

CWANA CHAPTER 4

**LOOKING FORWARD: POLICIES, INSTITUTIONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL
ARRANGEMENTS FOR AKST DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION**

Coordinating Lead Authors: Ruba Al-Zoubi (Jordan), Mohamed Moussaoui (Morocco)
Lead Authors: Roy Abijaoude (Lebanon), Mohamed Abo ElWafa Gad (Egypt), Mukhtar Ali (Pakistan), Nour Chachaty (Syria), Alessandra Galié (Italy), Ashot Hovhannisyanyan (Armenia), Sanginov Rajabovich (Tajikistan), Ahsan Wagha (Pakistan), Lokman Zaibet (Tunisia)
Contributing Authors: Sandjar Djalalov (Uzbekistan), Alisher Tashmatov (Uzbekistan)
Review Editors: Gulcan Eraktan (Turkey), Fahri Yavuz (Turkey)

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1 **Key Messages**

2 **1. Natural resources will continue to become limited.** As globalized trade continues to expand
3 and markets to liberalize, CWANA's competitiveness in agriculture will rely more and more on
4 increased productivity and higher product quality. Degraded land, depleted water resources and
5 expanded deserts imply that agriculture will take place in less favorable environments. Further
6 trade liberalization, implementation of which is expected to come into effect after the Doha
7 development round closes, will make trade barriers, production support and export subsidization
8 obsolete when trying to compete in international and domestic markets. All these future prospects
9 are calling for AKST as a means to sustain CWANA agricultural competitiveness.

10

11 **2. Applying AKST advances is crucial if we are to meet the challenges for sustainability**
12 **and development in the CWANA region.** CWANA agricultural research systems must adjust to
13 the context of new challenges such as land degradation, water scarcity, migration, loss of
14 biodiversity, increase in population growth rates and climate change. At the same time, with
15 support from the Consultative Group for International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) and the
16 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), they have to orient themselves
17 toward new directions of research such as biotechnology, agrobiodiversity, GIS technology, IPM,
18 water and soil conservation, rangeland and drought management, value chains and market
19 research. Applying advanced AKST may bring new varieties of crops, breeds of livestock, and
20 advanced technologies that are suitable to tackle the problems of biotic and abiotic stresses and
21 to meet the challenges for sustainable development.

22

23 **3. Agricultural productivity improvements will depend on substantial public and private**
24 **investments in agricultural research and extension.** The national agricultural research
25 systems (NARS) are generally weak, and investments in agricultural research and extension are
26 low. This situation is not likely to improve, considering current dismissal of agriculture as an
27 engine of economic development and the lack of constituency for stronger NARS. Increasing
28 public investments and providing incentives to the private sector to engage in research and
29 extension to complement public efforts will likely help acquire adequate capacity to contribute to
30 poverty alleviation, food security and economic progress. Moreover, a sustained public sector role
31 in agricultural research will be essential, particularly for production areas in less favorable
32 environments, unlikely to be served by the private sector.

33

34 **4. Private ownership of intellectual property rights (IPR) is increasing, making it likely that**
35 **developing countries will find more barriers preventing their access to international**
36 **research spillovers.** A self-reliant research policy is required to build domestic AKST capacity,
37 with research directed toward identifying biodiversity and variety of species. Ways to achieve

1 such an objective include identifying CWANA agricultural resources and biodiversity and
2 establishing CWANA-based IPR (e.g. Arab IPR League) and forums for equitable exchange of
3 IPR-based research results.

4
5 **5. Food safety and quality standards are important for trade, access to industrial-country
6 markets and domestic consumers' health, as outbreaks of food illness are expected to**

7 **increase.** The cost of assuring quality in food will increase due to intensive use of chemicals,
8 transformation of traditional systems, and large-scale production structures and trade.

9 Compliance with food safety regulations and quality assurance in CWANA has been relatively
10 slow and is mostly driven by government laws made to secure traditional export markets,
11 responding to provisions of importing countries. In local markets as well, it is important to
12 safeguard the right to food safety for all consumers. Good agricultural practices at the farm level
13 with stringent veterinary controls along the supply chain are required to ensure the safety of both
14 fresh and processed foods. Institutions in charge of protecting public health and of promoting the
15 adoption and implementation of standards have to be strengthened. Legislation needs to be
16 enacted and strictly enforced. Prioritizing local consumer awareness, private enterprise
17 commitment, and risk assessment and laboratory infrastructure will ensure good traceability of
18 food.

19
20 **6. AKST in the CWANA region has too often used a nonholistic approach with little**

21 **involvement of stakeholders.** As a consequence, it is lagging behind international trends in
22 innovativeness and effectiveness. Adopting a participatory and integrated approach can support
23 AKST in CWANA to face the fast pace of its population growth and find a relevant role vis-à-vis
24 agricultural needs and trends at national, regional and international levels.

25
26 **7. Developing and applying AKST in CWANA is not truly geared toward the goals of**

27 **alleviating poverty and promoting sustainability.** These goals, however, are expected to be
28 major paradigms of agricultural development in the next decades. Transparent, participatory and
29 accountable mechanisms for setting AKST priorities at institutional level can enhance the
30 implementation of policies that are able to tackle poverty in CWANA while also addressing the
31 sustainability dimension.

32
33 **8. Proper and well-established links among agricultural education, research and extension**

34 **are important if AKST is to work efficiently.** The source of knowledge for education and
35 extension is directly connected to the results of scientific research, and the research is driven by
36 collaborating with extension workers who are well aware of local problems and are in close touch
37 with farmers. The curricula of agricultural education and the content of the courses must be up to

1 date and applicable to the needs of the market. These needs can mainly and correctly be
2 determined by extension activities, which are the best way to tap into local knowledge. In CWANA
3 countries these links are not well established because legitimate interaction among agricultural
4 education, research and extension sectors is lacking. To enhance AKST effectiveness, links
5 among agricultural education, research and extension are to be strengthened so that all links,
6 including farmers, can be included in the system. Policy options for forging well-established links
7 are to put these institutions under one authority such as the land-grant universities in the U.S. or
8 to ensure legitimate horizontal and vertical interaction among them.

9
10 **9. If persistent needs for national agricultural technology are to be effectively met, NARS**
11 **in the CWANA region should be structurally empowered and their activities supported by**
12 **regional and international resources.** AKST development in CWANA suffers from lack of an
13 enabling environment. The educational and research infrastructure is poor; policies and
14 institutions place only limited emphasis on domestic and regional efforts toward developing
15 AKST. This situation requires a radical policy shift to favor strengthening educational
16 infrastructure and adopt a policy framework that provides human capacities and offers incentives
17 for AKST development.

18
19 **10. Policies that promote agrobiodiversity and use of traditional knowledge lead to**
20 **sustainable development of agriculture, despite the intensification of farming systems.**
21 Green Revolution practices and intensification of farming systems with the introduction of new
22 varieties of crops, livestock, mechanization and aggressive use of chemicals cause us to lose
23 traditional knowledge and biodiversity. Formulating new agricultural policy to protect and enhance
24 agrobiodiversity has to become an important part of the agroenvironmental objectives and actions
25 for many CWANA countries. Developing these policies will be in response to growing public
26 concern over the increasing pressure on natural and existing ecosystems brought by agricultural
27 activity. Actually, government policies toward biodiversity should balance the tradeoff between
28 benefiting the economy and conserving biodiversity.

29
30 **11. Future AKST in the CWANA region is to be visualized as transitional, to benefit from**
31 **local knowledge and incorporate and transform local agricultural practices into scientific**
32 **ones.** Options in that line include recording, preserving and researching local knowledge,
33 devising new AKST models to take advantage of local agricultural practices and considering
34 traditional knowledge as a base of every international attempt for modernization in a CWANA
35 country.

36

1 **12. The CWANA region continues to lack appropriate technologies that could help**
2 **effectively address key concerns like desertification, low productivity and loss of**
3 **biodiversity.** One reason for this is that the available technologies are not necessarily
4 appropriate, as they are not based on indigenously developed or documented AKST. This
5 problem can be addressed by national, regional and international initiatives aimed at
6 strengthening research, technology development and extension capacities within the CWANA
7 region.

8
9 **13. Higher, stable and continuous economic growth substantially encourages farmers to**
10 **make better use of AKST.** In CWANA, the per capita consumption of food is low, especially of
11 meat and milk products. Higher demand for agricultural products would mean more cash flowing
12 in to the farmers, who in turn would most probably seek out and use appropriate AKST.

13
14 **14. Continuing population growth is likely to increase rural-to-urban migration.** This
15 will result in small-scale farming employing those sectors of the population that have
16 limited opportunities of movement and choice, mainly women. These sectors will have to rely on
17 agriculture to support their livelihoods and at the same time face harsh environmental conditions
18 due to climate change and difficult market access because of global trade. Technological
19 innovations in agriculture, which are not designed or applied to meet the needs and conditions of
20 women, carry the risk of further increasing the burden on women as providers for their
21 families, and may impair women's productivity. The negative consequences of these trends can
22 be contained if institutions adjust to the changing circumstances in rural areas. This means,
23 for example, that women's role as farmers is acknowledged together with their role as food
24 providers and, often, as heads of household. If their rights are redefined accordingly, their access
25 to resources will be facilitated, their agricultural work supported and their livelihoods and lives
26 of their families enhanced. Also, policies aimed to build capacity may be put in place so that rural
27 livelihoods can depend on diversified sources of income, thus reducing the vulnerability
28 of disadvantaged sectors. If AKST addresses the needs and priorities of these new farmers and
29 adopts a more participatory model of development, it may boost the role of agriculture
30 and sustain the livelihoods of the sectors that increasingly rely on it.

31

1 **4.1 Implications of Future Challenges for AKST-related Policies**

2 **4.1.1 Market and trade issues**

3 Markets and trade are important factors in determining the access to and adoption of AKST.
4 Rising demand for agricultural products and more competitive markets are likely to result in
5 higher demand for AKST. For example, protectionist policies would not encourage the adoption of
6 certified seeds, while liberalization and appropriate marketing policies may be accompanied by
7 the adoption of more productive technologies, higher efficiency and economic growth. We are
8 interested to find the best ways and options to develop AKST based on our assessment of market
9 and trade developments in the region.

10

11 4.1.1.1 Trade arrangements

12 Although trade liberalization globally represents the goal of multilateral trade negotiation under
13 the auspice of the World Trade Organization (WTO), most WTO members have engaged in
14 regional or bilateral agreements due to the relative ease of forming regional blocs. The CWANA
15 region is not an exception. It has seen emerge many regional and bilateral trade agreements
16 among neighboring countries. For instance Egypt has concluded about 40 agreements (ESCWA,
17 1998). In 1981 the gulf countries established the Gulf Cooperation Council to enhance
18 intraregional trade and cooperation. In February 1989 the Arab Maghreb Union was established
19 in Marrakech. The Customs Union between the European Union (EU) and Turkey is a unique
20 event in the region; it has increased trade volume between the two partners and has been
21 particularly profitable to Turkey. These arrangements are to be fostered to facilitate AKST
22 adoption in the region.

23

24 WTO trade negotiations, however, also create threats for developing countries and for the
25 CWANA countries in particular. Not only benefits are expected. For example, WTO blue box
26 payments for reducing production and setting land asides will be reduced according to a tiered
27 formula. Under this formula, members having higher levels of trade-distorting domestic support
28 will make greater overall reductions to achieve harmonious results. The same approach will be
29 valid for the total aggregate measure of support and market access. So developing countries,
30 which need more support for their agricultural sector, will be affected by these developments.

