



RURALIZATION

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The opening of rural areas to renew rural generations, jobs and farms

## D6.1 – Typology of actions based on an analysis of current innovative actions and discussion with stakeholders

Version 2.0

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<sup>1</sup> PU= Public, CO=Confidential, only for members of the consortium (including the Commission Services), CL=Classified, as referred to in Commission Decision 2001/844/EC

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## Acronyms and abbreviations

<b>A2LN</b>	Access to Land Network
<b>AE</b>	Agroecology
<b>Amap</b>	Association pour le maintien d'une agriculture paysanne (= CSA in English – Community-supported agriculture)
<b>ASAT</b>	Asociația pentru Susținerea Agriculturii Țărănești (Association for Support of Peasant Agriculture, in Romania)
<b>BBP</b>	BoerenBruxselPaysans
<b>BDG</b>	Biologisch Dynamische Landbouw
<b>CATL</b>	Ceinture Aliment-terre Liégeoise (Food and Land Belt of Liège)
<b>CAP</b>	Common Agricultural Policy
<b>CIAP</b>	Coopérative d'Installation en Agriculture Paysanne (Cooperative for setting-up in peasant agriculture)
<b>CIDSE</b>	Coopération Internationale pour le Développement et la Solidarité (International Cooperation for Development and Solidarity)
<b>CFLT</b>	Community Farmland Trust
<b>CLAS Cymru</b>	The Community Land Advisory Service in Wales
<b>Co.r.ag.gio</b>	Cooperativa Romana Agricultura Giovani (Roman Agricultural Cooperative of Youth)
<b>CSA</b>	Community-Supported Agriculture
<b>CSO</b>	Civil Society Organisation
<b>DLg</b>	De Landgenoten ("land comrades")
<b>DVL</b>	Deutscher Verband für Landschaftspflege (German Association for Landscape Management)
<b>EC</b>	European Commission
<b>EIP-AGRI</b>	The European Innovation Partnership for Agricultural productivity and Sustainability
<b>EFHSIG</b>	Ecological Folk High School in Grzybow
<b>ELC</b>	Ecological Land Cooperative
<b>Env.</b>	Environmental
<b>ER</b>	EcoRuralis
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>Fundatia ADEPT</b>	ADEPT = Agricultural Development and Environmental Protection in Transylvania
<b>Ha</b>	Hectare
<b>IAEDEN</b>	Institució Alt Empordanesa per a la Defensa i Estudi de la Natura (Alt Empordà Institution for the Defense and Study of Nature)
<b>KFT</b>	Knoydart Forest Trust
<b>Kulturland eG</b>	Kulturland eingetragene Genossenschaft (eingetragene Genossenschaft = registered cooperative)
<b>LEADER</b>	Liaison entre actions de développement de l'économie rurale (=Links between actions for the development of the rural economy)

<b>LGBTQ</b>	Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer
<b>LWA</b>	Land Workers' Alliance
<b>NE</b>	New Entrant(s)
<b>NEWBIE</b>	New Entrant netWork: Business models for Innovation, entrepreneurship and resilience in European agriculture (H2020 Project)
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental Organisation
<b>NPP</b>	Nadace Pro Půdu (Foundation for Soil)
<b>NUTS</b>	Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
<b>PGI</b>	Protected Geographical Indications
<b>PDO</b>	Protected Designation of Origin
<b>SA</b>	Shared Assets
<b>SAFER</b>	Société d'aménagement foncier et d'établissement rural (Organism for rural land design and rural settlement)
<b>SALT</b>	Soil Association Land Trust
<b>SCI</b>	Société Civile Immobilière (Real Estate Company)
<b>SOC-SAT</b>	Sindicato de Obreros del Campo - Sindicato Andaluz de Trabajadores (Andalusian Workers and Rural Workers Union)
<b>SUAS</b>	Sustainable Uplands Agri-environment Scheme
<b>TeV</b>	Terre en Vue
<b>WP</b>	Work Package
<b>XCN</b>	Xarxa per a la Conservació de la Natura (Nature Conservation Network, in Catalonia)

## Executive Summary

This report aims to summarise, analyse and understand the huge variety of innovative land practices that are contributing to rural regeneration and to a process of ruralisation across Europe. It is based on an inventory of 64 land practices, from training programmes for individual farmers, to attempts to influence national policy impacting land use and land transfers, that have been gathered by partners in the RURALIZATION project consortium.

The report has six sections.

**Section 1** sets out the aims of the report, and the context within which these innovative land practices are operating - namely the dominance of the agro-industrial model, with its negative impacts on individuals, society, the land and the wider environment. It shows that some farming practices contribute to a process of ruralisation, and some detract from it.

It also outlines the two key challenges that new entrants to farming face: that of gaining access to land, and then, crucially, maintaining that access. It discusses the differences between different European regions, and then the different actors involved in land use. It notes that there are many different “protagonists” who can influence decisions and action on land, and that the interplay between these protagonists often causes a particular outcome.

**Section 2** sets out the methodology of the study, noting in particular that there is an overrepresentation of cases from North Western Europe in the inventory. Cases were added to the inventory where they focused both on a particular land issue (access to land, transformation of the use or maintenance of a certain use of agricultural land), *and* on supporting socially and ecologically sound agricultural practices. Institutional and practitioner stakeholders were engaged with the findings of the first draft of the report, and their feedback is incorporated the next drafts.

Section 2 also goes into depth on the key concepts referred to throughout the report, namely

- **Access to Land** - seeing it as a continuous process, that starts before and continues after physical access is gained.
- **Innovative Land Practices** - defined as practices that enable both access to land and the emergence of new models of management of agricultural land, in ways that seek to influence positive change in farming, the environment and wider society. Many of the most innovative practices also actively engage with the complexity of the land system.
- **Agroecology** is defined as agricultural practices that are environmentally sustainable, economically viable, and oriented towards social justice.
- **New Entrants** is mostly taken to mean new farmers with no farming background, although it is recognised that there can be some grey areas between new entrants and successors, who may also be agents of change on the farms they inherit from family.
- **Rural regeneration** - aims to go beyond reversing rural decline, by reviving or reinventing parts of the rural economy, culture, and environment.

- **Capital frameworks** - the report refers to the seven capitals in the community capital framework (natural, cultural, human, social, political, financial and built capital), and recognises that they all intersect.

These concepts and the broader context then inform the proposal of an analytical framework, the first part of which is shown in a diagrammatic representation of the land system. This diagram sets out the institutional regulations and relationships between the different actors in the land system, and explains why and how some practices and new institutions intervene in this system. One central reason for their intervention is the fact that the impact of land use on several dimensions of the society goes far beyond the landowner and the land user.

The second part of the framework aims to show the different types of action or activity that the innovative land practices use. This is set out as a theoretical “access to land pathway”, with 5 “blocks” describing realms of action:

- 0 - upstream (pre land identification) support to new entrants
- 1 - organising farmland accessibility
- 2 - prioritising sustainable and multifunctional land uses
- 3 - securing access to land for individual farmers
- 4 - downstream (post land access) support to farmers

Some of the practices in the inventory operate across all of these blocks, while some focus their attention on a single one.

These two frameworks allow the report to analyse the innovative land practices both as specific practices in the context of their wider land system, and also as practices operating at some point on the access to land pathway. This latter analysis allows for some more general conclusions when practices at each block on the pathway are examined together.

**Section 3** then goes on to begin analysing the practices according to this access to land pathway framework. For each block of the pathway it includes concrete examples and general analysis and discussion about the opportunities, challenges and impact of each type of activity. It then synthesises all of the practices against the whole pathway, noting that most practices operate on one or two of the blocks only - but that those who focus on collective land acquisition tend to be involved in most or all of the blocks. The assumption could be made that these practices’ involvement in the management of land as “a common”, through collective acquisition tools, brings the actors of the practices to work on all blocks of the pathway in order to: ensure both a long term and a sustainable use of the land acquired; build on their practice to initiate a transformation of land governance; increase their level of activity and the types of acquisition they can make.

**Section 4** identifies the main results of the analysis, namely that:

- The type of land, and the way it is currently used is a key driver. The practices identified do not act equally on all types of land. In particular, land that is currently owned or farmed by someone “close” to the practice is more often involved. That closeness could be in terms of the type of farming or closeness to networks. This also means that new strategies may be needed to influence land that is currently used for agro-industrial farming.

- Land is a social object with human capital as a central lever. Multiple partners are involved in the practices identified, with non-profit organisations and public agencies emerging as key actors. The land innovations both rely on and generate human capital, most of it locally anchored. The practices also leverage a great deal of social capital, working within, building and relying on networks to build a wider community of people working to change the land system.
- Land is a lever for rural regeneration. The practices contribute to rural economies both by supporting the creation of jobs, and by preserving the natural resources that local economies need to flourish.
- Land is a lever for generational renewal. By creating the conditions for new entrants to farming to access and maintain their access to land, the practices support the next generation of farmers. They both do this through practical programmes and direct support, but also by improving the general environment that new entrants will exist in.

**Section 5** considers how best to support and scale up the impact of innovative land practices, in the light of these findings. It proposes four main “building blocks” for change:

- 1. Strengthening human capital to promote the success of these practices.** Many of the key actors in this system would benefit from resources being directed to support training, knowledge transfer and skill development. This includes the NGO and non-profit actors, existing and potential farmers, and local authority officials.
- 2. Adapting land regulation to new entrants and taking into account the fact that land is no longer necessarily part of the capital of the farm in new land management models.** Recognising that the current land market is both secretive and inaccessible, many of these practices aim to take land out of the market, often through collective ownership. However, to scale-up these practices, land markets should be more strongly regulated with concrete aims towards agricultural transition. Collective ownership transforms the status of land, extracting the land from the overall capital of the farm—meaning that new financial models are needed that don’t rely on the land itself acting as security—and inducing a professionalisation of farmland management.
- 3. Boosting the role of local authorities in acting on land in favour of the transition of agricultural models.** The role of local authorities varies across Europe, but they often have wide ranging powers to influence land use—and interests in doing so, particularly in terms of local food production. Local authorities should play a more active role in the use of public land, supporting the creation of food projects and considering their ability to compulsorily purchase land.
- 4. Changing the CAP framework so that it fosters access to land.** The CAP, for aiming at a more ambitious transition of agricultural models, could be reshaped in a way that would limit land concentration of farms (which reinforces the competition on land) and possibilities of having landowners or retired farmers perceiving subsidies (which limits land mobility) and would favour small and multifunctional farms. This would require a new orientation of first-pillar aid schemes towards agroecological practices and active farmers as well as a new orientation of second-pillar aid schemes in order to finance more ambitious agri-environmental measures and to participate in the financing of reinforced

of networks that work in favour of access to land (by relying on the variety of European practices).

**Section 6** is the conclusion. It summarises how much successful innovative land practices rely on human and social capital, and how relevant the local context is to the relative success and impact of the practices. It summarises the recommendations or building blocks for change in section 5.

It also looks ahead to the next phase of this work, which will focus on emergent land innovations, including more in-depth analysis, through a series of “actions” on land issues and projects. It will be an opportunity to interrogate the findings of this phase of the work, and to further explore the recommendations for change, adding more detail about how they may be implemented. Phase 2 will also offer the opportunity to further develop the access to land pathway.

Finally, section 6 looks at research gaps and recommendations for further research. These include:

- 1 - Analysing land markets’ dynamics and social organisation of land transfers with a specific focus on new entrants’ issues.
- 2 - Analysing the conditions of success of innovations at each stage of the access to land pathway.
- 3 - Analysing issues related to inequality of access.

