration projects are widely recognized as being amongst the most successful in the world. Through these projects, Thailand is moving towards its target of issuing 13 million titles to farmers. The projects have made the land administration system more efficient: in many land offices, transactions are completed within a day and in the computerized offices of Bangkok transactions are completed in a few hours. Secure titles have provided farmers with greater access to credit. Greatly improved land taxation efficiency is being achieved.

In Panama, FAO is providing technical assistance through the Cooperative Programme with the World Bank for the completion of a systematic legal cadastral survey and the regularization of property rights. The intervention also strengthens the capacity of national and local institutions to apply new policy directives related to regularization of land.

As a part of the continuing collaboration between the Brazilian Government and FAO, guidelines were elaborated for sustainable development for small family farming and household agriculture. Since only 13 percent of land titles are held by women, the Brazilian Government identified the need to strengthen the position of the rural women. FAO provided assistance to the Government to strengthen institutional capacity in the design and

implementation of gender responsive policies, programmes and projects that reduce or eliminate legislative, administrative, socio-economic and behavioural obstacles to rural women's access to productive resources in the agrarian reform sector.

**Case 14: Innovative land legislation and FAO's support to community access to justice in Mozambique** (Quan, 2005)

Mozambique requested FAO to provide technical assistance in an innovative approach to land rights that allows both local residents and investors to gain. The implementation of a new policy and legislative framework, which FAO assisted, enables local communities to map the boundaries of land they have customarily used, and proceed to land titling. The law protects against inadvertent dispossession of community land, and facilitates community negotiation with commercial investors. Civil society groups have been successfully involved in the reform process and are playing an important information dissemination role. FAO support to a Judicial Training Centre targets the new generation of local judges to better understand the letter and the spirit of the land law. FAO has also initiated an institutional participatory approach to the formulation and testing of new territorial planning legislation which in combination with ongoing work to implement the land law, would aim to strengthen communities involvement in the management of natural resources on a broader scale. Building on experience of Mozambique, FAO is preparing normative materials on resource tenure, targeting Lusophone countries.

**Case 15: Two examples of the interplay of claimants' rights and duty holders' responsibilities local level in Kenya** (Nyamu-Musembi and Musyoki, 2004 and Venaklasen et al, 2004)

The first example illustrates "the right to be heard". It is drawn from Oxfam's work in Wajir district, a pastoralist region of Kenya. Oxfam successfully lobbied the government and supported the community to demand that a pastoralist representative sit on the District Development Committee so that their concerns are taken into account.

In the same district, the government's provision of veterinary services was inadequate, and in fact in some areas it was virtually non-existent. These areas were serviced by community animal health workers.

Although their role is well understood and valued by the communities, the government completely ignored the important role they play and provided them with no support at all. As a result of an Oxfam-supported campaign,<sup>23</sup> there is now explicit government recognition and licensing of community-based animal health workers, and they receive skills training and basic tools and supplies for the job.

The second example illustrates the "right to choose". It draws on the work of CARE's Rural Enterprise and Agri-services Promotion (REAP) project in Kibwezi, Makeni district. There, horticultural farmers have organized into a company for marketing of horticultural produce. CARE helped them to secure Forward Contracts with exporters which guaranteed them a market and access to credit facilities. The farmers use their numbers to access good quality services that they could not otherwise afford as individual farmers. So, for example, rather than wait for government agricultural extension officers to show up whenever it suits them to

advise the farmers, 30 farmers get together and share the cost of hiring one farm manager who is answerable to them, and whom they can fire if they are dissatisfied with his services – something they cannot do with the free government-provided extension agricultural extension officers.

#### **Case 16: One example of multiple arenas of dialogue in Angola**

In Angola FAO has been able to achieve the opening of dialogue at the local level between powerful private entrepreneurs and local communities on issues related to access to land. As an outcome of this dialogue, agreements were reached through negotiation that guarantee both sides a minimal level of tenure security, and thus allows them to co-exist on the same territory.

The growing awareness of the strategic importance of tenure security for all actors and at all levels in Angola results from several changes which are occurring at national and local levels, including privatization, sub-urbanization, increasing awareness of their rights by farmers, entrepreneurs and communities, and mounting conflicts between communities and external actors.

New variables were to be included in the land equation, given the predictable end of the war and the increase in the number of returning internally-displaced people, which resulted in the need to find resettlement areas for them. Moreover, there was a need to mediate conflicts between the returnees and those people who had cultivated land during the war.

The Angolan process of dialogue and action around the land issue must guarantee continuity, in addition to efforts at increasing people's capacities, both within the Government and Civil Society, through the opening of discussion forums such as those already in place. The guarantee of such continuity in the process of searching for a solution to the land tenure security issue involves nurturing wider processes of democratization of the Angolan institutions, to allow marginalized actors to become active players in the process.

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