31

32 Intraindustry trade is also growing among regional trading groups. Such a trend is an indication of
33 economic integration and economic diversification and development. Intraindustry trade within the
34 regional trading blocs occurs mostly between neighboring countries with similar demand
35 structure. Transportation and transaction costs are among the constraints that hamper its
36 development within the region. Policy and institutional changes are required to follow these
37 developments and overcome the current constraints.

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Since the EU is an important partner for many CWANA countries (e.g. the Mediterranean countries), its enlargement with the entrance of the Central and Eastern European countries (CEECs) will bring benefits but also threats to the region. There would also be benefits if Turkey were to enter the EU; it would bring the EU boundary closer to CWANA and be an excellent opportunity to increase mutual trade.

We do not expect that enlargement of the EU to the east will divert foreign investments to the newly added countries instead of the countries in CWANA region, as the incentives to invest in these regions are dissimilar and the foreseen investments in CEECs had begun to be realized even before the expansion.

4.1.1.2 Trade negotiations: more integration

Since the inception of WTO in 1994 efforts have focused on launching a new, comprehensive round of multilateral trade negotiations. From the Seattle ministerial meeting up to the Doha Declaration there have been advances on a number of trade and nontrade issues. The ministerial conference at Cancún, Mexico, set a milestone toward achieving the Doha Development Agenda round of trade negotiations as mandated by ministers at the 2001 Doha conference. However, given the few achievements in past negotiations, observers remain skeptical that a new comprehensive round can be completed as planned (Miner, 2001). The big players are expected to make additional policy reforms (e.g. trade legislation in the USA and European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) reforms in the EU) before undertaking strong concessions and commitments in the upcoming negotiations.

It is somewhat disappointing that benefits from agricultural trade liberalization have not materialized as was predicted. There are at least two reasons why trade benefits were only partial. First, negotiations on agriculture alone do not consider the comparative advantage principle. As a result, the Doha Declaration made provisions for broad-based negotiations extending trade negotiations to further liberalize trade for the industrial products and services of which nations may take advantage (Ingco, 2002). Second, national policies and legislation are creating additional cross-national boundary transaction costs and limiting liberalization efforts. Gerber (2000) pointed out that trade relations remain far denser within nations than between nations and a lot of trade does not occur according to predictions of the neoclassical model. Accordingly, “deep” economic integration requires that not only border barriers but also domestic policy barriers be removed. More integration is needed to achieve regional cooperation to develop AKST.

1 4.1.1.3 Recurrent and newer issues

2 The main issues already identified in the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) on
3 agriculture embodied market access, export competition and domestic support. However, a body
4 of new trade and nontrade concerns are emerging and attracting growing public interest. The
5 agreement on agriculture already included issues of food security, food safety and quality,
6 environment concerns, resource conservation and rural development (Miner, 2001). Additional
7 issues raised in the last negotiation meetings included animal welfare, biotechnology, species
8 preservation, landscape safeguards, poverty reduction and preservation of rural culture (Miner,
9 2001).

10

11 Newer border-trade topics embodied items such as the rules of origin, standards and technical
12 barriers, intellectual property rights, sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) standards, dispute
13 settlement and the role of small countries (Gerber, 2000). Among the nontrade domestic policy
14 issues are foreign investment, competition policies, and labor and environmental standards. All
15 these issues affect AKST; more investment is required, CWANA seeks more aid in the area of
16 SPS and in general there is need for research and capacity building.

17

18 4.1.1.4 Regional links: the EU-CAP reform

19 Traditional regional links are shaping export markets and observed trade flows. According to Diao
20 et al. (2002), export markets for many developing countries are concentrated in a few countries in
21 the North because of geographic proximity and historical links. As a result trade negotiations will
22 be shaped by regional blocs. North African and Middle Eastern countries are thus more interested
23 in the EU agricultural markets and consequently in EU agricultural reforms under the 2003 CAP
24 reform.

25

26 Indeed, the work program annexed to the Barcelona Declaration cites the following objectives
27 with regard to the countries that have signed the declaration, which are options for AKST
28 development as well (Chioccioli, 2002):

- 29
- 30 • integrated rural development
 - 31 • support for policies implemented by Mediterranean countries to diversify production
 - 32 • reduction of food dependency
 - 33 • promotion of environment-friendly agriculture

33

34 4.1.1.5 Food safety and product quality

35 With the decline in the use of traditional trade barriers such as tariffs and quotas, there is
36 evidence that technical and regulatory barriers are increasingly used instead. In industrial
37 countries many firms are moving toward adopting international standards. This move is relatively

1 slow in CWANA countries and might therefore represent an obstacle to international trade. Food
2 safety and quality standards are important for trade and access to markets in industrial countries
3 but also for domestic consumers' health, with a view to reducing food-borne morbidity and
4 mortality and improving nutritional and hygienic quality. Food-borne diseases such as *Salmonella*
5 and *Escherichia coli* infections remain responsible for high levels of morbidity and mortality in the
6 general populations of CWANA, but particularly for at-risk groups, such as infants and the
7 immunocompromised. Many zoonoses such as brucellosis and tuberculosis that are associated
8 with handling diseased domestic and wild animals are also prevalent in CWANA countries.
9 Because of intensive use of chemicals, transformation of traditional systems, large-scale
10 production structures and trade, the cost of maintaining quality in foods will increase. Organic
11 agriculture is an alternative to traditional farming systems and greatly appreciated by consumers,
12 mainly in industrial countries (import markets). In many countries, including CWANA, products are
13 registered with country of origin designated to assure consumers of the assumed high quality.
14 Compliance with food safety and quality assurance in CWANA has been driven by government
15 laws to secure traditional export markets. In recent years, several CWANA countries such as
16 Bahrain, Morocco and Pakistan have planned and implemented extensive reviews of their food
17 safety systems, updating their legislation and generally improving their systems as a whole
18 (WHO, 2001). In local markets as well it is important to safeguard the right of food safety to all
19 consumers, protecting their health from unsafe or potentially unsafe food by preventing health
20 hazards associated with microbiological and chemical contamination and additives. Good
21 agricultural practices at farm level with stringent veterinary controls along the supply chain are
22 required to ensure the safety of fresh and processed foods. Highly useful preventive and cost-
23 effective approaches to food safety (such as the Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point System or
24 HACCP) exist and CWANA countries should adapt and adopt them. Institutions in charge of
25 promoting the adoption and implementation of standards have to be strengthened, and strategic
26 partnerships between the multiple concerned disciplines (such as health, agriculture, and food
27 industry and trade) encouraged. Consumer education is key to preventing food-borne diseases.
28 Donor support for building capacity in the area of food safety is to be called upon, and legislation
29 needs to be enacted and strictly enforced.

30

31 **4.1.2 Pricing policies**

32 Pricing policies for agricultural products ought to follow the rules of a free market. Further,
33 strategic planning is needed to shift toward market-oriented agriculture policy closely integrated
34 with national development objectives, without compromising food security or food sovereignty.
35 This however depends on the prevailing local market structure and the engagement in multilateral
36 and regional economic cooperation and negotiation toward establishing free markets. If the

1 conditions of a free competitive market are prevailing, this will lead to efficient price formation,
2 which in turn influences positively the development and adoption of AKST.

3

4 In most CWANA countries, however, agricultural markets are not competitive. Small-scale
5 farmers in particular are facing problems of scale, with market power in favor of the middleman.
6 Marketing conditions and marketing margins are changing as a result of evolving supermarket
7 requirements, mostly affecting small farmers. Under these conditions pricing policies will be
8 developed in parallel with the development of coordination strategies. Vertical coordination will
9 guarantee stable prices and markets. Farmers' associations are also an effective way to create
10 market power for small- and medium-scale farmers. Vertical coordination and farmers'
11 associations are more likely to favor the adoption of AKST in response to new requirements of
12 the supermarket phenomenon that characterizes the new marketing scene. For instance,
13 supermarkets are adopting private quality schemes. Farm enterprises need to adopt these private
14 standards if they want to stay in business.

15

16 The pricing policy, when coordinated by bureaucratic mechanisms through administered prices,
17 does not reflect marginal production costs. Under this scenario, for administrative convenience,
18 monopolies are created that lead to prices that are distorted when compared with product quality.
19 It should be noted that in this scenario there is no market-based price formation and no possibility
20 to compensate for seasonal deficiencies and overstocks. Prices set by the government are rarely
21 revised and do not reflect the opportunity cost on the international market, which brings negative
22 added value for some producers if evaluated on the basis of international market prices. Because
23 of government intervention, entrepreneurs will find it more profitable to trade on the basis of
24 barter or mutual agreements, as the transaction costs will be too high. In this case, producers see
25 no necessity to seek alternative resources or adopt newer techniques, because they have no
26 incentive to improve their work processes.

27

28 Most CWANA countries have made significant progress toward establishing free market
29 conditions. Negotiations are under way with major trading partners to enter into trade relations
30 based on WTO rules. At the national level, agricultural production is no longer centrally planned
31 and is now in the hands of private sector farmers who are free to choose what crops to grow.
32 Agricultural incomes have risen significantly as a result. Government policy toward trading inputs
33 and outputs, including processed goods, is steered toward creating a liberal market, although
34 some interventions that cause distortions and inefficiencies remain in some countries. In these
35 countries, governments are undergoing reform programs to completely liberalize the sector and
36 redefine the relationship between government agencies and the private sector. This will create a
37 more favorable environment with freer markets and prices. Liberalization will likely be

1 accompanied by better access to AKST, first to meet international markets' requirement, second
2 to be competitive in the marketplace; third, international markets will have access to AKST.

3

4 The private sector must be prepared to assume the role of market regulation and to serve as an
5 engine of growth for the whole agricultural sector. Working directly with farm associations, private
6 enterprise will improve marketing conditions by changing traditional concepts of how to market
7 and by creating useful information systems and fostering business links. Useful information will be
8 needed about prices, but also about quantities and the quality of products as required by the
9 supply chain actors. This will improve price formation mechanisms. While helping the industry to
10 process high-quality products efficiently and create better conditions to foster processing
11 capacities through transferring technologies, this will also lay the foundation for sustainable
12 growth in the industry and provide the agricultural sector with the means to respond to ever-
13 changing market conditions. The private sector may also be involved in AKST development
14 through involvement in joint ventures with research institutions to make AKST available as a
15 public good to smaller farms.

16

17 Changes in price-formation policies will occur mainly as a result of shifts in the demand curve and
18 as a consequence product prices will be affected differently. What factors will cause this shift?

- 19 • Demographic—growth in population normally brings equal growth in demand for all types of
20 goods. However, concomitant changes in the age structure may affect the demand and
21 consequently the price for certain goods. For instance, an increase in the percentage of
22 children in CWANA countries population may cause a higher demand for milk.
- 23 • Economic—changes in per capita income levels may affect the degree of demand for most
24 goods. Increase in income will change the food patterns, with expensive meat and sea
25 products dominating. The demand for less tasty foods containing starch will decline as
26 incomes increase. If the income level falls, less expensive necessity foods, such as bakery
27 products, will prevail.
- 28 • Socio- and psychological—these factors have recently emerged because of growing
29 concerns about human health. Thus recently there was a decline in the demand for beef,
30 especially in Western Europe, resulting from fears that mad cow disease could cause mortal
31 disorder in the human brain. Avian flu caused a drastic decline in the demand for poultry. But
32 the demand for olive oil grew in view of the belief that it reduces the risk of cardiovascular
33 diseases as compared with adipose or other vegetable oils.