**In summary**, this report shows that access to land for agroecological farming is a complex, multifaceted and interconnected issue. It shows that multiple actors are working in many ways to create solutions, and that these solutions also need to be multifaceted in nature. It offers pathways towards policy solutions for those wanting to support the transition to a more socially and ecologically just farming system.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Aim of this report

This report aims to document and analyse existing practices favouring access to land and land use for agroecology in Europe. It builds on the experience and knowledge of the Access to Land Network (A2LN), a network of European grassroots organisations working to secure land for agroecology. Six members and partners of the A2LN are involved in RURALIZATION: Xarxa per a la Conservació de la Natura (XCN), Terre de Liens (TDL), De Landgenoten (DLg), Kulturland eG, EcoRuralis (ER), and Shared Assets (SA). Together they have extensive experience documenting and exchanging knowledge about innovative land practices in their own countries (see for instance: Bahner *et al.* 2012, Sabaté *et al.* 2013; Szocs Boruss *et al.* 2015; Roumet *et al.* 2018; Graham *et al.* 2019) and at the European level (see for instance: Rodrigo and Rioufol 2017; Rioufol and Diaz de Quijano 2018; Rioufol *et al.* 2020).

In addition to the A2LN expertise, the current report builds on the conceptual and analytical framework established for the RURALIZATION project (work package 3). The project is based around the idea that trends of unequal development between growing urban and declining rural areas threaten Europe's economic, social and territorial cohesion. For a more balanced development, a process of "ruralisation" is needed to act as a counterforce to urbanisation. A process of ruralisation can be fostered by promising, innovative practices that improve rural opportunities and would result in more populated, economically stronger, lively and diverse rural areas. Agriculture has a central place in this process as a lever to provide jobs and opportunities, improve the economic and demographic dynamism of rural areas, and implement a regenerative transition towards more sustainability and social justice.

This report therefore presents a broad variety of land practices tending towards an agricultural, social and ecological transition. In this sense, the report assumes its normative character and the fact that it does not deal with the issue of access to land "in general", but of access for specific agricultural models based on sustainable and community-connected approaches. In this report, "access to land" is used as a broad category, including first-time access for those who could not farm but also paying attention to the long-term aspect of access to land, which Ribot and Lee Peluso call "access maintenance" and define as "expending resources or powers to keep a particular sort of resource access open" (Ribot and Lee Peluso 2003). Access to land thus also concerns the ability for farmers to keep their activity viable in the long term. Preserving land and steering its use for sustainable and small-scale farming participates to this process, understood in a broad sense.

The current report is a first phase in the work that the RURALIZATION project will carry out on land innovations. It is based on an inventory of 64 innovative land practices across Europe. In November 2020, a second phase of work will be developed to tackle new and emerging land topics through 10 locally-embedded pilot actions. This report is also strongly linked to other deliverables of the RURALIZATION work package 6 (WP6) on access to land, which aim to study European land policies as well as land markets. Indeed, the organisation of policies and

markets strongly influences the development of land innovations (which are more or less constrained by their environment, or try more or less to palliate failing markets/laws).

Conversely, land innovations often seek to transform the type of environment they evolve in and may therefore have an impact on laws and markets. There are strong interconnections between these different aspects, which will be further integrated in future work on WP6. Finally, our report will be connected to the study of new entrants in agriculture and farm successors carried out in other parts of the project and to the final policy recommendation phase which includes, among other things, the production of a handbook for local authorities on supporting access to land for farmers.

## 1.2 Context: access to land for generational renewal and rural regeneration

### 1.2.1 Access to land in order to work towards a reversion of rural decline

The innovative practices documented in this report developed in a European context marked by important rural decline, a crisis of the agro-industrial model, and a highly challenging land environment where both **gaining** and **maintaining** access to land—two key dimensions to fulfil a true land “access” (see section 1.2.2)—is rendered difficult for farmers with sustainable approaches. Both of these dimensions (gaining and maintaining) are actually interconnected as enabling diversified, agroecological farmers to keep their farms over the long term (*maintaining access*), the practices counter the effects of land concentration in certain areas and keep small and medium scale farms viable. This, in turn, creates a more favourable market and land structure—with less domination of large, capital-heavy farms—where human-size farms can be taken over by heirs or new entrants (*gaining access*).

In the RURALIZATION project, rural decline is defined as having diverse interconnected dimensions (demographic, economic, social, environmental). Looking at these dimensions **generational renewal emerges as a central issue**, which has knock-on effects on the age, skill level and gender composition of the rural workforce, and the overall human capital rural areas may leverage to foster regeneration.

Inadequate access to farmland is associated with the following factors of demographic decline:

- an ageing farming population (lack of innovation, decline of farming activities, reduced attractiveness of rural areas);
- land concentration (loss of farm jobs, homogenisation and industrialisation of production, homogenisation of landscape, environmental damages);
- land abandonment (depopulation, closing landscapes, less diverse economic activities).

Land concentration is a feature of prominent farming models, which also contribute to rural decline through:

- the erosion of biodiversity and degradation of natural resources in general;
- the linear tendency to substitute labour by capital and to induce a downward trend in the number of farmers (and therefore in the number of agricultural workers in the countryside);
- the negative impact of production on the health of farmers and consumers.

In contrast, the sustainable farming models featured in this report provide an alternative to the mainstream agricultural approach, through more viable management of the land and natural resources, and the creation of more jobs (and higher quality jobs) per hectare, as well as broader impacts related to access to food, preservation of landscapes, reversion of rural-urban migration, social cohesion, etc.

Innovative land practices work for a transition of agricultural models in three main ways: 1) by favouring access to land for new farmers carrying out sustainable projects (this first approach represents the majority of practices in our sample), 2) by ensuring that sustainable farms can remain viable and be transferred, and 3) by steering current agricultural practices towards a better management of the land (see figure 1).

Most of the practices that have been documented in this report are particularly connected to the first process mentioned, aimed at fostering access to land for new entrants wishing to take part in the ruralisation process. The other two processes are also implemented by a minority of practices in the report. They are connected to the question of access to land, even if in a more distant way, in the sense that:

- process 2) helps to maintain small or medium scale farms viable so that they are more attractive to new entrants when transferred;
- process 3) changes farmers' practices so that they may, in some cases, be more open to the idea of handing over their land to new entrants wishing to develop agro-ecological practices (and also make their farms potentially more attractive for takeover by new entrants or successors).

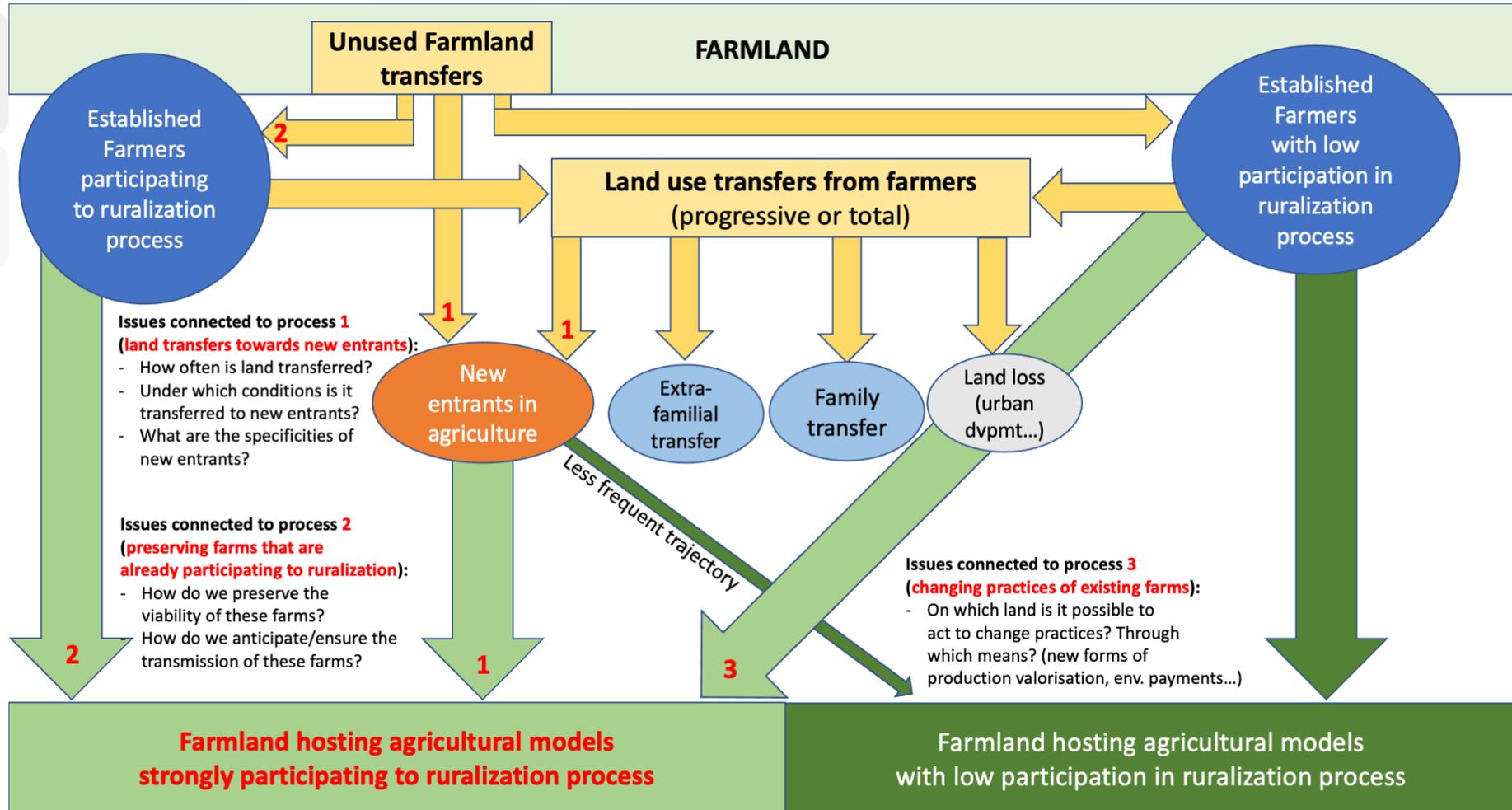


Figure 1 - Different trajectories towards ruralization process

### 1.2.2 Key land challenges for rural regeneration and generational renewal in the EU

The way in which markets and general policies currently function can create a situation of “entry denial” (van der Ploeg *et al.* 2015). Access to land is recognised as the main barrier for new farmers, in particular new entrants, to start a career in agriculture (EIP-AGRI 2016; Rioufol and Diaz de Quijano 2018). Difficulties concern both 1) **gaining access to land** and 2) **maintaining access to land** in the long term.

**Concerning 1) gaining access to land:** the difficulties relate to **availability, affordability, and quality** of land for new entrants.

On the first aspect, **availability**, new entrants face several, often intertwined, difficulties. Land concentration is a general tendency in Europe (Franco and Borrás 2013, Kay 2016). In France for example, the number of farms was divided by two between 1988 and 2010 (Barral *et al.* 2017) and in the EU, 3% of farms over 100 hectares own over half of the farmland, while 75% of smaller farms (under 10 ha) control only 11% of the farmland (Kay and Feodoroff 2016). This concentration leads to market tensions, which results in withholding of information, social closure of the land market (by institutionally and socially limiting the contenders who can enter this market) or the circumvention of land transfer regulations, with the emergence of grey/black land markets.

In some contexts, new entrants might also face strong land fragmentation, making it difficult to take advantage of land transfers when a single plot cannot be used to create a farm from scratch. This situation is an advantage for existing farms, which can enlarge by acquiring fragmented plots. In other cases, farmland can be abandoned, either because landowners are speculating on a potential change in use of the land (and do not wish to rent it) or because former farmers do not manage to use it profitably through their farming practices. Finally, farmland can change use and go to urban or other development purposes (land take), making it unavailable for farming and potentially increasing the tension on farmland as the land resource. Even if the trend decreased over the past decades, EU 15 has lost 22% of its utilised agricultural area between 1961 and 2008 (Rioufol and Volz 2012).

Concerning **affordability**, in most of Western Europe, agricultural land sales prices have reached very high levels. For example, in Northern Italy, Netherlands or Flanders, prices of €60,000 per hectare are now common. New entrants have to compete in this difficult market with the highest bidders—usually established farmers or external investors. In most cases, the non-agricultural population, unlike established farmers (who already have a farmhouse, land and equipment), cannot use their own land as a mortgage to get access to credit to acquire new land. Moreover, new farmers must finance their equipment, potential infrastructure needed on the farm (greenhouse, irrigation, buildings) and other farm inputs (livestock, etc.) in addition to the land. The issue of affordability is also made worse by the growing disconnection between the price of agricultural land and the prospects for concrete economic gains that can be expected from this land given the low prices of agricultural products.