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35 While the above factors will directly influence the demand for final agricultural products they also
36 indirectly influence the derived demand for AKST. Demand- or market-oriented production will
37 focus more on the adoption of AKST.

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Price disparities have been most visible at the producer level, where prices for agricultural products increased much less than prices for means of production. Calculations indicate that the rise in price for means of agricultural production is 40% faster than for agricultural products. Purchasing prices set by monopolistic processing industries are below world market prices, and farmers have no option but to accept them.

Notwithstanding government support to producers in the form of subsidies, most means of production such as agricultural machinery, fertilizers, pesticides, and veterinary services are inaccessible for producers. Also, food-pricing policies, based on an extensive system of food subsidies, have a negative effect on macroeconomic variables such as the rate of inflation, the balance of payments and the exchange rate. Moreover, the subsidy system has destabilized industrial output and investment. Restricting the benefits of subsidies only to those most deserving would lower the inflation rate, reduce the volume of imported food (thus the government deficit), and increase industrial output and investment. Subsidies to producers will come through public services such as research and extension and may be a more effective way to diffuse and adopt AKST.

To overcome the negative consequences of the transition to free market conditions it is necessary to take several measures to improve agricultural policy:

- Prices and agricultural trade should be liberalized. Unless prices for agricultural products are harmonized with world market levels and payments are made directly to producers, we cannot expect significant growth in the agricultural sector, and productivity will remain low.
- The primary task is to improve price-formation policies through increased competition at the level of farms. Antimonopoly legislation should be developed. Creation of a more competitive environment in the sphere of purchases will increase farm income and encourage farmers to improve productivity, marketing and trade, and quality of agricultural processing.
- It is necessary to abolish the system where production requirements are based on government order and production scheduling is done by the state. For products that in government's opinion represent national interests, a price policy should be introduced that would stimulate their voluntary production based on profitability.
- Public purchases should be based on market prices. Productivity could be improved using a contract-based system. In future, the state and farmers will buy and sell futures contracts in response to changes in market conditions and generate income before harvest.
- It is necessary to undertake thoroughgoing reforms in agricultural and trade policies. Trade barriers should be removed and a system of customs duties established. Export and import licensing should be abolished; private companies should be allowed and encouraged to take

1 part in international trade on condition that only the above-mentioned customs duties are
2 collected from them.

3

4 **4.1.3 Research policy for NRM**

5 One of the most challenging issues is the emerging expansion and diversification of the research
6 portfolio. In addition to conventional topics, AKST is called upon to cover a variety of new
7 research and innovation domains.

8

9 *Pasture management:* Agricultural land for the whole CWANA region is mainly devoted to
10 permanent pasture and rangeland. The proportion of rangeland to total land is 83 percent, the
11 lowest proportion being in Southwest Asia (55%), the highest in the Arabian Peninsula (98%). In
12 many CWANA countries, rangeland carrying capacity is decreasing because of overgrazing.

13

14 Research and technical options for improved rangeland management are available, e.g.
15 practicing rotational grazing, corralling to rehabilitate degraded spots, seeding and planting
16 possibly supported by fertilization and water harvesting, practicing agroforestry, maintaining
17 livestock biodiversity and reducing the number of artificial water points. However, these practices
18 have often been developed in completely different ecosocial regions, and adaptation of these
19 technologies in other countries is important. Further research in the area of rangeland will
20 contribute to solving environmental problems and to developing a livestock industry in the region,
21 and it will mitigate the climate change problems.

22

23 *Soil and water management:* Research in soil salinity management will be essential for the
24 region. Research priorities in this area include development of measures to prevent soil salinity;
25 land reclamation by using low-cost technologies to improve the properties of saline soils;
26 assessment of soil salinity through GIS technologies; biological reclamation of saline soils;
27 biodrainage systems (tree plantation) in saline and waterlogged soils; selection of salt-tolerant
28 crop species and varieties; and development of halophyte agriculture.

29

30 In the field of irrigation and drainage management: deficit irrigation, conjunctive or drainage water
31 use, irrigation scheduling, irrigation, drainage-water quality management, identification of
32 optimum furrow length, water discharge, development and adoption of advanced water-saving
33 technologies, selection of promising irrigation technologies. In rainfed areas: supplementary
34 irrigation, water and soil conservation technologies, diversification of cropping patterns, crop
35 residue management, land leveling, integrated plant nutrition management, irrigation, wind and
36 water erosion control, GIS technologies and erosion control, traditional and introduced soil

1 conservation technologies in mountain areas, slope land management, and watershed
2 management.

3

4 *Integrated pest management:* Integrated pest management (IPM) is an effective and
5 environmentally sensitive approach that relies on a combination of common-sense practices. IPM
6 programs use current, comprehensive information on the life cycles of pests and their interaction
7 with the environment. IPM takes advantage of all appropriate pest management options including,
8 but not limited to, the judicious use of pesticides. Use of biological alternatives instead of harmful
9 chemicals, research on soil biota, especially on nematodes, for soil-borne diseases and on
10 parasitic weeds could alleviate many problems farmers of the region face.

11

12 *Organic farming:* Industrial countries have developed markets for organic products and there are
13 today numerous opportunities for organic agriculture. Organic crops include cotton, cereals and
14 potatoes. Beef, dairy, and sheep and goats are the focus for livestock. The Swiss Agency for
15 Development and Cooperation has already implemented a project for organic cotton in Central
16 Asia. Research and implementation activities aimed at adopting organic agriculture can
17 potentially meet the challenges CWANA farmers face.

18

19 *Conservation agriculture and reduced tillage research:* Promotion of research in the field of
20 conservation agriculture could save water, labor, fertilizers and pesticides and fuel; it could solve
21 many problems connected with the degradation of natural resources in the region. The
22 management of cover crops and crop residues will be closely related to carbon emission issues,
23 and will increase nutrient and soil organic matter content.

24

25 *Livestock:* For many poor households in CWANA countries, livestock is an important asset. In this
26 region where many challenges impose themselves in the field of natural resource degradation,
27 integrating crops and livestock production is a promising agricultural system for low-income small-
28 scale farmers. AKST therefore needs to find ways to ensure that crop and livestock resources will
29 be developed sustainably with enhanced output per unit while increasing area productivity. Lack
30 of feed resources, poor genetic makeup and lack of effective cover for animal health are the main
31 constraints hampering livestock development in the region. Conservation of local livestock breeds
32 would be required to sustain development, and nontraditional feed resources need to be
33 developed to contain rangeland losses. Development and access to quality animal health
34 services and genetic material for upgrading of livestock should be possible. Embarking on such
35 initiatives in the region could be made possible through AKST.

36

1 *Crop management:* The region needs to enhance germplasm and take advantage of its genetic
2 resources. Advanced plant breeding may help achieve productivity gains, introduce resistance to
3 pests and diseases, reduce pesticide use, improve crop tolerance for abiotic and biotic stress,
4 improve the nutritional value of some foods, and enhance the durability of products during
5 harvesting and shipping. Raising productivity could increase smallholder incomes, reduce
6 poverty, increase food access, reduce malnutrition, and improve the livelihoods of the poor.

7

8 *Drought tolerance:* CWANA countries are classified as drylands, susceptible to desertification and
9 mostly drought prone (UNEP, 1997). These countries vitally need drought management and
10 mitigation. Thus CWANA governments have to make difficult tradeoffs between short-term
11 benefits and long-term solutions. Droughts always require immediate attention because they
12 threaten human lives, but long-term solutions are also necessary. From this perspective, it is
13 essential to note that drought-tolerant crops, varieties and hybrids are essential for countries of
14 the region.

15

16 *High-value crops:* The main objective of the research system in the region during the process of
17 commercialization and diversification remains to generate new technologies that improve
18 productivity and farmer income. In addition to the productivity objective, research should focus on
19 providing farmers with the flexibility to decide on crop choices and to move relatively freely to
20 growing the crops they choose. Gearing farmers to meet more exacting safety and quality
21 standards ought to be an essential part of the strategy.

22

23 *Postharvest methods:* Many times, large shares of food produced are lost after harvest. Reducing
24 postharvest losses has been an important focus of AKST and development programs in the past.
25 But on several occasions technical innovations have faced sociocultural or socioeconomic
26 problems like low profit margins, additional workload, or incompatibility with the existing
27 production or postproduction system. The divergence between technical recommendations and
28 the realities of rural life translated in many cases into a low adoption rate. Now the rationale for
29 improvement in postharvest systems has been shifting from preventing loss to opening new
30 market opportunities. Making markets work for the poor is emerging as the new rationale for
31 development, reflecting a shift away from governmental operation of postharvest tasks to
32 frameworks that enable private sector initiatives in this field.

33

34 *Biotechnology:* Agricultural biotechnology will contribute to poverty reduction and food security if
35 scientists can develop technologies to increase quality and yield of food crops, and if small-scale
36 farmers adopt the technologies. Research has to focus on crops, livestock and fish. Major crops
37 are rice, maize, wheat, sorghum, millet, oilseed and potato. Biotechnology should also focus on

1 high-value cash crops: cotton, soybean and vegetables that can increase the incomes of small-
2 scale farmers through crop diversification. Fish and livestock—cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and
3 chickens—are also important. The technology must be simple, low cost, and carry little or no risk
4 to human health and the environment.

5
6 Genetic engineering could be widely used as a breeding technique. Genetic engineering involves
7 the transfer of one or more precisely selected genes into the genome of the host organism. The
8 ability of genetic engineering to transfer genes across the species barrier or indeed across
9 kingdoms is precisely what gives the tool such power and what attracts such controversy. Gene
10 banks and genetic engineering can also be used to speed up the breeding process by inserting a
11 specific gene into an otherwise desirable genetic background without requiring multiple
12 generations of backcrossing to eliminate unwanted change, as is necessary with conventional
13 breeding. Biotechnology can also be used to develop vaccines for animals. Bio-information could
14 support molecular research, e.g. breeding and GMO activity.

15
16 *Value-added technologies and market analyses:* Value addition to primary goods offers a major
17 income opportunity and is not being achieved in many countries of the region. Research and
18 development of value-added products and markets could increase income of poor farmers and be
19 used to generate income in rural areas. For value chains and market analyses, this type of
20 research is essential: analysis of constraints of access to market information; development of
21 better methods to communicate price and quality information; new technology to reduce
22 postharvest losses; role of production for different markets; availability of external and domestic
23 markets for the poor; improved access to financial capital and markets; input markets and
24 services; and capacity building in marketing.

25
26 Given existing research capacities and capabilities in the CWANA region, it is unlikely that such
27 an overwhelming agenda will be met under the business-as-usual scenario.

28 29 **4.1.4 Investment and funding policy**

30 During the twentieth century, highly accelerated improvements in agricultural productivity have
31 significantly contributed to poverty alleviation, food security and economic progress. These
32 productivity improvements have been achieved as a result of substantial and deliberate
33 investments in agricultural research and development (R&D). Because of associated high returns,
34 it is recognized worldwide that a minimum target of spending on investment in agricultural R&D
35 should be set by developing countries, in addition to ensuring larger share gains from
36 international public spillovers.

37

1 Historical trends of investments in agricultural R&D show, however, that government spending
2 slowed in the Middle East, North Africa, and Central Asia and the Caucasus. Meanwhile,
3 international technology spillovers and corresponding knowledge have also decreased. Taking
4 into account the low density and poor to medium performance of NARS, these trends currently
5 pose critical challenges to AKST development and application. Business-as-usual prospects
6 show that higher investment will be of great value to ensure a critical level of AKST self-reliance.
7 This is vital in light of persistent signals that developing countries are not likely to benefit, as they
8 used to do, from international spillovers from the North and from the CGIAR centers.

9

10 It is suggested that under globalization, countries would still have opportunities to benefit from
11 investment spillovers by interacting with nations and communities who are well equipped in
12 agricultural science, technology and information. However, risks are likely to be faced regarding
13 the availability, price and quality of needed new technologies. Research agendas and investment
14 structures are changing in the direction of diverging research objectives between industrial
15 countries and developing ones, and of the emergence of private corporate bodies providing AKST
16 (Alston et al., 2006).

17

18 As a result, only substantial self-reliance in agricultural R&D will ensure developing efficient
19 agriculture production systems that are able to successfully compete in price and quality in
20 domestic and international markets (Pardey et al., 2006a, 2006b). This is of particular importance
21 for the future of small-scale farmers who cannot generate or do not have access to the AKST
22 needed to improve their livelihoods.

23

24 Therefore, it seems that business as usual will not, under all circumstances, ensure a continuous
25 flow of affordable AKST. An increase in national spending of CWANA countries will be still
26 needed to counter increasing monopoly building in the AKST system that may be detrimental for
27 agricultural development and sustainability objectives by excluding developing and less-
28 developed countries from AKST benefits.

29

30 **4.1.5 Intellectual property rights policy**

31 Growing IPR protection as one endorsed by WTO members is intended to promote innovation
32 and technology transfer and dissemination to the mutual benefit of both the producer and the user
33 of the technology. This is why all countries are called upon to establish and enforce appropriate
34 IPR-related regulations to help innovation take place in sectors vital for socioeconomic and
35 technological development. As a result if required regulations are adopted, technology transfer
36 toward less-developed countries can occur (Abbot, 2003). Such cooperation comprises
37 assistance in preparing law texts related to IPR promotion, enforcement and protection;

1 prevention of their abuse; implementation of institutions and agencies serving this aim; and last
2 but not least, personnel and technical training.

3

4 However, in developing countries, regulations protecting IPR can be perceived as a means of
5 principally serving rich countries since they are the technology generators. Holding IPR, AKST
6 producers will invest only in industrial countries with established and functional laws that comply
7 with international standards. It is true that developing countries are more and more present, but
8 the technology generated in these countries comes either from multinational companies that
9 relocate their production plants or from small national companies.

10

11 In addition, perfect compliance with trade-related intellectual propriety rights (TRIPS) does not
12 guarantee that poor countries will have access to new top technologies. Often infrastructures are
13 insufficient and professionally qualified personnel lacking to make use of them. Furthermore,
14 technology patenting is not always followed by use in production, which prevents consumers from
15 taking advantage of technological progress.

16

17 Abolished trade barriers and globally protected IPR may be antagonistic, if effective holding and
18 use of IPR is not rightly controlled. According to the WTO report on interactions between trade
19 exchanges and competition policy, IPR protection and competition policy are seen as
20 complementary notions aimed to promote competition and consumer welfare. But in some cases,
21 IPR protection might threaten competition (Drexl, 2003). To avoid such a negative outcome, we
22 might suggest that IPR protection be placed under the control of a global competition law. But,
23 should harmonized competition laws include a sensitive concept like IPR protection? If yes, what
24 would be the effect of that extended law on high technologies?

25

26 At present, few CWANA countries have established IPR protection laws and hence are not likely
27 to take advantage of accessible new technologies to strengthen their own capacity for innovation.

28 While working toward establishing a domestic legal environment (market competition and IPR
29 protection laws), developing countries can consider

- 30 • abolishing barriers, for better access to innovation
- 31 • supplying adequate engineering and managing skills
- 32 • promoting an adequate national marketing environment
- 33 • reducing the technology gap
- 34 • implementing IPR standards for dynamic competition

35

1 These suggestions are acceptable if the imported technology is relevant and if the importing
2 country has adequate capacity, policy, regulation and institutions to optimally exploit IPR
3 provision.

4

5 In a fair-competition environment with protected IPRs, innovation, consumer welfare and
6 development are evident consequences. In other words, competition enhances dynamic
7 efficiency, which through protection can give access to an exclusive right to innovation through
8 appropriation in respect to patent law while diverting free riders and misappropriations. This gives
9 the consumer better access to innovation and encourages information dissemination. Monopoly
10 ownership, resulting from IPR protection, may not be harmful to innovation in given applications
11 (scientific research, computer licenses, etc.).

12

13 However, often an optimal mix of competition policy and patenting laws is required to effectively
14 induce a productive equilibrium between innovation and IPRs, as mentioned above, creating
15 stronger markets.

16

17 **4.2 Implications of Future Challenges for AKST-Related Institutions and Organizations**

18 In such a rapidly growing world with tremendous challenges, CWANA has a lot to worry about
19 while striving for a better and sustainable future. CWANA countries share complex situations,
20 beginning with their harsh climate and scarce resources. These factors are compounded by high
21 population growth rates; they pass through wars and natural disasters, and end with the newly
22 emerging issues of globalization and trade liberalization. All these factors have significant
23 implications on the ability of CWANA countries to achieve development and sustainability goals,
24 and more specifically to reduce hunger and poverty and improve livelihoods. Institutional
25 arrangements and partnerships are major actors in developing and applying AKST. Their effect
26 varies, reflecting different levels of involvement and maturity across the region.

27

28 **4.2.1 Cooperation**

29 Institutional and organizational arrangements of interest comprise regional and international
30 conventions (Framework Convention on Climate Change, biodiversity, etc.), regional
31 organizations (e.g. the Arab Center for the Studies of Arid Zones and Dry Lands—ACSAD),
32 national institutions, local and community-based arrangements to enhance technology
33 generation, transfer and adoption, access to new technology and better technology management.

34

35 These arrangements affect directly (as direct drivers) the generation, access, dissemination and
36 use of AKST in achieving development and sustainability goals. If the CWANA region is to attain
37 development goals, member countries need to cooperate and coordinate their efforts.

1

2 CWANA countries need to coordinate and collaborate within and across the region to deliver the
3 development objectives, especially with reference to poverty alleviation, amelioration of hunger,
4 and socioeconomic and sustainable development. Also they need to establish networks to
5 preserve and develop natural resources and human capital, to mitigate natural disasters such as
6 droughts and floods, and to resolve conflict over natural resource management.

7

8 *Global cooperation:* Institutional arrangements within developing countries are needed to conform
9 with and provide input into overall government reform, particularly into restructuring their
10 economic, social and related fields. Cooperation principles should be based on an action- and
11 results-oriented approach and be consistent with the principles of universality, democracy,
12 transparency, cost-effectiveness and accountability. These institutional arrangements should
13 elaborate strategies and measures to increase national and international efforts to promote
14 sustainable and environmentally sound development in the CWANA countries and to promote
15 economic growth.

16

17 To be effective, these efforts need to be coordinated and implemented by private or public
18 organizations in relation to international organizations in the form of networks to support and
19 facilitate the transfer and adoption of technology. The involved organizations include

20

- national research centers
- nongovernmental organizations (NGOs)
- trade associations (chambers of commerce, associations of enterprises)
- state and parastatal institutions for converting economic and policy approaches (ACSAD)
- private service providers, active NGOs

21

22 • trade associations (chambers of commerce, associations of enterprises)

23 • state and parastatal institutions for converting economic and policy approaches (ACSAD)

24 • private service providers, active NGOs

25

26 These institutions and international networks contribute to development, diffusion and adoption of
27 AKST. They should be enabled by financial funds, strong networking capabilities, continuous
28 learning and assessment, explicit incorporation and voice of producers in the AKST process,
29 business management and planning approaches, and clear and transparent priority-setting
30 mechanisms to achieve significant success in realizing the development and sustainability goals.

31

32 *Regional cooperation:* Regional and subregional cooperation includes the regional development
33 banks, NGOs, and regional economic and technical cooperation organizations. Within their
34 respective agreed mandates, these organizations can contribute to AKST development and
35 adoption by

36

- promoting regional and subregional capacity building

- 1 • promoting the integration of economical, social and environmental concerns in regional and
2 subregional development policies
- 3 • promoting regional and subregional cooperation, where appropriate, regarding issues related
4 to sustainable development

5

6 In particular regional organizations for technology generation, evaluation, diffusion and study will
7 need to be developed. It is likely that new AKST will flow toward the region from all around the
8 globe, promoting R&D in this field. This will be further enhanced by the increased pressure on
9 natural resources associated with increased population. Countries of the region may be
10 encouraged to share resources (water, energy, gas), which would help stabilize the price of such
11 goods. Nevertheless, a basic assumption for stronger regional cooperation is the high level of
12 commitment for institutional development and reform from various countries, especially from
13 industrial countries and donors.

14

15 Such cooperation is more effective if an outward liberalization policy is adopted. If an inward-
16 looking and protective approach in dealing with development issues is adopted, it is not likely to
17 enhance the development and application of AKST to achieve development goals and reduce
18 poverty in CWANA.

19

20 In the latter case, increased prices and the monopoly of some associations will prevent poorer—
21 or nonoil-producing—countries from developing and applying AKST. Under this scenario,
22 countries will continue to have inward-looking policies that will hinder any potential cooperation
23 across borders. In addition, links with R&D institutions will be weak and thus access to new
24 technology and innovation will be limited. This will likely have long-term implications on reducing
25 poverty and achieving development goals.

26

27 Given these expected negative results, CWANA countries will more likely take a proactive role in
28 going through a transitional phase to enter global markets. Such a phase will be enhanced
29 through developing the regional trading blocs that are already emerging, making it easier to
30 develop and apply AKST at national, regional and international levels. Regional cooperation will
31 be enhanced in the fields of research and AKST. It will mainly target product processing, storage
32 and marketing—ultimately providing food security and protecting human health and the
33 environment. This will contribute strongly to poverty alleviation and will improve the quality of life
34 in the region. As a result, investment in science and technology in general and in agricultural R&D
35 in particular will be enhanced on national and regional levels—thus contributing to achieving the
36 development goals.

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National cooperation: Of equal importance to CWANA countries are what arrangements national institutions will make and the effects they will have on developing and applying AKST in their efforts to achieve the development goals.

It is assumed that CWANA will adopt knowledge-driven economic development in which AKST is the key factor. CWANA countries will enjoy needs-based decision making integrated within countries of the region and across regions, leading toward achieving the development goals and improving livelihoods.

While CWANA countries struggle for integration within the global market through regional trade areas, they need to face major challenges including developing AKST infrastructure at different levels such as academia and research as well as developing and planning for transformation and change management under globalization. Overall, the process of change should feed into enhanced well-being of nations and improved health, education, and use of natural resources and infrastructure.

Policy and institutional reform in various sectors will be a major feature of this storyline. National policies, plans and legislation will be improved to support integration into the global market and to meet all the required criteria and conditions for promoting investment and facilitating trade. In parallel, public institutions will need to be developed to accommodate the changes. Local producers will strive to meet the conditions for entering the global market. The role of the private sector and other national stakeholders will be enhanced through better cooperation, and strengthened public-private partnership will be witnessed with more emphasis on gender equality and empowerment of local communities. CWANA countries will live in an era flourishing for development institutions, especially those working on AKST and other relevant issues including natural resources and property rights. Farmers' organizations will emerge as a major player to support research and technology transfer and application and protection of farmers' rights. Civil society organizations promoting the conservation of natural resources will advocate land conservation and rehabilitation. Education and capacity building for various players will be integrated into various activities. Sustainability will become a culture and way of living for the people of CWANA, leading the countries and the region toward more accomplishments on the scale of development goals.