Finally, finding **quality** land is an increasing concern due to degraded soil quality, erosion or contamination (much of which can come from unsustainable agricultural practices). In the case of contamination: the issue is very difficult to solve. Decontamination through

phytoremediation for example is often costly, long, and may not always be possible depending on the contamination, and in the end, the credibility of an organic production can still be undermined. When new farmers are confronted with soils depleted in organic matter or with poor biodiversity, they cannot rely on the surrounding ecosystem for their practices and may have lower yields. It takes a long time to invigorate soils and reconstitute ecosystems and organic production can be hindered until these balances are restored. Beyond contamination, land that is available on the market at prices that new entrants can afford may also be of lower quality in the sense that it is less accessible (no roads to get to it), not suited for farm buildings (which are essential for a farmer to start their activity), or more remote (involving more costs associated to bring production to commercial outlets or storage facilities).

Other aspects affect both availability and affordability of land: for example, due to structurally low agricultural pensions in many parts of Europe, selling land at a high price may often be necessary for retiring farmers. Farmers who have reached retirement age may also avoid the transfer of land in order to keep the benefit of subsidies and capitalise on CAP funds, a phenomenon which hinders the transfer of land, and new entrants' access.

Moreover, land and its transfer may be governed by deeply rooted social logics where neighbours or members of local cooperatives may have long negotiated to obtain the land of retiring farmers. New entrants do not easily integrate in these circles nor access this information, and may also have difficulties being recognised as legitimate users of the land or professionals skilled enough to make good use of it (Rioufol and Diaz de Quijano 2018).

On the other hand, new entrants often look both for land and housing, while former farmers may want to stay in their home, so that selling only their land (to their neighbour(s) for example) appears to be the simplest option. There is also a general discrepancy between farms available on the market (mostly large, capital-intensive, expensive) and the projects, vision, means and/or experience of new entrants looking for land opportunities.

Beyond issues facing all new entrants, some specific categories of new farmers encounter even greater barriers in accessing land. This is the case for women, LGBTQ people, and people whose racial or ethnic background, immigration status, class, expose them to greater exclusion from the land markets. This is largely due to the social norms governing land transfers, which extend to accessing finance, training, and other necessary services to start farming (father-son inheritance, discrimination against non-cisgender, non-white people, perceptions that farming is "a man's job", etc.). The only European figures available on trends of farm management by these communities concern women, with an average of 30% women farm manager in Europe (EC 2019).<sup>2</sup> Although the EU notes an upward trend in those numbers compared to the previous census (2010), they provide an incomplete picture. Indeed, while the proportion of women new entrants is unknown, only 4,9% of women farmers are under 35 years old, so that the gender gap may widen as older farmers retire (EC 2019). These statistics also fail to inform us on whether women farm managers own the land they farm or just rent it under more or less favourable conditions.

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<sup>2</sup> EU countries with the most women farm managers are by far Latvia and Lithuania, where women manage around 45 % of all farms. However, on the other end of the spectrum, the proportion is the lowest in Denmark (8%), Malta (6%), and the Netherlands (5%)

Furthermore, beyond those registered as farm manager, many women actually work on farms (often their partners' or family farm) without owning the land, sometimes with statuses that don't afford them the same social rights (for retirement, social security etc.). To conclude more thorough statistics and studies, intersecting gender with other aspects of people's identity and rendering visible non-binary (non-male or female) identities, are needed to address the question of justice in access to land.

Concerning **2) Maintaining access to land**, even though it is not as multifaceted an issue as accessibility, it still represents a major concern at European level. Indeed, in many cases, especially in countries where the land tenure framework does not structurally favour tenant security, new entrants may risk to access only short term or informal land leases. This can put them in a precarious situation and/or prevent them from making medium or long-term investments on the farm. Organic farmers in particular invest in the long run to improve the quality of the soils and biodiversity of their farm. Therefore, losing even one part of the land can have important consequences on their activity. Similarly, as their activities are often based on territorial community connections, these farmers are particularly impacted if they have to move to a different location (Rioufol and Volz 2012).

Maintaining access is also difficult for small and sustainable farms when increasing domination of large ones creates a highly competitive marketing environment. In some countries, traditional, short-supply marketing outlets are rendered more fragile (notably with the superimposition of restrictive food safety norms), endangering the viability of the farms that used them. Other infrastructures and services may be missing to maintain farms which do not rely on expansion to stay viable, e.g. trainings to learn how to improve yield of organic farming, financing and insurance schemes adapted to small farms, low-tech and self-construction-friendly farm machines and buildings, and so on.

### 1.2.3 Different European contexts influencing the implementation of innovative land practices

Among EU member states, each country has a distinct agrarian history. If we consider North-Western Europe, which formed the first European market community, its agricultural modernisation was largely based on the family model associated with the development of agricultural cooperatives. Southern Europe has known, in some regions (Andalusia for example), more unequal models opposing *latifundia* and *minifundia* which is still a structuring factor in these regions' agrarian landscape. Eastern Europe, on the other hand, has experienced a great number of transformations in land tenure between the 19th century and the current period. The old regime large aristocratic estates were first split in the context of agrarian reforms. Then socialist regimes recreated large units with state farms and production cooperatives, which in many cases were re-divided after the fall of the communist bloc. Today, in some places, agricultural corporations are taking over more and more land in the context of its reprivatisation (Chouquer 2019). Moreover, Eastern Europe has undergone further upheavals with its integration into the European Union between 2004 and 2013, with EU funding strongly participating to re-structure the agricultural sector.

All the practices documented in this report are therefore led in very distinct regional or national contexts with important differences in:

- land regulations (level of intervention on land transfers, level of security of farmers, level of preservation of farmland)
- agricultural policies and different kinds of farm structures/models
- land planning policies
- policies on social economy and economy in general
- environmental policies
- forms/histories concerning the organisation of civil society and its involvement in agricultural issues

These contextual elements strongly influence the ways in which innovative land practices will develop, and sometimes the possibility of their effective implementation. Table 1 below summarises some common features of three large regions: North-western Europe, Southern Europe and Eastern Europe (even though exceptions to these general pictures may be found).

North-western Europe <sup>3</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Larger farms</li> <li>- Highly capital-intensive agriculture</li> <li>- Many very large farms are family-owned</li> <li>- Tenancy very predominant in some countries</li> <li>- High land prices</li> <li>- Very small farming population</li> <li>- Relatively well developed rural and environmental networks</li> <li>- Rise of community-connected farming and organic food consumption</li> <li>- Quality schemes based on practices rather than territories</li> </ul>
Southern Europe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Smaller farms</li> <li>- Mostly family-owned farmland</li> <li>- Higher share of farmland abandonment</li> <li>- Small farming population</li> <li>- Rather developed rural and environmental networks</li> <li>- Most of the protected geographical indications (PGI) in Europe are located in this region</li> </ul>
Eastern Europe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Very polarised farm structure: coexistence of very small and very large farms</li> <li>- Polarised farming models: subsistence farming vs. agriholdings</li> <li>- Significantly lower land prices</li> <li>- Restitution processes have led to fragmentation and/ or unknown land ownership</li> <li>- Sometimes “reverse tenancies”</li> <li>- Farming population still significant in some countries</li> <li>- Most farmers lack access to capital</li> <li>- Recent integration in the European Union and implementation of the CAP</li> <li>- Little developed rural and environmental networks</li> <li>- Quality schemes less developed</li> </ul>

Table 1 – Some observed specificities of the land contexts and land regulations in different regions of Europe

<sup>3</sup> Northern states including Finland, Norway, Sweden also have specific problematics, not developed in this table and some countries may be at the crossroads of different regional categories (e.g. southern France has more Southern EU characteristics while northern France has more North-western Europe characteristics, Greece combines Eastern and Southern characteristics, etc.)

### 1.3 The different actors acting on land and their motivations

Across Europe, land is largely privately owned. This can cause tensions due to the perception that ownership implies private and exclusive use, despite the fact it has repercussions that go far beyond the sole landowner (the food produced which is aimed at consumers, the landscapes shaped by the use that is made of the land, the cultural attachment to a territory, etc.). The reality is that a form of absolute ownership of land never completely exists (Comby, 1989), as private landowners are subject to more or less restrictive policy frameworks that regulates some aspects of land use (e.g. rights linked to building infrastructure on the land, or to extract resources above or below such as trees, minerals, or other resources) as well as aspects of the relationships between a tenant and landowner when a property is rented. In the case of agricultural land, in some countries (e.g. France), the tenant farmer may even have more power to decide how land is used than the landowner. The question is therefore not reduced to ownership (who is the legal owner), but rather relies on who is/are the central protagonist(s) of the decisions on land use. The various different actors do not necessarily have legal responsibility for land use, however they may:

- either have *de facto* legal legitimacy to participate in deciding on what can be done with the land (this is the case of local authorities, which can have an influence on the use of certain land areas through different kinds of measures and actions);
- or *build up* this legitimacy in order to become an active actor of land governance (this is the example of certain associations, the legitimacy of which can even lead to concrete/official participations in decision-making bodies which arbitrate on land use and/or on certain land transfers).

The land innovations documented in this report are implemented by such variety of actors, which can be of very distinct natures: future farmers, established farmers (not all with the same types of farms or practices), local authorities, state agencies, advisory services, environmental and rural development organisations, farmers' groups/unions, social economy associations/institutions (e.g.: foundations or cooperatives for land acquisition), networks, consumers, and local inhabitants. These actors, whether or not they have a concrete legal link to land ownership, may have distinct motivations to act in favour of a specific use of agricultural land, some which we analyse in this report.

Of course, decisions at a broader scale than the national level, taken by actors influencing the decisions on CAP and international trade agreements for example, have strong consequences on agricultural models and access to land in favour of agroecology as well. But these kinds of actors were far less documented in the local, regional or national practices this report is focusing on, even if the international level is also a decision-making space which these practices are trying to impact.

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 The scope of the study

This report is based on an inventory of innovative land practices, non-exhaustive but representative of a variety of European practices. All the practices were collected and documented with the support of the RURALIZATION consortium partners, some of whom documented practices outside of their own country. A total of 64 practices in 14 different countries were documented as part of this work (see list in Annex I). Some members of the *Access to Land* network collected a larger number of practices<sup>4</sup>. As a result, some countries are "over-represented" compared to other countries, namely Belgium, France, the United Kingdom, Spain and Germany. More generally, there is a very strong over-representation of North-western Europe compared to Southern, Eastern Europe or Northern countries (Scandinavia, Baltic countries...).

One of the effects of this over-representation is that our descriptions and characterisation of the situation will be more relevant to this area in particular and will not necessarily make it possible to draw conclusions for Europe in general. Additionally, our method induced a strong representation of non-profit actors (corresponding to the membership and partners of the A2L network), such that this study's conclusions may be less relevant to other entities, notably the private sector.

The criteria for the selection of case studies were the following: these practices had to **refer to a particular land issue** (access to land, transformation of the use or maintenance of a certain use of agricultural land) and on the other hand; they had to **steer their action towards a socially and ecologically sound transition of agricultural models** and they must have been **in place for more than 5 years** and/or have already **shown significant results**. Sometimes, a logic of "good land resource management" was prevalent in the practices that were collected. Other times, territorial social dynamics in connection with the agricultural model implemented on the land were at the core of these practices. Some practices are based on these two dimensions in a balanced way. The overall set of practices was also selected for its **variety in terms of rural and land challenges** and in terms of **approaches implemented**.

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<sup>4</sup> Notably TdL, Landg, SA, XCN, Kulturland and EcoRuralis, as they are more directly linked to these practices, having sometimes supported some of them and having a habit of documenting them.