As stated earlier, inward policies would contribute to increased prices. Also, the monopoly of some associations would prevent poorer—or nonoil-producing—countries from development and application of AKST. CWANA countries would suffer from focusing on food security from the local

1 perspective, and not in the global context. Research and development would focus on adaptive
2 research, but investment in basic and applied research might not get priority. As a result, the
3 capacity to innovate would be limited. The media would continue to be under central control,
4 sifting the information, and thus agricultural informatics and the flow of scientific information would
5 be blocked to a greater extent. Consumers would have to rely on limited information and because
6 of the limited role civil society would have, consumer activism would not take root. The human
7 resource quality would remain at low ebb and agriculture continue to be complacent with unskilled
8 or low-skilled labor, with scarce capacity to transform agriculture and thus increase its
9 productivity. Overcontrolled governance would prevent agriculture and its relevant institutional
10 arrangements from responding to the change out of and across borders.

11

12 As governments embark on more people-caring and outward-looking policies, they become more
13 proactive to provide equitable access to education, health and information. Thus AKST
14 development will be enhanced, focusing mainly on processing, storage and marketing rather than
15 agricultural production.

16

17 Local organizations will receive more support from local and national governments. Governments
18 will become more proactive to provide equitable access to education, health and information. The
19 aim will be to improve knowledge about the environment and to ensure an optimal national
20 natural resource management (NRM) system. In addition, new actors will engage in agricultural
21 production. The goal of achieving a better quality of life as opposed to generating income will get
22 prominence. Higher awareness and responsibility levels will help fight problems like
23 environmental pollution and public health hazards on national and regional levels, and thus
24 achieve sustainability goals.

25

26 Affected by WTO negotiations, environmental problems will be solved through technology and
27 market-oriented institutional reform. People will pay for the pollution they create. Under these
28 policies with expanded property rights, people providing ecosystem services will be paid.
29 Ecotechnologies for managing ecosystem services will be demanded as interest in increasing
30 economic values of property rights grows and benefits of ecosystem services increase.

31

32 In addition, countries will be encouraged to produce and sell products tailored to diversified
33 market niches. This is applicable to both regional and global markets. Problems of agriculture in
34 CWANA will be addressed holistically and efforts made to align agriculture with WTO negotiations
35 aimed at global reduction of subsidies and removal of barriers to agricultural trade. Markets for
36 ecosystems services and relevant technologies will be created and developed as a result of
37 agricultural multifunctionality and diversification. New companies and cooperative institutions will

1 evolve to provide these services. These companies, however, requiring large amounts of capital
2 and knowledge, will develop in rich countries and operate as multinationals in poor countries,
3 imposing their own fees and operating under less control from local governments or institutions.
4 Poor countries will be at a disadvantage and may not approve of such institutions.

6 **4.2.2 Capacity building for innovation**

7 *Public research organizations:* CWANA countries do not possess the institutional, managerial or
8 financial capacity to absorb current levels of project aid or to sustain project activities after foreign
9 aid is phased out. The challenge for donors is to continue moving beyond the resource-transfer
10 model of financing the construction of buildings and purchase of equipment and vehicles for
11 NARS and pursue a model based on human capability and institutional building that is geared to
12 the specific needs of CWANA countries at this stage of their development. The following
13 constraints face most NARS of developing countries in their institutional development: weak
14 research management, institutional instability (donor driven), human resource instability, funding
15 instability, research program instability, limited relevance of research and deficiency in priority
16 setting, defective linkage with the world knowledge system; insufficient links within the NARS
17 themselves with universities, the private sector and NGOs, and with outside partners such as
18 international agricultural research centres, regional institutions and advanced research institutions
19 in industrial countries; and weak monitoring and evaluation of research. Generally speaking, the
20 role of foreign assistance has been prominent in developing NARS in the region. Building
21 agricultural research capacity means developing the capacity to design organizational rules that
22 will help people organize, support, conduct and monitor agricultural research. Research
23 management capacity development measures may involve

- 24 • setting medium- and long-term research plans and strategies to serve as a frame for priority
25 research programs and projects, in light of integrated sustainable development priorities and
26 policies
- 27 • identifying appropriate research instruments for achieving research objectives
- 28 • transforming human, physical and financial resources of research institutions into research
29 outputs and practical technologies
- 30 • upgrading and executing research agenda consistent with minimum environmental
31 degradation
- 32 • monitoring, evaluating and revising the agricultural research system

33
34 The agricultural research agenda must respond to the challenges of the world food supply. It will
35 be influenced by the choices of research investments and strategies made by governments and
36 institutions in both industrial and developing countries.

37

1 It is now recognized that a rigid borderline between public and private sector roles cannot be
2 established, and there are many gray areas where public–private partnerships are needed, often
3 in conjunction with civil society and producer and community organizations. In some least-
4 developed countries, the withdrawal of the public sector from markets has left a vacuum that the
5 private sector has not adequately filled, because of high transactions costs and risks. This means
6 that the public sector needs to take a more active role in coordinating activities, jointly financing
7 and building the capacity that the private sector needs to fill its role. In addition it must finance
8 core public goods, especially infrastructure. Many responsibilities are also being devolved to local
9 or state governments for decentralized program implementation, providing additional challenges
10 and opportunities. Strategies such as contracting out to the private sector, providing targeted
11 matching grants to support activities within the public interest, expanding collaborative action in
12 the context of development of market supply chains and trade associations, various types of
13 consultations and coordination forums with the private sector are all important. CWANA countries,
14 while signing free trade agreements and proceeding with trade liberalization, are facing
15 tremendous direct and indirect challenges that will need to be addressed carefully; among these
16 is the capacity of local public and private entities as well as regulatory and institutional maturity.

17

18 Farmers need to recognize that agriculture is the key to sustainable development, food security
19 and biodiversity conservation; it is central to international action in trade and investment. It has
20 been the main user of freshwater resources and central to producing bioenergy. Thus farmers
21 have begun—but not yet sufficiently—to form partnerships, covering such areas as how to
22 manage water, land, genetic resources and energy. Farmers have also strengthened
23 partnerships in research and technology. Such partnerships have been good, but they must be
24 supported by capacity building and good governance. Successful development of agriculture
25 requires democratic, consultative processes that involve farmers' organizations. On the other
26 hand, indigenous communities should continue to seek partnerships and associations with
27 governments and transnational bodies to maintain access to traditional lands, based on principles
28 of good faith and equity.

29

30 *Public–private partnerships:* When discussing partnerships, we should note that sustainable
31 development requires partnerships among all stakeholders and at all levels. In particular, the
32 regional aspect has been stressed as crucial, if implementation is to achieve the stated goals.
33 Despite the fact that many encouraging partnerships toward implementing the declarations and
34 conventions have emerged following Rio, real implementation has been less satisfactory due to
35 the lack of resources and political will. Implementation has also been hindered by structural and
36 institutional failings, such as questionable government policies and incentives associated with
37 trade and agriculture. The international community has a responsibility to consolidate the

1 multistakeholder dialogue by establishing an institutional structure to facilitate the building of
2 partnerships.

3

4 Recent approaches adopted by some international entities such as the World Bank's strategy in
5 rural investment to promote agricultural growth and poverty reduction are founded on the fact that
6 the public sector, the private sector and civil society can work together to enhance productivity of
7 the agricultural sector and promote its competitiveness in ways that reduce rural poverty and
8 sustain the natural resource base. These actions involve a rich mixture of science, technology,
9 people, communication, management, learning, research, capacity building, institutional
10 development and grassroots participation.

11

12 **4.2.3 Governance and information**

13 It is essential in striving for sustainable development to seek and maintain transparent democratic
14 institutions capable of protecting the environment and natural resources while providing basic
15 needs and economic opportunities. In communities where people came together to protect their
16 ecosystems, they also had better schools, health care and economies. Hence, developing
17 institutional capacity has been the core of the recent national and global attempts to achieve the
18 Millennium Development Goals. Moreover, and with continuous globalization, sustainable
19 urbanization that covers environmental, social, economic and institutional sustainability should be
20 based on the proposition that transformation from rural to urban life requires a change in the
21 institutional framework.

22

23 4.2.3.1 Governance principles

24 While rapid technological advances may in many cases help achieve economic growth without
25 harming the environment through what is known as "green economics", real cases have raised
26 the question: How can the international community guarantee that it will not continue to fail? The
27 answer lies in emphasizing that greater overall sustainability goes hand-in-hand with less
28 institutional constraints on decision-making powers, greater openness of political competition, and
29 more widespread civil and political rights. Inevitably, national efforts to achieve sustainable
30 development must focus on productive capacity and the institutions that are its key determinants,
31 as well as human and natural resources. Moreover, capacity must be strengthened to be able to
32 monitor performance where the results would feed into the process of influencing policy at the
33 highest level.

34

35 It is essential to stress that all types of institutional setups could play a role in achieving the
36 IAASTD sustainability goals. For CWANA, on the political level, the democratic deficit in decision
37 making, both nationally and internationally, had to be overcome. Far too many governments and

1 institutions in position to act focused only on narrow interests without special focus on the will of
2 the people. Parliaments had been working, at national and international levels, to provide a
3 parliamentary dimension to the work of intergovernmental organizations working on sustainable
4 development issues.

5
6 Local governments, on the other hand, could show leadership through increasing the coherence
7 and integration of their own policies, including integrating sustainable development concerns
8 across ministries and ensuring that existing policies have not worked against each other.

9
10 Trade liberalization has been a means to an end, not an end in itself. Each of the international
11 regimes and institutions should be judged on its contribution to eradicating poverty and
12 maintaining a viable natural resource base. The new perspective must build the bridges between
13 trade and environment, between investment and development, and between finance and
14 sustainable development.

15 16 4.2.3.2 Transparency and accountability

17 The poor state of governance and weak protection of rights of vulnerable communities, including
18 smallholders, is attributed to lack of transparency and accountability in government as well as
19 corporate activity, which restricts the ability of citizens, civil society groups and public
20 representatives to effectively monitor the performance of various public and private institutions.
21 Access to information is the first step toward promoting and institutionalizing public accountability
22 at various levels; while its absence or lack of it often results in arbitrary and nonparticipatory
23 decision making, weak monitoring, inefficient project execution, human rights violations and
24 rampant financial corruption in public bodies (Transparency International, 2006) Lack of access to
25 information also contributes to sustaining excessive bureaucratic controls, eliminating stakeholder
26 participation and weakening democratic institutions.

27
28 Currently, almost all government activity in CWANA takes place in a pervasive culture of official
29 secrecy, manifest in both official attitude and various pieces of legislation (e.g. Official Secrets Act
30 1923 in Pakistan). Any disclosure or sharing of information, if and when it takes place, is on a
31 “need to know” basis, as determined by official authorities, and not in recognition of the “right to
32 know” as a fundamental human right. As a result, whether information is made accessible or not
33 and at what time or in what manner it is disclosed is determined by the government. Citizens and
34 communities have hardly any say or control over it, even though the information and records held
35 by various government departments may have direct implications for their environment, health,
36 safety and well-being as well as their ability to make political or economic choices. It particularly

1 affects the weaker members of society, as the powerful find ways to access the information they
2 require by using their contacts and influence.

3

4 The culture of secrecy is so predominant that it has seriously undermined almost all mechanisms
5 created for providing access to government information. Official statements and press releases
6 often provide one-sided information and lack credibility. Annual reports are either not published or
7 lack details and appropriate analyses, which could help in determining the credibility of data
8 presented and in assessing the year's performance of related departments. Parliaments either do
9 not exist or parliamentary proceedings do not provide adequate mechanisms for maximum
10 disclosure of information about public policies and plans, participation of farming communities,
11 transparency and accountability. Information could also be made accessible through Web sites
12 but most government Web sites provide little that is useful. All of this is, partly or wholly, because
13 there are no comprehensive policies that recognize the right to information as a fundamental
14 human right and that provide an efficient legislative and institutional framework to assure this
15 right.