The collection of data on innovative land practices was organised through a standardised questionnaire to document each practice composed of both open and closed questions, with an emphasis on analysing the practices through the RURALIZATION lens (notably regarding analysis of their impacts on rural regeneration and generational renewal). This allowed collecting information on 5 main aspects (see the questionnaire model in Annex IV):

- Description of the practice (including a summary of the practice and its location).
- Context and objectives: types of rural and land challenges addressed and the types of agriculture encouraged through the practice, as well as strategies followed.
- Actors involved: type of leading actors, active partners, land users and landowners.
- Enabling and hampering factors: dynamics or casuistic that facilitated or hindered the implementation.
- Impact of the practice: impact on generational renewal and rural regeneration.

Throughout the questionnaire, different question types were used. Open-ended questions were employed in order to gather in-depth qualitative information on the practice's mechanisms and achievements. Multiple-answer multiple-choice questions were used to categorise practices according to key features, specifically those that may present co-existing elements (e.g. rural challenges addressed, land challenges addressed, agricultural activities encouraged, leading actors, active partners and landowners, scale, type of area, etc). For each of these features, a list of possible answers was elaborated, based on available knowledge on existing practices and land system. Single-answer multiple choice questions were only used to categorise the origin of leading actors and active partners.

## 2.2 Stakeholder engagement

Stakeholder engagement was a key step of the D6.1 deliverable, aiming to put in discussion and enrich the study results. Carried out in 8 different countries and involving a total of 61 organisations (beyond project partners)<sup>5</sup>, it consisted of engagement with three types of stakeholders: 1) institutional actors, with a focus on organisations involved in the national rural networks of each country; 2) practitioners, in particular local partners of the RURALIZATION members or platforms on access to land or sustainable agriculture they may be familiar with; 3) researchers, who were not a main target of these exchanges but are planned to take part in some of the meetings. Beyond receiving feedback on the report, many partners reported that stakeholder meetings provided a good basis to form national groups of reflexion on RURALIZATION topics, which could be further mobilised in the future.

Inputs from stakeholder discussions were collected through a template report filled by RURALIZATION partners and is included in the deliverable in two ways: through a synthesis of all meetings featured in annex of the report (see Annex II) as well as directly in the report sections where inputs could help amend or complete the analysis of land innovations. The particular aspects discussed with stakeholders included the following: discussing the

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<sup>5</sup> RURALIZATION partners involved in organising the meetings were De Landgenoten, Eco Ruralis, Kulturland, NUI Galway, Shared Assets, Terre de Liens, UNICAL, Xarxa per a la conservació de la Natura.

relevance of the analytical framework proposed to guide thinking on innovative land practices; assessing how stakeholders perceived our results; collecting inputs from stakeholders on the main levers and obstacles to transfer and upscale innovative land practices in different areas of Europe.

In general, the study was deemed relevant and the variety of cases and solutions presented was appreciated. The outcomes of discussion are developed in Annex II, but some key results were: proposals for better clarification and representation of the analytical framework (access to land pathway – see section 2.4) and long lists of national levers and barriers for the upscale and transfer of innovative land practices. Other transversal topics included the question of the influence of CAP on access to land and the question of agroecology, which stakeholders defined and perceived differently across countries.

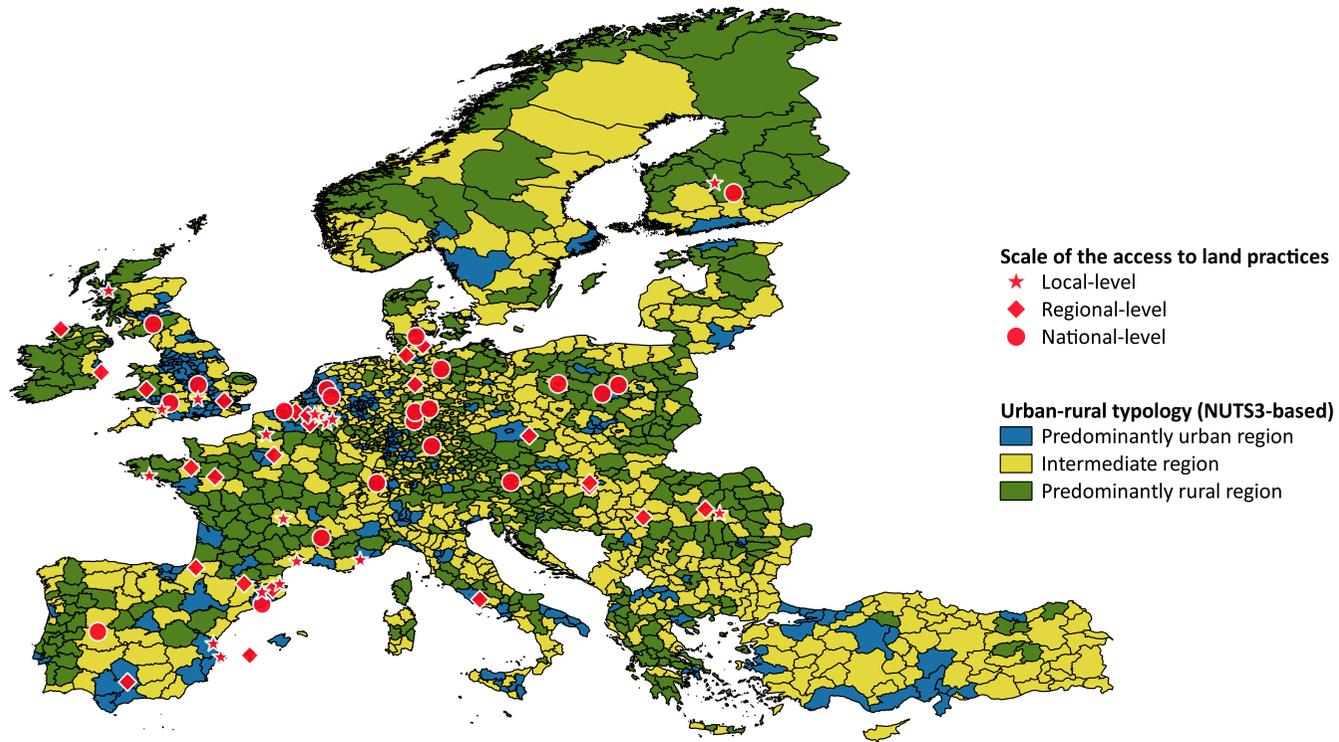


Figure 2 - Location of the 64 practices around Europe

## 2.3 Key concepts

Innovative land practices are analysed drawing on concepts, principles and a review of definitions emerging from WP3 deliverables - D3.1 Assessment Framework (Murtagh *et al.* 2020a), D3.2 Detailed Conceptual Guidelines (Murtagh *et al.* 2020b) and D3.3 Review Report and Fact Sheets (Murtagh *et al.* 2020c). In addition to the core concept of access to land, five other concepts underpin this report: innovative land practices; new entrants; agroecology; rural regeneration; and capital frameworks.

### Access to land

The notion of 'access' is complex and under-theorised (Ribot and Lee Peluso 2003). Recognising the complexity and need for deepening of the access to land concept, the WP6 conceptualisation goes beyond seeing it as a one-dimensional notion where only physical access is gained. Rather, it sees access to land as a multi-dimensional, time-variable notion. It is a continuous process that starts before and continues after physical access is gained. For Ribot and Lee Peluso (2003) access is also broken down in three ways:

- Gaining access is a "general process by which access is established"
- Access control is: "the ability to mediate others' access"
- Access maintenance is: "expending resources or powers to keep a particular sort of resource access open" (Ribot and Lee Peluso 2003, p. 158-159)

Ribot and Lee Peluso (2003) note that when access is gained, this does not mean it can be used in a manner that maintains that access through time. Maintaining access depends in part on access to wider resources (e.g. capital, labour, markets, technology, knowledge and authority) but also social relations (e.g. patronage, friendship) and identities (e.g. professions, tribes, gender). These dimensions form as 'webs of social relations' and can come together in different ways as 'bundles of powers' (Ribot and Lee Peluso 2003). Control of access is also a notion that can be deepened. Lee Peluso and Lind (2011, p.668) describe 'land control' as: "practices that fix or consolidate forms of access, claiming and exclusion for some time". Land control is also described as a socially embedded process that is impacted, for example, by gender, ethnic or race struggles.

The question of land 'users' is raised by the Erasmus+ A2L (Fostering access to land for a new generation of agroecological farmers) project (see Murtagh *et al.* 2020c, Fact Sheet 1, Part B). The project suggests this goes beyond current farmers and includes future farmers, direct consumers, neighbours and local communities, local businesses and other suppliers, local authorities and society at large. The notion of land 'users' is therefore important to consider in how access to land is conceptualised. Land access is necessary for farmers to enter and maintain a place in the farming profession. Farmers are direct users of land. However, use of land can also occur in different direct (e.g. landowners rent land and gain income, recreational users of land) and indirect ways (e.g. businesses that use farm produced goods, consumers of food). The use of land by other direct and indirect users impacts access to land for farming.

### Innovative land practices

Innovation is viewed as central to generating new opportunities and solving problems in rural areas to support regeneration, which makes it a core driver of a “ruralisation” process. In this context, innovative land practices are an important vehicle to overcome the problem of access to land and generate new rural opportunities. Innovative land practices (civic, public and private) that provide access to land are defined as: “...processes aimed at the emergence of new modes of management of agricultural land and at their appropriation by stakeholders and society” (Martin-Prével *et al.* 2019, p.12). More broadly, they tend to be innovative in some or all of the following ways:

- *Provide new or adapt existing practices to tackle the access to land problem.* Innovation can entail the design of new solutions, as well as adapting or adopting of existing approaches, traditional knowledge or models from other places (EC 2006; OECD 2014). How this plays out in reality happens in different ways and combinations: it might involve newer outlooks on land as a common good (e.g. practices that manage land as commons), or adaptations/adoption of more specific models that work elsewhere (e.g. farm incubators).
- *Seek to influence positive change in farming, environment and wider society.* Innovative land practices embed a vision for change towards more sustainable, community-connected farming, including agroecology. Innovation can be understood as having disruptive effects, but rather than radically transform, innovation can also drive change in more subtle ways by addressing issues that still result in significant impact (Freshwater 2012). Innovative land practices can also be linked to the notion of social innovation. They are not just a response to the problem of land access, but also wider issues (e.g. improved local food access, environmental degradation). Polman *et al.* (2017, p.4) define social innovation as “the reconfiguring of social practices, in response to societal challenges, which seeks to enhance outcomes on societal well-being and necessarily includes the engagement of civil society actors”.
- *Engage with the complexity of the access to land problem.* The innovative nature of these land practices can also be seen more broadly in relation to how they engage with the access to land problem. They respond to its complexity, such as both gaining and maintaining land access. Facilitating secure access to land for farming can be a primary activity (e.g. land banks), for others it is part of a wider range of activities (e.g. land stewardship) or it is indirectly impacted (e.g. by supporting commercialisation/farm viability).
- *Potential source of significant future land practice innovations.* These practices can be the source of new ways to tackle the access to land problem that become adopted more widely. The existence of rural innovation provides a ‘living laboratory’ of potential solutions to rural issues (Jean 2014). For the RURALIZATION project, understanding innovation is also linked to its potential adaptation and transfer elsewhere to support rural regeneration. This is not to discount more localised and context specific innovations, but RURALIZATION is specifically interested in novel innovative practices that have potential application elsewhere.
- *Open a range of ways to gain, control and maintain land access.* These practices are also innovative because they open a range of ways to gain, control and maintain land access, that differ from the traditional, dominant ways of buying, leasing or inheriting land. For example, it is understood the dominant pathway for farm succession to the next generation is the hereditary transfer of farms (Handl *et al.* 2016; Helms *et al.* 2018). Innovative land

practices can work for extra-familial succession, and for more diverse land ownership structures changing the nature of access control (e.g. public land, community land).

### **Agroecology**

To realise the ruralisation process, the RURALIZATION project views farming as an important lever of rural regeneration. If farming can generate and preserve rural assets such as natural resources, landscapes, rural culture, it can also be considered as an agent of rural decline when it is linked for instance to soil and biodiversity degradation, water pollution, or increased mechanisation and the reduction of farming jobs.

A shift appears needed to realise the potential value of farming as part of the ruralisation process, dealing with the problems of agricultural decline and generating opportunities that are based on resilient, innovative, sustainable farming. This leads to the importance of the notion of agroecology. This is a concept used by practitioners that are part of the A2LN. Agroecology, however, is not defined and used equally in all areas of Europe. Our definition in this report entails agricultural practices which are coherent with environment preservation, social justice and economic viability. In agroecology, farmers work with nature, respecting it and making use of natural interactions in the ecosystem to build a resilient system, which needs little to no external inputs (Altieri 2000; Frison 2016). The notion of autonomy is rather central in agroecology, which entails also that farming should be fairly remunerated, to ensure viable livelihoods for farmers. Furthermore, the distribution of agricultural production should be handled in a sustainable manner (locally) and to support sustainable diets (CISDE 2018).

Therefore, agroecology can also be linked to academic debate (e.g. Marsden 2012; van der Ploeg 2010) where it is argued that the way resources (economic, social and environmental) core to farming are prioritised needs a re-think. This needs an approach where the problems of agricultural decline are recognised, as well as the interdependencies between human, cultural and ecological systems in agriculture. It needs a focus on developing sustainable farming systems that bring a range of benefits to the wider community such as local and healthy food or a preserved environment (Marsden 2012; van der Ploeg *et al.* 2019; van der Ploeg 2020). It also links to particular constructions of farming that support strong multifunctionality (Wilson 2008; Wilson 2010). In short, agroecology in this report is viewed not only as a practice but as a pathway for transformation, transition of agricultural systems towards regenerative, environmentally and socially sound farming.

### **New entrants**

Innovative land practices are a vehicle that can provide access to land for new entrants to farming. New entrants can be defined quite simply, or alternatively by drawing out the 'grey areas' that complicate, but deepen definition. For example, the NEWBIE project defines new entrants in quite a straightforward way as "anyone who starts a new farm business or becomes involved in an existing farm business. They comprise a wide range of ages, agricultural experience and resource access. Newcomers and successors can enter farming at any stage in their working lives". Alternatively, EIP-AGRI (2016) identifies six types of new entrant (diversified, innovative, full-time, part-time, hobby farmer and hybrid), but also acknowledges a 'substantial grey area' between complete new entrants (no farming background) on one side and direct successors who take over a family farm on the other (move

directly into farming profession and do not change the farm operation). For simplicity, in this report, new entrants mostly means new farmers without an agricultural background, but we recognise that grey areas exist. The Access to Land Network (2018) has also noted that new entrants and successors are not dualistic categories. New entrants may have some type of farming connection and successors may transform the farms they take-over, adding a new dimension rather than continuing existing farm operations.

### **Rural regeneration**

Rural regeneration is a core concept of the RURALIZATION project. Regeneration occurs in response to decline, but does not simply aim to reduce decline. It is also concerned with reinventing or reviving aspects of the rural economy. For the RURALIZATION project, regeneration is also seen as inherently tied up with generational renewal, and the interlinked issues of rural demographic and economic decline, where the lack of opportunities for youth in rural areas creates an ageing population structure. More specifically, because of the interlinked nature of decline issues, the RURALIZATION Conceptual Guidelines and Assessment Framework discussed the 'integrated' regeneration approach. This means approaches to regeneration do not see issues in isolation or as one-dimensional (e.g. an economic or social decline problem) but recognise their interconnectedness and seeks to tackle their interdependent dimensions. In this report, the notion of 'agricultural decline', and how innovative land practices respond to this, working to re-invent and revive the rural economy, directs how impact is assessed (most specifically in section 4.3).

### **Capital frameworks**

Capital frameworks are part of the core concepts of the RURALIZATION project. Capital can be likened to the assets or resources that support regeneration. There are many types of capital resources. In the context of this report, the seven types of capital distinguished as part of the community capital framework are used. These are natural, cultural, human, social, political, financial and built capital (Emery and Flora 2006; Flora *et al.* 2016).

Capitals are also constructed as having specific properties. They do not exist in isolation. They intersect and influence each other. In specific contexts, some may be more important than others, but also over time other capitals will likely also become important. One form of capital can act as a catalyst for a specific action, which then in time may also call for additional capitals. For example, the notion of 'spiralling up' links to the idea that success in building one form of capital can lead to, and mean it is easier to, have success in building others (Emery and Flora 2006).

The capital concept is helpful to assist understanding what resources support the realisation of innovative land practices, but also to understanding their impact, as they can also contribute to generating resources. It also helped shape the design of the standardised questionnaire to collect data on the innovative land practices. As this report focuses on access to land and sustainable land use: land, as a natural capital, will be at the core of the kinds of capital examined, but in close relation with all the other kinds of capitals that could influence its access and its use, in particular the social and human capital which underpins the development of innovative practices.

## 2.4 Analytical framework used to characterise practices

Land is not simply a resource for agricultural activity or other uses. It is subjected to legal rules, collective and individual interests and political decisions. Thus, land access and use are part of an overall "land system", which is represented in a non-exhaustive way in the following diagram (figure 3).

This diagram represents the four main aspects of land that are socially and institutionally regulated:

- The relation between the land owner and the farmer (when the farmer does not own the land). This regulation impacts: the level of security of leases, the rights which are connected to leases, the level of rents, etc.
- The land use transfers, corresponding to the regulation of lease, property or farm shares transfers. This regulation determines: who can claim the future use of land? How is the transferee selected? How are prices regulated? Are there environmental or other specific conditions to operate the transfers?
- The changes in use, with land planning policies especially determining changes from farmland to urban land. This regulates in particular: how decisions taken to change the use of land? Are there ways to prevent farmland from being turned into urban land? How are changes in price of land (depending on its use) regulated?
- The use of agricultural land itself (i.e. the practices implemented on it), which depends on many determinants: the pedo-climatic conditions, agrarian history, agricultural trade policies, the organisation of production subsidies, technical support for agricultural practices and other factors.

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

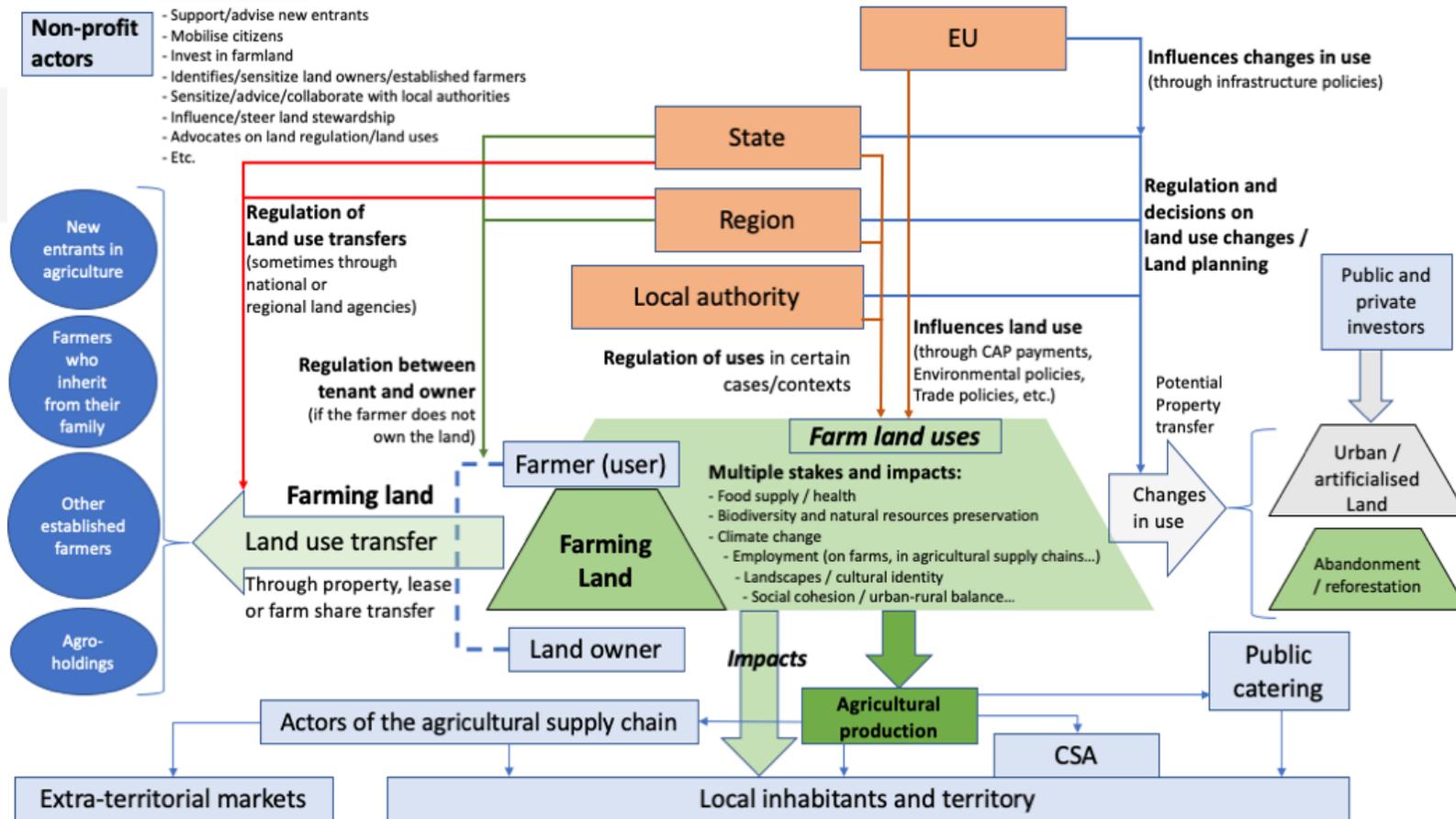


Figure 3 - Representation of the "land system"

The question of farmland control and use (depending on these 4 regulations) goes beyond the agricultural sphere, since it has an impact on biodiversity, employment, social cohesion, and other dimensions. Based on this observation, the practices analysed in this study share a common feature: they aim to become involved at one or several points of this “land system”, to exert their influence on these regulations or to propose new practices taking place in the frame of these land regulations. The practices act in different ways depending on the initial situation of the system in their context, their objectives, and the local (or external) resources available. As previously explained, the practices selected for study respond to a normative goal of fostering access to land or land management in favour of agroecology or more broadly sustainable agriculture. Moreover, while some practices are aimed at established farmers, most are aimed at new entrants, whose specific characteristics include often a lower knowledge concerning the farming community and its institutions, less financial means for investment, no land belonging to members of their family, less experience in agriculture and a frequent desire to carry out projects in sustainable agriculture and at “human scale”.

Another important aspect, is that what is called “practice” can vary in nature. In some cases, the “practice” described is an institution, in others a network or a territorial programme. In some cases, some practices documented (e.g.: Terre de Liens, Terre en vue, Rurbans...) could also appear as partners or founding members in other territorial practices. However, the fact that these practices are of a distinct nature does not prevent us from being able to characterise their modes of action or to describe them in their specific context.

This brings us to the second part of our theoretical framework, aimed at characterising the different modes of action or approaches that practices use to ensure access to land and a secure use of land for agroecological farmers. We have gathered these different actions/approaches into 5 major blocks (see table 2 below).

It must be specified that this "access to land pathway" corresponds to a form of "theoretical pathway". While all of the blocks in this typology contribute to more sustainable and fairer land access and use, it may not always be necessary to cover all of them to achieve these goals. Some actions are located “upstream” or “downstream”, which in this case means before land for setting up a farm is identified or after land is secured for an individual farmer. Yet these actions are not necessarily to be carried out chronologically or by the same actors.

If we attempt to characterise innovative land practices with this framework, we can therefore specify whether they act in a single block or combine several actions from different blocks of the pathway. The sample of practices includes very targeted approaches (performing actions from a single block) as well as more integrated ones (combining actions from different blocks). The maturation of a practice which started using few actions can translate into expanding into other blocks of the pathway (leveraging new tools, new approaches).