16

17 The few countries in CWANA that have enacted and implemented right-to-information laws
18 include Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkey and Uzbekistan. Even where such laws exist, they do not
19 conform to best international practices and hence offer little opportunity to promote a culture of
20 transparency and accountability. This situation has adverse implications across the board but
21 especially in relation to AKST, which is the mainstay of economy of many CWANA countries. This
22 lack of transparency and access to information explains, at least partially, the grave nature of the
23 problem of corruption. On the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) of Transparency International in
24 2005, not even one country from CWANA is among the top 20 better-performing countries.
25 Among the first 50 best-performers, only 7 are from CWANA. Almost all the major countries in
26 CWANA are among the poor performers on CPI. For instance in 2005, out of 158 countries,
27 Turkey ranked 65, Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Syria 70, Morocco 78, Iran 88, Algeria 97, Uzbekistan
28 137 and Pakistan 144.

29

30 4.2.3.3 Information technology

31 New information and communication technology (ICT) potentially will have a profound effect on
32 transmitting information and knowledge on agriculture and natural resource management. New
33 systems will be emerging to provide up-to-date market, weather and extension information to
34 rural producers, processors and shippers (USAID, 2005). Geographic information systems (GIS)
35 will be increasingly used in linking geographic information to agriculture and NRM to help decision
36 makers. GIS will allow more efficient use of inputs, which will not only save money in materials
37 but also make labor available for other activities (World Bank, 2007). Innovations in biological and

1 information sciences have resulted in several emerging fields that hold promise for the
2 development of future agricultural technologies. The new fields of bioremediation,
3 nanotechnology, genomics and bioinformatics will increase knowledge that can be shared and
4 used to improve sustainable agricultural production and protect ecosystem functions in industrial
5 and developing countries alike (USDA, 2003).

6
7 We will need to facilitate the exchange of scientific information and knowledge among all
8 stakeholders in the CWANA region, and between them and the outside world. The goals of
9 facilitating sustainable development and developing a global partnership for development can
10 only be realized in cooperation with the private sector to make available the benefits of new
11 technologies, especially information and communications (World Bank, undated). To meet the
12 need to exchange information and knowledge, it is highly essential to improve and enhance ICT
13 in the region. ICT will help bring together the scientific strengths and talents available in the
14 region to collectively tackle the formidable challenges and tasks ahead (World Bank, 2007).

15
16 There is great potential to improve the access to information necessary for boosting production,
17 using traditional communications technologies (such as radio) to disseminate information and
18 ideas on agricultural technologies, markets and investors (USAID, 2005). For information without
19 proprietary constraints, national and international agencies are increasingly using modern
20 communication technologies, such as the Internet, to disseminate information. While such
21 technologies are important bridging mechanisms for sharing information and experience between
22 various sections of society and across countries (Juma and Gupta, 1999), and their use is likely
23 to grow in the future, excessive reliance on them with the presence of the digital divide could
24 prevent those CWANA countries with the least capacity and the greatest need for information
25 (such as on biosafety and other risk-related fields) from having timely access to the latest
26 knowledge they need. Measures should be taken to complement information dissemination
27 through the Internet, including establishing information clearinghouses to act as bridges for
28 sharing information and experience, and disseminating the lessons learned between various
29 sections of society and across countries (Roozitalab, 2000). Appropriate specialized Web sites
30 organized and managed by international organizations should play a more prominent role in
31 spreading AKST. To deliver solutions for the poor in CWANA, biotechnology and information
32 technology should be actively linked so that new scientific discoveries worldwide can be
33 accessed and applied to the problems of food security and poverty in a timely manner (IFPRI,
34 1999). In addition to the growing challenge of facilitating and regulating access to information and
35 information technologies, CWANA countries will need to harness modern science and skills for
36 propoor growth, in a world in which agriculture is becoming more knowledge and information
37 intensive. The challenges here require global efforts to reach agreements on access for the poor

1 to proprietary information and technologies. In addition, a modernizing agricultural sector requires
2 harnessing new skills and capacities to use modern science and technology (World Bank, 2007),
3 a formidable task ahead for CWANA countries.

4
5 To summarize, considerable advances in Internet and electronic commerce and their application
6 to the needs of CWANA countries present great opportunities to provide new cost-effective
7 knowledge systems. They offer much potential to make agricultural growth more propoor, but at
8 the same time they are often controversial. The challenge will be how to use these new advances
9 together with developments in biotechnology and other agricultural technologies to make the
10 complex agricultural systems of CWANA more productive and sustainable.

11 12 **4.2.4 Social factors**

13 *Market and trade:* Competitive global markets in the past years have favored corporate farming to
14 the detriment of small-scale economies, diversity in agricultural products and farming systems.
15 Small-scale farmers, semi-, low-skilled or informal laborers are likely to suffer most from purely
16 market-oriented agricultural production. Women, who constitute the majority in these categories,
17 are likely to suffer more from liberalization policies in agriculture (Baden, 1998).

18
19 Since "markets are not abstract, neutral entities but are real processes of exchange embedded in
20 social institutions, including gender relations" (Baden, 1998) a number of policies can be adopted
21 to balance their negative effects. These include providing credit to initiate new businesses,
22 information on new market possibilities and requirements, and training on compliance with new
23 production standards. Also, constructing infrastructures to facilitate movement between rural
24 areas and the markets, and storing, transporting and preserving agricultural produce could be
25 effective ways to integrate farmers from the most remote areas and enhance female participation
26 in the market. This would increase the control by farmers over the returns for their agricultural
27 work and eventually empower them, particularly the female farmers. This might also positively
28 affect the general economy of many rural households.

29
30 Agricultural market liberalization has generally reduced state intervention. A different approach
31 might assign a new positive role to the state to support fair globalization of the market. Alternative
32 systems of agricultural production that favor locally produced and organic products of quality can
33 support small economies, help preserve local systems of agronomic management and benefit the
34 environment. They can also help diminish the marginalization of the most vulnerable rural
35 sectors.

1 *Climate change:* Addressing climate change has recently become an urgent concern. Pollution
2 and unsustainable development megaprojects in the past have mostly affected dwellers of
3 marginalized areas, which are, for example, often chosen as sites for dams (McCully, 1996).
4 Displacement, worsening health standards and general impoverishment are among the related
5 consequences. Unpredictable changes in the ecosystem can cause droughts and other
6 ecological disasters that will affect the most vulnerable people—mainly poor women, children and
7 the old.

8
9 Some see paid ecosystem services as the solution to pollution. These, however, like other
10 market-based solutions to environmental degradation, could have a negative effect on the poor,
11 who, unable to pay for these services, will have to cope with increasing pollution that negatively
12 affects their health. Development of ecofriendly technology, on the contrary, such as less harmful
13 substitutes for pesticides and fertilizers, and alternative sources of energy, will partially limit
14 environmental pollution and will primarily benefit rural users.

15
16 *Agricultural policies and AKST development:* Focusing AKST development on discovering
17 alternative sources of energy, improving agricultural production and optimizing the use of
18 available natural resources can be the first step toward sustainability. A sustainable approach to
19 development of agricultural technology will not aim at agricultural production per se but will
20 integrate a number of concerns such as environmental, sociocultural and economic ones. It will
21 also include the needs of all stakeholders in establishing priority areas, research performance
22 and technology development by adopting a gender-sensitive participatory approach.

23
24 For many years now, including end users in development intervention is considered a premise for
25 sustainability (Zuger, 2005). This is because AKST developed with a top-down, non-participatory
26 method is unlikely to address the diverse conditions, needs and preferences of end users.
27 Technology developed under a purely market-driven system also is likely to focus on profitable
28 topics, marginalizing the needs and interests of those who lack the financial means to support
29 research or influence its development. Technology can become a tradable good available to the
30 most affluent countries and people only.

31
32 The exclusion from technology development of the actual doers of agricultural duties leads to
33 ineffective results. In CWANA countries women contribute significantly to agriculture therefore
34 should participate in AKST development. A gender-blind approach to AKST can produce
35 inefficient results, is likely to improve only the agricultural work of men and also can disempower
36 the overlooked end users. Because men's work is considered productive, as opposed to women's
37 domestic work, which is regarded as unproductive, it is generally considered more worthy of

1 investment. As a result, research and social spending are directed to irrigation infrastructures
2 more than to safe drinking water, with women and children usually being the ones to fetch water
3 (WEDO, 2003). Cash crops, mainly cultivated by men, often receive more attention than
4 subsistence crops, generally grown by women (Chambers, 1983). Agricultural machinery is
5 mainly designed for male users and their needs. Because engagement with mechanized
6 agriculture often corresponds to more powerful positions in intrahousehold or community
7 dynamics (Boserup, 1970) a gender-blind AKST can cause women to be disempowered.

8

9 In a truly participatory approach to agricultural technology, both men and women farmers will
10 develop AKST and produce machinery with technical characteristics that make it easier for
11 smaller and weaker persons to use. This could help limit the gender division of labor. For long in
12 the CWANA region men have been assigned the use of machines, leaving the manual and time-
13 consuming jobs to women and children (Rassam and Tully, 1988). A gender-sensitive AKST
14 development will also expand the range of crops on which to focus, by including subsistence
15 crops and local varieties as well as cash crops. It will take into consideration all phases of
16 agronomic management plus postharvest duties and related domestic activities that are often
17 neglected. By integrating local and gender-differentiated understanding of seeds and the cultural
18 values connected to food preservation, preparation and storage, AKST could enhance the
19 success of technological adoption and eventually be more effective in enhancing rural livelihoods.
20 This is particularly important in the case of ethnic minorities, who connect dietary habits and the
21 preservation of landraces to their culture.

22

23 A gender-sensitive approach to agriculture development is particularly important in areas
24 characterized by feminization of agriculture. In countries like Syria male farmers often migrate to
25 urban areas in search of work and women are in charge of the agricultural work (Abdelali-Martini
26 et al., 2003). Nonetheless, women are not considered farmers, and policy makers and
27 development planners overlook their needs and preferences, negatively affecting agricultural
28 production, women's daily labor and rural livelihoods. Furthermore, laws and policies rarely adapt
29 to these changing circumstances. Entitlement and access to land, water and seeds rest with
30 absent husbands or fathers, upon whom women must depend to get access to the basic means
31 for their daily work. Control over key economic resources can determine intrahousehold
32 distribution of benefits from increased agricultural productivity (Tipilda et al., 2005, p. 2). Also,
33 labor laws rarely protect the rights of women farmers or those of the informal workers, whose
34 number is constantly growing in the agricultural sector of CWANA. Policies should be formulated
35 that reflect the changes in social composition of rural areas and deal with emerging issues.
36 Moreover, policies aimed to build the capacities of the rural population can help diversify the

1 sources of household income, thereby decreasing their vulnerability. This is particularly important
2 in light of the agricultural sector being increasingly marginalized.