Yet no clear "patterns" emerged on how the practices combine these actions because their choices depend largely on their own context, resources, degree of maturity, and specific objectives. Thus, we were not able to group the practices themselves into distinct and characterisable categories (although this could perhaps be further explored with a larger sample of practices and more standardised selection process to gather comparable experiences). Instead of categorising practices, we therefore chose to shed some light on the common features visible in the way they operate.

The Access to Land Pathway

Actions on land (combined with support to farmer(s) at numerous stages)		Farmer's Pathway	Support to Farmers & actions on their broader environment
<p><b>General level</b></p> 	<p><b>1- Organising the accessibility of farmland (in general):</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Preserving farmland from land take, abandonment, etc.</li> <li>- Organising access to information about land availability: mapping, cadastres, etc</li> <li>- Improving the possibility of land transfers:                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Anticipating farm transmissions and connecting retiring farmers and successors</li> <li>- Structuring land demands</li> <li>- Mobilising private landowners</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p><b>Upstream</b></p> 	<p><b>0. Upstream support to new entrants (pre-land access)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing initial training on agroecology</li> <li>- Supporting business planning (e.g farm incubators)</li> <li>- Supporting farm set up/ adaptation: access to capital, housing...</li> <li>- Helping with social and professional insertion locally</li> <li>- Helping with access to services and infrastructures in rural areas</li> </ul>
	<p><b>2- Steering land control towards specific sustainable and multifunctional uses:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Conditioning land access to specific uses – e.g. organic farming on water catchment areas, food production for local schools, etc.</li> <li>- Prioritising certain users – e.g. public tenders or land banks prioritising the youth, women, the unemployed, community businesses, etc.;</li> <li>- Developing food and agricultural territorial projects to recultivate fallow land, renew generations, manage environmental risks (e.g. bush fires), preserve a cultural heritage</li> </ul>		<p><b>4. Downstream support to farmers</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Supporting commercialisation</li> <li>- Build demand for agroecological products</li> <li>- Fostering the implementation of processing tools and infrastructures adapted to small-scale farms</li> <li>- Encouraging the diversification of farm activities (economic and non-economic – e.g. educational activities)</li> <li>- Providing lifelong learning opportunities and expert advice</li> </ul>
<p><b>Farm level</b></p> 	<p><b>3- Securing access to land for individual farmers, particularly new entrants:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing financial capital for land and buildings: offering public land (e.g. county farms), community land acquisitions, etc.</li> <li>- Offering favourable legal conditions (long-time lease, lease for community action...), sometimes connected with specific practices (e.g. environmental clauses)</li> <li>- Organising land portage to bridge the gap between the time of sale and setting-up</li> </ul>	<p><b>Down-stream</b></p>	

Table 2 - The different steps of the "access to land pathway"

The actions in the upstream block (block 0) of the pathway correspond to the actions carried out, generally with the future farmer, before a concrete land opportunity is identified (this opportunity may however already exist, particularly when the future farmers are testing their activity on a farm they may take over).

Actions consisting of organising the accessibility of agricultural land (block 1) combine both actions aimed at the preservation of farmland—without which there would be no land market at all—as well as actions aiming to identify land opportunities that could favour a farm set up (or identifying farms whose activity is important to maintain).

Actions aimed at orienting land towards specific uses (block 2) correspond to actions steering the use of land (by a future farmer or by an existing farmer) towards specific practices responding to specific issues. When block 2 actions are leveraged for a future farm set up, the question of the new entrant selection (by the current land user or by the innovative practice) is of course central, as is the negotiation/discussion on the agricultural practices to be put in place, their legal framework (e.g.: type of lease), and their possible monitoring (as well as their financing in some cases).

The actions related to land tenure security (block 3) are therefore often carried out in complete interrelation with the question of the orientation of land use (block 2). Both are related to the capacity to ensure the land transfer (managing the timeframes and wishes of actors involved in the land transfer, gathering funds for the land and agricultural project, and other tasks) as well as the capacity to access land under secure conditions (which may condition the realisation of the land transfer itself).

Downstream actions (block 4), linked to marketing, diversification of activities, and long-term farm life (e.g. lifelong training opportunities for farmers) are related to secure access and use of the land in the sense that they condition the capacity of the farmer to perpetuate their activity on their land. They also help maintain viable smaller agricultural structures that escape land concentration dynamics. Therefore, these actions are essential to ensure that new farmers can later get access to these human-size farms.

To illustrate how pathway may not be necessarily linear, we can cite examples where certain blocks are mobilised synchronously. For instance:

- Preserving land in agricultural use and orienting its use towards organic farming can be justified, in certain cases, by the fact that there is an identified potential future farmer who, at the upstream level, has tested organic farming and has a mature project to propose. Sometimes the farm set up can actually take place because the nature of the agricultural project developed by the future farmer is compatible with the lease conditions determined in block 3 (e.g.: a lease integrating specific clauses concerning agricultural practices, like organic farming).
- Raising capital to ensure the acquisition of a farm can be eased when there is a guarantee, at the downstream level (block 4), that the future farmer will benefit from marketing outlets that will allow them to pay their rent. The land opportunity may come from identifying a retiring farmer in block 1 who is willing to sell their farm, but perhaps an organic retiring farmer will only do so if the lease conditions negotiated in block 3 guarantee the new entrants will perpetuate organic farming.

The following figure (Figure 4), taking the shape of a matrix, proposes another representation of the access to land pathway, illustrating the synchronous and interconnected nature of the actions to be led.

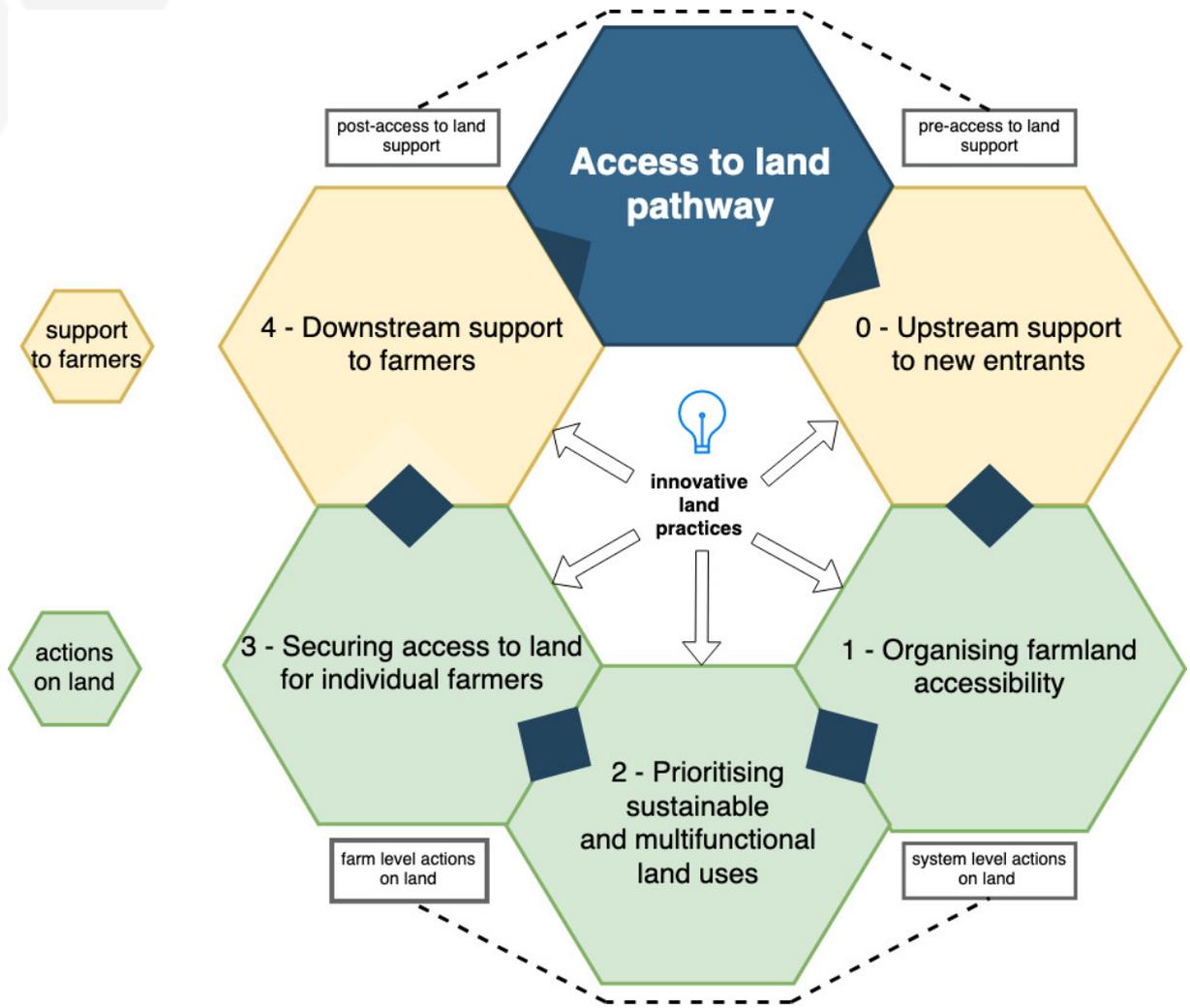


Figure 4 - Other representation of the “access to land pathway”

Other types of actions can favour access to land for agroecology, but they are more difficult to position along the access to land pathway. It is particularly the case for all actions related to creating a civic culture of “land use for the community interest”: awareness raising campaigns, civic participation in agricultural bodies, national advocacy work, etc. Indeed, most of these actions turned towards community mobilisation have an impact at all stages of the pathway: citizens might get mobilised to preserve farmland, to propose a specific orientation of land, to raise capital to buy land or other actions.

**We propose to use the access to land pathway framework for several purposes in the report:**

- to situate the different practices collected and determine which aspect(s) of this pathway they are taking in charge;
- to describe, based on all information gathered around these practices, the main issues and solutions developed at each step of this pathway;
- to specify the kind of difficulties actors often face at each stage of the access to land pathway when implementing their actions;
- to characterise the potential synergies or conflictual situation which can emerge at each stage of this pathway;
- to outline the specific local and national policies these actions are connected to in the overall “land system”.

**This means that we will analyse the practices in two different ways:**

- As a specific practice, embedded in its own context.
- As a practice acting at a particular point of the access to land pathway, giving us more general indications on this particular block, for which we will sometimes be able to draw some more generalisable conclusions.

This will allow us to describe the particular way in which these practices tend to unfold according to the initial contexts and the objectives they set for themselves. We will see in particular that the type of land (public/private, cultivated/abandoned, rural/urban, etc.) on which these practices develop heavily influences their potential to fulfil their objectives and the type of actions and partnerships they implement.

### 3 Innovations on the Access to Land pathway

We propose to characterise the type of practices acting at each stage of the pathway, adding examples to illustrate concretely how they work in the field. However, we also synthesised the content of the 64 case studies collected in the form of tables detailing the types of solutions developed at each step of the pathway (from the range of practices analysed), as well as the problems and barriers they face. These tables (numbered 1 to 6) are in Annex III of the report.

#### 3.1 Practices supporting farmers before accessing land (upstream)

The practices that take place at the upstream level of the pathway concern actions happening before the farm set up and even before looking for land. This includes training programmes such as the Polish Agro-Perma-Lab, Permakultural Edu, or the Catalan school of shepherds Rurbans (see box 1); farm incubators such as Point Vert and Graine de Paysans in Belgium; and other practices which develop incubation, training, or advice on setting up innovative farm businesses in combination with other access to land work as exemplified by CIAP in France, OrganicLea's Farmstart programme (see box 2) or Earth Trust and Fresh Start Land Enterprise in the UK. These practices help new entrants overcome key barriers to starting their own business: ensuring that some new farmers can be aware of sustainable forms of agriculture and trained in them, helping new entrants get farm management skills (training them in business, marketing, etc.), providing avenues to new farmers to test different types of activity, supporting them in becoming more integrated into the local agricultural networks and in building suitable commercial outlets.