3
4 *Technology:* Literacy rates in the CWANA region have recently risen. However, the gender gap in
5 education is still wide. According to the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
6 (ESCWA), in 2002 almost half of the female population in the Arab countries was illiterate
7 (ESCWA 2005). Policies should be pursued that support women's school attendance and
8 completion, and training in fields that are usually male dominated. This is particularly important in
9 rural and agricultural areas where access to education is limited by poor infrastructure. Cultural
10 norms disfavor female education; poverty causes high school dropouts because children are
11 needed to help provide income for the household. Many girls abandon school after puberty
12 because both the trip to school and the lack of proper toilet facilities in the buildings jeopardize
13 their modesty and honor. Safe means of transport to reach the school and proper facilities could
14 improve their attendance. Finally, the quality of education could be improved by removing
15 stereotypical gender images in school texts. By training students in the latest agricultural
16 technologies or other skills the labor market requires, education could become a path in the rural
17 areas towards better employment.

18
19 Technologies can be developed and applied to meet the needs of women in particular. For
20 example, biofortification and foods enriched to supply the nutrients that women in CWANA tend to
21 be deficient in, such as calcium, iron and zinc, should be considered (Gender Advisory Board,
22 2004). Currently in several CWANA countries, technologies suitable for women farmers are
23 lacking, particularly labor- and energy-saving farm and household technologies. This lack of
24 suitable technology impairs women's productivity (Kasnakoglu, 1997). Agricultural technology
25 developed with close attention to alleviating some of the labor constraints experienced by rural
26 women potentially can improve not only the well-being of the woman farmer but also of others in
27 her household who are dependent on her care (World Bank, undated). Alleviating the labor
28 burdens of rural women is an important dimension in empowering them. Technology targeted at
29 men and implemented with men's goals and situations in mind may put women at a disadvantage
30 by leading to an increase in the amount of labor they must expend to attain the same level of
31 production (Gender Advisory Board, 2004).

32
33 There are no easy answers to the question of what kind of technology will promote the autonomy
34 of women in rural societies of CWANA. These women may indirectly—but drastically—be
35 affected by technological innovations. Technologies, as seen in many instances during the Green
36 Revolution, may displace women and actually decrease their income (Gender Advisory Board,
37 2004). Such biotechnologies carry the risk of increasing the burden on women as providers for

1 their families: increasing competition and lowering world market prices as a consequence of
2 applying modern technologies could lead to the migration of men from rural areas. Such migration
3 will cause an increase in the heavy burden that women must carry alone, and consequently lead
4 to their impoverishment (Pingali and Rajaram, 1998). If the present global power structure and
5 the current bias towards males in agricultural research, extension and development policies
6 persist, modern agricultural technologies will most likely further widen the gap between men and
7 women, and between rich and poor. Public research also generally bypasses women and their
8 needs or approaches women for efficiency reasons to diffuse technical innovations more rapidly.
9 In this way, women are expected to accept modern biotechnology (Zweifel, 1995). If women's
10 situations, concerns, technological skills, use of technologies and knowledge continue to be
11 overlooked, women will be displaced and marginalized by technology development, with many of
12 their activities becoming sidelined or taken over by men. This will have resulting implications for
13 the health and well-being of women and children, environmental sustainability, and income levels
14 in developing countries (Gender Advisory Board, 2004).

15

16 The need is urgent in both research and priority setting to ensure that women will be in a position
17 to benefit from modern agricultural technologies, rather than being disadvantaged as has often
18 occurred in the past (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). Women's participation both before and
19 during the introduction of new technology is of central importance. Their participation should go
20 beyond consultation, aiming to implement outside innovation more easily, and to include shared
21 responsibility, trust and cooperation. The exchange among women of technology and knowledge
22 they have developed would be a more sensitive step in improving women's autonomy than
23 expensive and advanced technology. If women are involved in the whole innovation process, they
24 can set their own priorities collectively for appropriate capital-intensive technology (Pingali and
25 Rajaram, 1998). This implies the need to change national and international research and
26 agricultural policy in favor of women's possibilities and capacities (Zweifel, 1995). There is also
27 need to increase the participation of women in the biotechnological sciences and other modern
28 sciences, especially at senior levels, as well as their representation in regulating and making
29 policy for biotechnology (Gender Advisory Board, 2004).

30

31 To conclude, technologies developed and implemented to meet the needs of women and women
32 farmers have the potential to contribute to the IAASTD development goals, mainly through
33 alleviating their labor burdens. Measures should be taken to ensure that modern agricultural
34 technology will not undermine women's autonomy but will rather help women gain more
35 autonomy. Acknowledgement of this autonomy leads to the logical conclusion that women must
36 play a key role as decision makers in designing the direction of research and in agricultural
37 policy-making processes and governance in the CWANA region.

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4.3 Options for Strengthening AKST Future Effectiveness

The previous chapter identified the most prominent challenges that agriculture might face in the CWANA region over the next 50 years should agricultural practices continue to operate according to a business-as-usual scenario. In this section, agriculture-related technology is presented as a key tool to address these challenges and the role of various technology management practices (and support systems) in reaching development goals is examined.

4.3.1 Options to improve AKST generation

Options exist for improving the generation of AKST:

- research policy and funding
- intellectual property rights
- farmers' innovation capacity

At present most CWANA countries do not adequately invest in agricultural research to generate AKST. The research capacity required to generate appropriate environmentally friendly technologies to increase agricultural production has not yet been fully built. And agricultural research has been largely concentrated in public agricultural research institutions (Roozitalab, 2000).

Developing effective and efficient research systems to generate agricultural technology in the region will require CWANA countries to set research priorities that are well attuned to the needs of farmers and preferences of consumers, and to mobilize all partners to generate technology.

4.3.1.1 The future outlook for generating agricultural technology

In developing countries, where growth in food production had relied heavily on plowing up new land and on irrigation development, technology was increasingly responsible for production growth after 1965 (Oram, 1995). However, since shrinking land and water reserves are placing a greater burden on technology, increase in food production during the next 25 years will have to be achieved using less water, labor and cultivated land. This can be done only if scientists can develop new crop varieties with high water-use efficiency and high yield potential (ADB, 2001).

Concerted and systematic efforts should be made to develop priorities for technology generation and R&D that are consistent with socioeconomic, cultural, agricultural, environmental and political realities and goals (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). Agricultural technology generation needs to be directed to the needs of the poor. It needs to focus on the problems of marginal dry areas and to emphasize simple, low-cost technology appropriate for smallholders and resource-poor

1 farmers. For example, biotechnology can address the issue of poor-quality seed and introduce
2 improved materials into the local seed sector (USAID, 2005). Inappropriate technology could
3 radically change local employment patterns; although it could increase production, it could cause
4 greater unemployment and hence poverty.

5
6 Technology generation in the following areas should receive high priority (Oram, 1995):

- 7 • technologies to improve natural resource management
- 8 • technologies to protect crops from biotic stresses without heavy reliance on pesticides
- 9 • genetic improvement of key crops

10 11 4.3.1.2 Need for increased public-private sector collaboration

12 Public investment in agricultural technology is crucial for achieving future food security and
13 reducing poverty. Accelerated public investments are needed to develop technology applications
14 that address difficult problems in rainfed and marginal areas (ADB, 2001). However, most
15 governments in CWANA have limited resources to finance technology research, and few CWANA
16 countries or even international public-sector institutions have the resources to create an
17 independent source of modern technology, such as biotechnology innovations. Additional private
18 investment is required. Currently, it is the private sector that has the knowledge, skills and capital
19 to solve the problems of small-scale farmers, even though comprehensive data on private sector
20 biotechnology research in developing countries are not available (FAO, 2004). Meanwhile, the
21 private sector is unlikely to undertake much of the R&D needed by small-scale farmers because it
22 sees little potential for return on investment. Hence financial incentives or policy initiatives are
23 essential for increased collaboration in technology generation and R&D between public and
24 private sectors.

25
26 The leading role of the public sector in technology generation cannot be overemphasized.
27 Agricultural research is often long term, large scale, and risky, and while returns to generated
28 technologies are often high, the firm responsible for developing the technology may not be able to
29 appropriate the benefits accruing to the innovation. The benefits of agricultural research often
30 accrue to consumers (through reduction in commodity prices due to increased supply), rather
31 than to the adopters of the new technology, so social returns may be greater than private returns
32 to research. Therefore, a sustained public sector role in funding agricultural research will be
33 essential, particularly for production areas in less favorable environments that the private sector is
34 unlikely to serve (World Bank, undated).

35
36 The challenge for CWANA countries is not to develop new agricultural technologies (such as
37 plant breeding techniques or disease diagnostics) but to design and implement the capacity-

1 building programs and regulatory systems needed to facilitate the sustainable transfer and
2 adaptation of these technologies to the relevant farming systems (Dhlamini, 2006).

3

4 4.3.1.3 Technology transfer

5 One of the lessons of the Green Revolution was that agricultural technology could be transferred
6 internationally, especially to countries that had sufficient national agricultural research capacity to
7 adapt the imported high-yielding cultivars to suit local production environments (FAO,2002).

8 Advances in agricultural technology hold great promise, but the full benefits of scientific
9 breakthroughs will not be realized unless the new technologies are properly disseminated and
10 CWANA farmers adopt them successfully. Concerted and systematic efforts to transfer new
11 technologies should incorporate participatory approaches as well as a clear assessment of users
12 and beneficiaries.

13

14 4.3.1.4 Public engagement

15 Evidence has shown that public engagement is identified as an important precondition for the
16 appropriate and successful transfer of new, modern technology (Gender Advisory Board, 2004),
17 as farmers in resource-poor areas are innovators and adapters (Chambers et al., 1989). Indeed,
18 technology transfer strategies that have proved successful in CWANA countries have used a
19 community approach and direct farmer participation. Thus technologies can be transferred
20 through extensive programs of on-farm demonstrations, where local extension services play a
21 vital role (Haddad, 2004).

22

23 4.3.1.5 Knowledge transfer

24 Because new technologies are more demanding for both the farmer and the extension agent,
25 they require more information and skills for successful adoption than did the initial adoption of
26 modern varieties and fertilizers. A bottom-up information flow combined with adaptive, location-
27 specific research is particularly important in transferring complex crop-management technologies
28 (World Bank, undated). While transferring new technologies, it is important to recognize and take
29 into account the social status of recipients as well as employment patterns and cultural norms in
30 the community. In the context of transferring “controversial” technologies, such as biotechnology,
31 it should also be recognized that farmers and communities may have knowledge that will affect
32 decisions on how the technology is used in the local context (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). At
33 present, there is widespread distrust of biotechnology and the public needs to be engaged in
34 dialogue before it is disseminated widely (ADB, 2001). The public should be made aware of the
35 potential risks, harm and benefits of new technologies being transferred and given opportunity to
36 discuss them. It is also important to inform communities about the service level they would
37 require for the technology they may want to use. Communities should especially have a clear

1 understanding of long-term costs and maintenance implications, so that they can choose what is
2 most appropriate for them under their budget constraints (World Bank, undated). All these
3 aspects should be clearly explained to the public at all levels in terms that are understandable
4 and relevant to local farmers (USAID, 2005).

5 6 4.3.1.6 Technology adoption

7 Experience has shown that a number of key conditions help maximize the benefits of a growing
8 agriculture sector for poor people by facilitating the adoption process of modern agricultural
9 technology.

10 11 4.3.1.7 Good governance

12 Good governance is crucial to ensure that new agricultural technology reaches the poor (ADB,
13 2001). In each CWANA country, successful local adoption of innovations from others will depend
14 on incentives and barriers producers face. In addition to investment in technology generation and
15 transfer, significant policy and governance reform is required to ensure that the poor in CWANA
16 benefit most from greater investment and higher agricultural productivity. The increasing
17 importance of new, knowledge-intensive technology requires a market-friendly environment for
18 adopting and adapting new technologies and removing restrictions on technology imports, which
19 must be encouraged through continued progress in economic liberalization. Alongside favorable
20 macroeconomic and trade policies, good infrastructure and access to credit, land and markets
21 must be in place. Equitable conditions give farmers incentive to adopt new and sustainable
22 technologies and diversify production into higher-value crops—actions that raise incomes and lift
23 households out of poverty (World Bank, undated). Decentralization of existing extension service
24 structures that encourage a bottom-up flow from farmers to extension and research will also help
25 farmers cope with the additional complexity of efficiency-enhancing technology, as local
26 governments are usually more knowledgeable about rural agricultural needs and adept in dealing
27 with them.