##### **Box 1. Practices at the upstream level: example of the Rurbans school of shepherds**

- Rurbans is a non-profit association in Pallars Sobirà, a highland Pyrenean county in the north of Catalonia which aims to revitalise rural areas with a clear focus on farming
- It runs the 'School of Shepherds' which encourages generational renewal in livestock farming. The school experience involves training and usually a first solid connection to the sector.
- Additionally, the organisation mentors former students and offers advisory services to established farmers and new entrants, further addressing skill gaps. It also manages an 'opportunities bank', bringing together offers and requests for land, jobs, projects, assets, knowledge, and collective activities
- 202 students have been part of the 'School of Shepherds' and 94 are now professionally engaged in the sector.

Achieving the "upstream" support for access to land thus requires both purely technical support (skill transfers) as well as broader social support. The practices documented in this report, in some ways, help "bridge the gap" for new entrants who do not benefit from family farm inheritance, e.g. providing progressive learning opportunities, the possibility to test one's affinity for farming, the space for getting acquainted over the long-term with a farm and its pedo-climatic conditions, and the occasion to integrate into the local social fabrics.

Some of the main difficulties encountered by the practices acting at upstream level (see table 1 in Annex III for more detail) are both human and institutional.

Human because two strong difficulties they face are a) finding adequate candidates and mentors and b) dealing with negative perceptions of new entrants and agroecological farmers. This often implies they have to forge alliances with the agricultural world so that students may become integrated in local networks and grasp complexities of land/agricultural systems. In some European contexts, the farming sector as a whole can also be depreciated, attracting few candidates to even start farming.

Institutional (and financial) difficulties are met for practices seeking to provide low-barrier and low-fee options to guarantee inclusive programmes and to bear with the costs of running a school or incubator (administrative and salary expenses, but also costs of land and machines associated with farm test areas). To this end, the organisations implementing these practices need to convince institutions of the need for such programmes. Some of the hardest yet most crucial costs to cover are associated to handling the relationship with students over the long term and supporting them in finding land and financial help after they exit the training.

### **Box 2. Practices at the upstream level: farm incubators**

Farm incubators are schemes to help people new to farming to develop their skills, ideas and practices in a supported environment before moving on to a larger piece of land or taking on full financial/legal responsibility for their agricultural business. They can vary in the type of support they offer. Some common types of support include: access to land at low or no rent for a certain period of time, access to necessary infrastructure (e.g. for processing/adding value to produce), providing mentoring from more experienced farmers, facilitating access to markets for their produce, or running training on specific technical elements of the type of agriculture they are interested in. The Land Workers' Alliance (LWA), based in the UK, has put together a useful guide on the history of, purpose behind, and key decisions to make when setting up a farm incubator or 'Farmstart' programme, which contains further detail (Landworkers' Alliance 2018), while the Access to Land network has provided an analysis of "incubators" in various European countries (Access to Land 2018).

The inventory of innovative land practices included several organisations running farm incubators, which include:

#### **CIAP (Cooperative for the set-up of peasant farms) (France)**

- Cooperative made of organisations which help peasant farmers set up, as well as other supportive social and solidarity-based economy actors, local authorities, farmers and citizens
- Farm incubator scheme lasts for a year, which allows farmers to trial their agricultural project, as well as offering training or support in entrepreneurship, finding markets, renovating farm buildings, and pre-financing opportunities
- Farm incubator proposes two options for the test location: the farmer can either start their activity in a farm incubator which is collaborating with the CIAP (e.g.: some agricultural schools proposing land to test the activity) or get a status (provided by the CIAP) to future farmers who are taking over a farm or setting up in partnership with an established peasant farmer. In both cases, the investments made by the farmer testing their activity (e.g.: equipment) is the property of CIAP for

the incubation year (or extended for a further year if desired). Then the new farmer buys this from CIAP when they start out on their own.

- In Pays de la Loire, CIAP enabled 200 new farmers to set up in the region between 2012 and 2019, most of which are considered ‘atypical’ by the agricultural profession, as they are often organic, small-scale, and using direct sales models
- Through the incubator model, this practice also connects to the ‘Securing access to land for individual farmers’ and ‘Downstream’ blocks of the Access to Land pathway: indeed, the CIAP can provide a legal structure to manage leases and CAP subsidies associated with the land while the farmer makes their activity official (addressing the issue of farmers from a non-agricultural background needing more time to finalise their access to land) and the local authorities involved in CIAP governance can formulate their own land initiatives for local agricultural purposes, with requests for land coming from the future farmers supported by CIAP

#### **OrganicLea Farmstart (UK)**

- Workers’ cooperative growing food based on permaculture principles on the edge of London
- Farmstart programme (which is part of the wider LWA Farmstart Network) established to support, coordinate and enable the creation of new grow-to-sell food growing projects, for both people who come out of OrganicLea’s training and volunteering programmes and other skilled growers locally
- The free traineeship generally lasts nine months - the first three months are work based training and mentoring within the OrganicLea production team, the next three months are setting up their own micro-plot on the OrganicLea site, and the final three months are about moving on to their own land and developing planting plans for the next season
- At the end of the nine months, OrganicLea provides land for them to move onto or supports them to find their own land, continuing to provide some mentoring support, and remaining part of the Farmstart database, which included 34 participants by the end of 2017. Of these, 28 have been active on the land with support from OrganicLea, and 23 gained access to land via OrganicLea
- Through the Farmstart, this practice also supports new entrants to find their own land by calling for landowners or people aware of potentially useful parcels of land to come forward and, at the downstream level, proposes the option to sell produce through the OrganicLea box scheme and markets (new entrants get help with quality control, packaging, getting produce to market on time).

## 3.2 Practices organising the accessibility of farmland

This part of the pathway deals more directly with “land” than the upstream step yet still concerns key pre-conditions to farm set up. The two main aspects addressed at this stage are: 1) preserving farmland and 2) organising its “accessibility” in an opaque market.

On the first aspect, preserving farmland is a broad objective. It covers several situations: agricultural land being turned to industrial, commercial, residential, tourism or infrastructure developments (mostly in urban and peri-urban areas); agricultural land being kept unused by its owners, who await its designation for development to increase its value (mostly in peri-urban and tourist (e.g. coastal) areas); agricultural land being kept fallow either because no new farmers want to take over, the land is small or has low agronomic potential, or the owner is unknown (mostly in mountains and remote rural areas).

Practices which focus on preserving farmland can therefore aim at:

- preserving land as being circumscribed for farming in local land plans and designations;
- ensuring that existing farmland is actively used for agriculture;
- ensuring that, beyond land preservation, the farming practices developed on it contribute to biodiversity conservation and the protection of natural resources.

Practices to preserve farmland may leverage different tools whether they are being implemented by non-profit organisations or local authorities. Regarding practices led by civil society organisations (CSOs), for instance, we observe diverse strategies to modify or block development plans or infrastructure projects. This includes street mobilisation, lobbying or legal remedies (Per l'Horta, Terres fertiles, CALT), participating in land planning bodies and sometimes developing alternative development plans (Per l'Horta, Terres fertiles), participatory/civic mapping of local farmland (its current use, potential, owners or other features) (Per l'Horta), pressuring local authorities for effective use of their public land (Coraggio, CALT), acquiring land (Terres fertiles, TDL), occupying land (SOC-SAT). More examples of CSO strategies are featured in the "Your Land, My Land, Our Land" Handbook (Nyéléni 2020). Practices by local authorities tend to leverage institutional tools, e.g. changing local zoning to protect more agricultural land (Mouans-Sartoux); mobilising their own public land to put it back in agricultural use, acquiring land to make it available for farming (Mouans-Sartoux); working with public and private owners to preserve and rent farmland, consolidate farmland plots or rehabilitate abandoned farmland (Moëlan-sur-Mer, Red Terrae, Finnish Land Bank). The Access to Land guidebook on local authorities' role to secure access to land for farmers develops more examples on the use of these tools (Access to Land 2017a).

These practices encounter difficulties related to the great divergence of interests among actors interested in land and its uses, the land ownership structures, and the possible costs related to land preservation or rehabilitation. Indeed, especially in urban areas, there are strong pressures on land and oppositions to preserving its agricultural use (with owners sometimes fearing to lose control if leasing land to farmers) and high costs associated to buying up land to preserve it. Land fragmentation is another factor which can make the preservation work even more difficult. Finally, if oppositions over land use become very conflictual, there may also be a negative perception of practices that use strong tactics such as land occupation (see table 2 in Annex III for more detail on problems/barriers and solutions implemented by these practices).

### **Box 3. Practices organising land accessibility: preserving farmland**

In this box we develop an example of a practice led by a CSO (Per l'Horta) and one by a local authority to preserve farmland.

#### **Per l'horta (Spain)**

- Per l'Horta is an association acting to preserve L'Horta de Valencia which is the horticulture farmland surrounding Valencia.
- Through a combination of local mobilisation, studies and participatory mapping of local farmland, advocacy and education, it has managed to preserve over 2,000 hectares by obtaining changes in land zoning or the abandonment of development projects.
- Per L'Horta also contributes to steering land use towards agroecological practices (step 3 of the pathway), the restoration of natural resources, short-supply chains and fair prices for farmers.
- Through its educational and advocacy activities, Per L'Horta indeed always emphasises the need to have a land planning model based on the sustainable use of resources and the value of farming as a local activity and source of food production. They also contribute to changing mentalities toward the land issues and to creating a civic culture of land management for the benefit of the local community.

#### **Moëlan-sur-Mer (France)**

- Moëlan-sur-Mer is a commune of Brittany which has been working since 2013 to reclaim fallow land along the coastline to encourage the development of agriculture.
- It identified 120 hectares of fallow land and mapped their potential for agricultural, pastoral and forestry use. In parallel, it launched dialogue with the owners of the uncultivated parcels.
- Under the Rural Code, the commune can ask landowners to either sell the land, cultivate it themselves or make it available to a farmer. Here also, preserving farmland has been combined with steering the use of this land towards specific uses and users: environmentally friendly agricultural practices, local food production, new farmers, an association for socio-professional integration, etc.

Concerning the practices working on the second aspect, organising land accessibility, several adopt strategies to palliate a global lack of land information by collecting land data and mapping it or making it available through platforms (BoerenBruxselsPaysans BE, Moëlan-sur-mer FR, Red Terrae and Agroecological land bank ES), or by directly advising farmers on land prices, laws, and strategies (Terre de Liens FR, Terre-en-Vue BE, Fresh Start Land Enterprise Centre CIC UK). Other innovations attempt to encourage land mobility by nurturing relationships between landholders and land-seekers through land matching forums (Perspektive Landwirtschaft in AT, Kontaktforum Hofübergabe DE, Landglide in NL), through networking and sensitising actions (Bristol Food Producers in UK, Hof sucht Baue DE, Toekomstboeren NL, Terra Franca ES), or even by financially supporting succession (Stiftung zur Erhaltung buerlicher Familienbetriebe CH).

Organising land accessibility meets important barriers, however, due to a general opacity of land markets in the EU, low levels of land mobility (most land transfers happen inside the family), or, when transfers do happen, their being too rapid or with too many competing

buyers. These practices also deal with negative perceptions of some landowners or retiring farmers towards new entrants or issues hampering farm succession (low pension levels for retiring farmers, lack of anticipation of or support for farm transmission processes, etc.). In box 4, we zoom on one practice linked to land preservation and one linked to facilitating transfers of land between generations.

**Box 4. Practices organising land accessibility: connecting land and/or retiring farmers and future farmers**

Several initiatives across Europe focus on increasing access to land by connecting people and organisations which currently hold land to other people who are seeking land for their activities. Through nurturing relationships between landholders and land-seekers, organisations such as those detailed below can help both groups agree on shared objectives and make better use of land, whilst also enabling generational renewal in rural areas.