28 29 4.3.1.8 Dissemination in a package

30 Exploiting the growth potential of staple crops from dissemination of modern technology requires
31 not only investment but also changes in farm management and a transition from current farming
32 traditions to more modern systems. Since the returns to technology adoption are low if modern
33 inputs are used in isolation and not supplemented by other technologies, modern technology
34 needs to be disseminated in a well-defined package of technologies and services to be
35 successful in the field (World Bank, undated). Farmer surveys of successful technology adoption
36 experiences from Jordan indicate that farmers prefer accepting new technologies as packages,
37 rather than accepting only one component at a time (Haddad, 2004). However, in practice,

1 components of a promising package could be taken up in a piecemeal, stepwise manner, where
2 the sequence of adoption would be determined by factor scarcities and the potential cost savings
3 achieved, as was often the case in disseminating and adopting Green Revolution technologies
4 (FAO, 2002).

5

6 4.3.1.9 Training farmers

7 Informal training in understanding modern technology is necessary for farmers, local communities
8 and the public to participate effectively in development programs. Extension services in CWANA
9 are often weak in this respect, and knowledge in the labs often does not reach farmers or the
10 beneficiaries of technologies (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). In addition, if rural people are to
11 obtain relevant technical, entrepreneurial and management skills, they need adequate training. In
12 an increasingly technical and communications-oriented world, specialized training schemes (in
13 computing and accounting, for example) are needed, including programs for women, who
14 dominate many service and trading activities (World Bank, undated).

15

16 4.3.1.10 Constraints to adoption

17 Modern technologies that increase agricultural productivity do exist, but many factors prevent
18 farmers from adopting them. As researchers want to maximize production, this can lead to
19 technologies that require a high degree of management and a high level of precision. But farmers
20 tend to want robust technologies and are prepared for lower potential returns if their risk and
21 vulnerability are reduced (CGIAR, 2002). Evidence so far suggests that technologies that are
22 embodied in a seed, such as transgenic insect resistance, may be easier for small-scale,
23 resource-poor farmers to use than more complicated crop technologies that require other inputs
24 or complex management strategies. On the other hand, some biotechnology packages,
25 particularly for livestock and fisheries, require a certain institutional and managerial environment
26 to function properly and thus may not be effective for resource-poor smallholders (FAO, 2002).
27 Farmers should assess the different management options available and adapt them to fit their
28 own circumstances and production goals.

29

30 Given the technical and financial constraints that they face, many resource-poor farmers in
31 CWANA countries are unable to adopt the very technology that is intended to reduce their
32 poverty. An example is an agricultural technology designed to produce nontraditional crops that
33 will expand nontraditional exports, which can result in agricultural growth and overall economic
34 growth. However, the nontraditional export sector's contribution to poverty reduction may be
35 relatively small because nontraditional export growth is often concentrated around cities where
36 there is greater access to transportation and other market facilities (World Bank, undated)

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4.3.2 Options to improve AKST access and use

Access to natural, physical and financial resources. The world has the technology to feed a population of 10 billion people. However, access to such technology is not assured (FAO, 2002). New technologies—particularly biotechnology and information technologies—require new approaches to facilitate access to CWANA countries, especially for the poor (World Bank, 2007). The range of potential barriers includes issues related to civil society and governments accepting the technology; it includes financial, informational, educational and technical barriers that keep poor farmers marginalized and unable to adopt new, unaffordable technology; it includes intellectual property rights.

Farmers in developing countries experience a need for support services and resources such as access to credit, infrastructure, and services such as transportation and market facilities (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). The high cost of modern technologies is one of the most serious setbacks to their use, slowing adoption. High cost of a technology can be further exacerbated by poor investment of both public and private sectors (USAID, 2005).

The policy bias against agriculture in developing countries and the trade barriers put up by industrial countries is well known (USAID, 2005), and a situation that calls for reform in both camps. Particularly important are government policies to enhance access for smallholder producers and other agricultural and NRM entrepreneurs to regional and world markets (domestic and international trade policies), as well as to build the capacity of developing country governments in these areas. Improving national macroeconomic policies is critical (World Bank, 2003, in USAID, 2005) to support agricultural trade and market access as well as markets for agricultural inputs and services, and to facilitate entrepreneurship.

Information on agricultural technologies, markets and investors affects decisions on adopting the technology. Therefore, to boost production, it is crucial to improve access to this information using communication technologies (Gender Advisory Board, 2004). Policies that improve access to global knowledge and technology should be identified and introduced to reduce the gap between knowledge systems and technologies available to agronomists, plant breeders and farmers in developed and developing countries.

4.3.3 Options to activate enabling factors of AKST generation and application

In its report, the UN Task Force on Science, Technology, and Innovation concludes that to achieve the MDGs, developing countries must strategically embrace the role of science and technology in their development efforts. Then they must begin “improving the policy environment,

1 redesigning infrastructure investment, fostering enterprise development, reforming higher
2 education, supporting inventive activity, and managing technological innovation.” These
3 components are part of the enabling environment that will encourage the generation, transfer and
4 adaptation of agricultural technologies, leading to greater productivity and sustainable
5 development (USAID, 2005).

6
7 CWANA countries will have many crucial decisions to make in meeting their sustainable
8 agricultural goals. These decisions need to be made and implemented based on decision makers’
9 knowledge of the unique environmental, social and economic characteristics of their country.
10 Those CWANA countries with strong research, health and education capacity will offer a
11 supportive environment for technology development and investment (USDA, 2003). The role of
12 the civil society (consumer groups and small-scale farmers’ societies) in technology assessment
13 cannot be overemphasized.

14
15 The European Commission notes a growing recognition that technology development needs to be
16 “meshed with social, economic and policy dimension to have impact on beneficiaries” (EIRAD,
17 2004, in USAID, 2005). Modern biotechnology, for example, will not solve all the problems of food
18 insecurity and poverty in CWANA. But it could provide a key component to a solution if given the
19 chance, and if steered by a set of appropriate policies that would guide an increased public
20 investment in R&D, foster regulatory arrangements that inform and protect the public from any
21 risks arising from the release of GMOs, implement intellectual property management to
22 encourage greater private sector investment, and introduce appropriate regulation to protect the
23 interests of small farmers and poor consumers (IFPRI, 1999).

24
25 Policy research is needed to better understand the political and institutional factors that promote
26 or inhibit the use of new ideas in CWANA at all levels (local, national and regional), and
27 specifically those factors that encourage institutions and mechanisms for effectively articulating
28 science and technology policies. Other areas for policy research:

- 29 • identification of policies that improve access to global knowledge and technology
- 30 • the interface between technological change, institutional change and policy environments
- 31 • formulation of and education about appropriate policies for biotechnology and biosafety
- 32 • investigation of policies on intellectual property

33
34 New technologies, particularly biotechnology, will require new approaches to regulate their use.
35 Some of these technologies remain controversial because of potential health and environmental
36 risks (World Bank, 2007). It will be necessary to have biosafety procedures in place to ensure that
37 the benefits of these modern technologies are realized (FAO, 2003). It will be also necessary to

1 provide appropriate regulatory mechanisms to ensure that modern biotechnology products such
2 as GMOs that might interact with the environment are as safe as the products of traditional
3 biotechnology (ADB, 2001), and that the benefits of GMOs outweigh their risks. The sociopolitical
4 ramifications of new agricultural biotechnologies should not be overlooked. These include the
5 potential widening of the prosperity gap between the North and the South; the exploitation of
6 indigenous genetic resources without appropriate compensation to indigenous populations; and
7 an increased inequality in the distribution of income that biotechnology might create since the
8 privileged classes derive earlier and greater benefits from the introduction of powerful
9 technologies than do the socially disadvantaged (Leisinger, 1996). The good news is that sound
10 domestic policies and international cooperation can go a long way toward reducing the
11 sociopolitical risks of new technologies.

12

13 Technology regulation should be science based (FAO, 2002), and the regulatory framework
14 should not be regarded in isolation from the broader policy context of agriculture and the
15 contribution that technology might make in the particular economic, social and environmental
16 context of individual countries (ADB, 2001). In addition, the establishment of an effective
17 regulatory capacity must go hand-in-hand with investment in technology appropriate for farmers
18 (USAID, 2005). For example, to realize the goal of facilitating environmental sustainability,
19 appropriate regulatory institutions should be in place to limit environmental degradation. Since the
20 underlying driving force for environmental degradation through the harmful use of farming
21 technologies is frequently poverty rather than factors inherent in agricultural technology itself,
22 farmers should realize personal economic benefits from using environmentally friendly
23 technologies and also recognize the social benefits from environmental protection. Only when
24 sustainable agricultural technologies are profitable for farmers will they comply with regulatory
25 requirements and employ environmentally sustainable production techniques (World Bank,
26 undated).

27

28 It is the responsibility of national governments to ensure that national regulatory systems are
29 applied, enforced and monitored (ADB, 2001). The regulatory capacity of the public sector in
30 CWANA countries to address food safety and environmental issues will determine the success of
31 modern technologies in individual countries. Without functioning regulatory systems, the private
32 sector is unlikely to invest in modern technologies appropriate for CWANA countries. Effective
33 intellectual property regulations are also important for any long-term investment in modern
34 agricultural technology on the part of the private sector. Regional cooperation in intellectual
35 property and biosafety regulations has great potential for simplifying both technology access and
36 agricultural trade (USAID, 2005).

37

1 Judgment and dialogue are essential elements in any science-based regulatory framework (FAO,
2 2002). At present, there is widespread distrust of biotechnology, and modern biotechnologies
3 such as genetic engineering in food and agriculture cannot succeed unless the public is engaged
4 in dialogue and convinced of its safety and usefulness before these technologies are
5 disseminated widely (ADB, 2001). It is important for CWANA communities to be informed about
6 the technology they want to use, the service level they require, and especially to have a clear
7 understanding of long-term costs and maintenance implications, so that they can choose what is
8 most appropriate for them under their budget constraints (World Bank, undated). Public
9 engagement will be a precondition for the appropriate and successful implementation of modern
10 technologies in CWANA, since communities may have knowledge that will affect decisions on
11 uses of modern technology in the local context (Gender Advisory Board, 2004).

12

13 In each country in CWANA, the successful local development of technologies or the transfer and
14 adaptation of innovations from others will depend on the supportive environment faced by
15 investors and producers alike. Only if countries have appropriate policy, regulatory and
16 institutional frameworks in place to support science and technology can they contribute to the
17 achievement of sustainable development goals by increasing agricultural productivity and
18 stimulating economic growth (USDA, 2003).

19

20 Improved technologies alone cannot do the entire job of sustainable agricultural development. A
21 combination of improved incentives and policies, reinvigorated institutions, and increased
22 investments must occur in CWANA if agriculture is to develop and the benefits are to be spread
23 widely (USAID, 2005). The potential value of modern science to agriculture and the environment
24 in CWANA countries will not be realized without major additional efforts involving all stakeholders,
25 including civil society, producers, consumers and governments (Serageldin and Persley, 2000).