**Red Terrae (Spain)**

- Coordinates a network of municipal agroecological land banks across 40 local authorities as part of wider sustainable development initiatives
- Red Terrae shares a methodological framework for establishing municipal land banks with local authorities, who then adapt this to their specific context, to boost the amount of public farmland available
- Through this, and by improving relationships between private landowners and potential land users, the organisation has restored farming activities in abandoned lands and enhanced opportunities for realising social, landscape and productive values
- 142 ha of land has been offered for these purposes, and 57 agreements are now in place between landowners and land users (some of which are new entrants)
- This practice also allows to steer land control towards specific uses as the organisation fosters agroecological projects on the land identified, Red Terrae also secures access to land in the long term as they make recommendations on the contractual agreements signed between farmers and landowners

**Bristol Food Producers (United Kingdom)**

- Membership organisation working on four key strands of work related to their local food system, one of which is access to land
- Have prepared resources for landowners who may be interested in letting people produce food on their land, and signpost other useful land access resources for people trying to find land and those that have it
- Have a rolling survey for growers looking for land near Bristol which is used to help match land-seekers with potentially suitable landowners, by gathering more information on locally available land and its characteristics, and the needs of prospective growers
- This practice also steers land control towards agroecological uses and secures access to land for individual farmers as Bristol Food Producers advocates for greater protection of and access to high quality food growing land and soils. The organisation also leads action connected to downstream support, by favouring access to market opportunities and developing collaborative distribution schemes.

**Kontaktforum Hofübergabe (Germany)**

- Annual matching forum for retiring farmers and new entrants organised by the Öko-Junglandwirte-Netzwerk (eco young farmers' network) since 2016
- This two day structured event allows new entrants and farmers without a family successor to make contact, exchange experiences and get professional experiences
- The format relies heavily on personal discussion and encounter, combined with workshops by professionals about related topics. The method includes "role swaps" where new entrants are asked to imagine being retiring farmers and brainstorm their worries and needs towards the potential new entrant, and vice versa.
- Many farmers visit the forum over a couple of years in preparation for an extra-familial succession

### 3.3 Practices steering land control towards specific uses

Practices steering the use of land towards more sustainable practices often take place on land with high environmental interests (or at least considered as such), land with specific landscape interests or land with low economic potential (or even abandoned) for which new kinds of uses can allow to increase the added value of the production. This can happen on areas where specific environmental legal frameworks exist (like Natura 2000, the Water Framework Directive or environmental specifications within the land planning documents), or not. Environmental issues concerned may be of different kinds: the preservation of certain animal or plant species or habitats, the preservation of a certain type of landscape (e.g.: hedges of a bocage landscape), preservation of water next to a water catchment, prevention of fire risks (e.g.: by avoiding the expansion of bushland), etc.

Land innovations acting to steer the control and use of land towards agroecology may do so by conditioning land access to specific uses as well as by selecting agricultural projects or candidates to benefit from specific support and/or get access to specific lands (all community land trusts and many territorial projects e.g. TDL, TeV, Kulturland, Leuven, BoerenBuxselsPaysans, etc.) or by supporting an existing farmer to change their practices (IAEDEN, Boscos de Pastura, Cúlra Créafóige, Sustainable Uplands Agri-environment Scheme, KM Peltomarjat osuuskunta, Fundatia ADEPT, Infoportal Kirchenland...).

In many cases, an analysis of the initial state of the land is undertaken, e.g. a listing of the specific species/habitats which are to be preserved through new practices or, when it concerns abandoned land, an identification of the plots and their owners, a diagnosis of the agricultural potential of the plots, and plans for their potential rearrangement (exchanges, etc.). In some cases, when financial measures for farmers are possible, an analysis of the possible income decrease linked to a change in farming practices can be conducted and compensated by agri-environmental measures if they exist (usually for several years). A specific monitoring of the practices and the evolution of the state of the land can be set up. These practices also mobilise tools such as civic campaigns or awareness raising actions; organising local volunteer groups; institutionalising local consultation on land use; organising procurement of public or environmentally sensitive land to respect certain criteria; land

stewardship contracts<sup>6</sup>; farmer training and support to change of practices; finding innovative ways to promote environmentally-sensitive production (local brands, marketing strategies, valorising specific territories, targeting specific supply chains), etc.

In some cases, ensuring the long-term continuation of efforts to improve the land's ecological conditions is a strong issue. For example, IAEDEN is a practice which has helped to maintain or foster ecological practices around hays and meadows in certain livestock areas through financial incentives and regular support to farmers, but is now seeking ways for these practice to self-perpetuate, without the need for external interventions.

#### **Box 5. Practices steering land control towards specific uses**

In this box we develop the example of a practice dealing with both established farmers and new entrants to achieve the goal of steering the use of the land towards sustainable practices.

#### **The Fundatia ADEPT (Agricultural Development and Environmental Protection in Transylvania) in Transylvania (Romania)**

- Fundatia ADEPT is an NGO with the objective of conserving the biodiversity of semi-natural landscapes in Transylvania.
- They carry on scientific studies on land concerning species and habitats, propose some practices to farmers compatible with the preservation of species and habitats they observed, propose support to farmers and work on two kinds of incentives to valorise these practices: state support through agri-environmental measures and market incentives with the creation of local brands (valorising these practices) and new marketing schemes.
- The Fundatia also developed specific actions towards tourism, which had an impact on the diversification of activities of some farms. 2,000 farmers have been impacted directly or indirectly by these initiatives and around 20 new entrants were supported.

Overall, the issue of orientation of land use is highly connected to all stages of the pathway. The upstream stage determines whether or not there will be candidates or training infrastructures available in order to cultivate the identified land sustainably. Also, the practices dealing with farmland preservation/land rehabilitation (block 1) and land acquisition (block 3) often try to steer the "land use" in a specific direction. Finally, the downstream stage will help identify new markets and valorise production based on sustainable practices (through local processing or specific marketing). Some difficulties encountered by these practices in their implementation are listed in table 3 of Annex III.

### **3.4 Practices securing access to land for individual farmers**

Over the past decade, many practices have developed in Europe to secure access to land for agroecological farmers and new entrants (Access to Land 2019). These practices represent a

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<sup>6</sup> On this aspect, the national legal framework will allow more or less significant possibilities, in terms of integrating environmental clauses into leases.

rather large part of our sample, including innovations which provide access to land and buildings to farmers through community land acquisitions (cooperatives, foundations or community land trusts such as Soil Association Land Trust (SALT), Nadace Pro Pudu (NPP), Ecological Land Coop, Lurzaindia, Terre-en-Vue, Terre de Liens, Kulturland eG, De Landgenoten, Lurzaindia, La Tartana de Can Bofill...). This also includes practices leveraging public land to set up new farms (Mouans-Sartoux, Red Terrae, City of Leuven, Co.r.ag.gio) or buying land in a temporary manner before retroceding it to new entrants (Land carrying in Ille-et-Vilaine, FR) (see table 4 and 5 in Annex III for a synthetic presentation of the solutions developed at this stage of the pathway).

Many of these practices acquire farmland as a way to preserve it and ensure that agricultural specific practices are conducted on it, usually environmentally-friendly practices and sometimes oriented to local food production and/or short supply chains. These practices rent the land they own to farmers whose practices match these criteria. Most work with both established farmers and new entrants. They sometimes ensure that their goals will be met through including specific clauses in the leases they make (depending on whether the local land law allows it or not).

There are different ways of collecting funds to acquire farmland. They may receive pledges and donations, in cash or kind, from landowners, the public, and sometimes local authorities (SALT, NPP...). They can also raise money from the public through investment shares, either through public offers of shares or crowdfunding (TeV, TDL, DLg, Kulturland...). Many use or invent innovative legal and financial forms to collect money, manage their assets and contract with farmers (e.g. community farmland trusts status, environmental easements, etc.).

#### **Box 6. Practices securing access to land for individual farmers:**

##### **acquiring land through collective tools**

Practice raising capital to acquire land have a broad impact : they give access to land to new entrants who wouldn't have the financial means or local connections on their own, or release them of part of the financial burden of entering farming; they provide secure tenancy to farmers; they develop agroecological forms of farming and local food systems; they enable the preservation of farming even in areas of high land prices, such as peri-urban or touristy areas; they involve the local (and often broader) community in preserving farmland and deciding how it will be used; they also contribute to good land stewardship, nature conservation and climate change mitigation.

#### **Kulturland eG (Germany)**

- A German Cooperative established in 2013 to preserve farmland for community-connected farming on a long term basis.
- It currently has a capital of 3 Mi€ and has acquired 11 farms totalling 30 farmers and families (265 hectares). 75% of the shareholders belong to the local community around the farm.
- In a context where land prices are rising fast, it enables access to land for organic farmers and counteracts short term leases that pose a threat to the farm viability.
- Kulturland eG thereby directly intervenes on the 2, 3 and 4<sup>th</sup> steps of the Access to land pathway.

**Terre de Liens (TDL, France)**

- A civic movement, established in France in 2003, TDL aims to preserve farmland, support entry into farming and develop peasant and organic farming as a way to contribute to rural regeneration.
- Terre de Liens raises donations as well as investment. Since its creation it has collected over €90 million in investment and €9,6 million in donations. In 2019, TDL had acquired 219 farms, or 5,750 ha and contractualised 343 rural leaseholders.
- This helped create more than 500 agricultural and non-agricultural jobs on the TDL farms.
- Apart from land acquisitions, TDL acts on all dimensions of the access to land pathway, through mobilising citizens and developing a sense that “farmland is everybody’s responsibility”, training and advising farmers and future farmers, engaging with local authorities to advise them in the development of territorial food plans, or helping the farmers with commercialisation (see more in the article on TDL in the “Your Land, My Land, Our Land” handbook (Nyéléni 2020)).

Some practices, involving strong institutional intervention on land market (through land carrying for example – see box 7 below) and multiple stakeholders’ partnerships, are even allowing to transform the conditions of a land sale by extending the time of the purchase operation to facilitate the possibility for new entrants to complete the different steps needed before starting their activity. Indeed, there is often a difference in timing between the landowner who wants to sell as quickly as possible and the future farmers who may need time to complete their training, or to raise the money to buy the identified land. This timing issue usually favours the expansion of existing farms: neighbouring farmers often have the necessary information and money more quickly (Blot *et al.* 2016).

**Box 7. Practices securing access to land for individual farmers:****organising land carrying for new entrants**

“Land carrying” directed to new entrants is a practice that consists in organising the purchase of farmland by a third-party who agrees to keep the land in “temporary ownership” until a new entrant or a structure willing to support them is able to purchase it back. There are many advantages of this: firstly, the system makes it possible to react quickly when farms are put up for sale and to bank land for new entrants. Secondly, land carrying provides precious time for the future farmer to finish preparing their plans for setting up their farming activity, particularly to secure funds and make the necessary arrangements to buy the land back.

Land carrying may be financed by public or private actors willing to fund the “carrying” expenses (loans for the purchase, compensations for land management costs incurred by the temporary owner, etc.).

**Land carrying in Ille-et-Vilaine, France (Brittany region)**

- In Ille-et-Vilaine the department authority collaborates with the regional SAFER agency, which acts as the land carrier. The department council acts as the finance and pays the fees for SAFER to carry land on behalf of new entrants who are setting up outside of a family farm and whose farm project is organic, sustainable, diversified or has a high added value.
- The department technicians and elected representatives are vetting the dossiers presented by new entrants and defending them for acceptance by the SAFER committee.
- Between 2007 and 2017, this action helped 29 new farms set up (a total of 221 ha carried by the Safer) and create 47 jobs (a significant proportion of the new enterprises being farming collectives).
- The "success rate" of land carrying operations was 93%, meaning new entrants nearly always found a way to buy back the land “carried” by the SAFER.
- This action is interconnected with other stages of the access to land pathway, as the criteria determining farm projects eligible for carrying prioritise certain users (i.e. new entrants getting started outside of a family farm) and condition the land access to specific uses (i.e. organic, sustainable, diversified or high-added value) (stage 2 of the pathway and downstream stage, with the encouragement to diversify farm activities).

Finally, practices acting at this stage of the pathway also aim to improve the conditions of access to land over the long term through guaranteeing secure leases for farmers, or providing advice on land agreements with private landowners. Indeed, some organisations assist farmers in establishing conditions relative to long-term land-holding (negotiating leases with different landowners, assessment of property value, specific clauses on leases, etc.). Such land innovations use diverse juridical structures to collect and buy land collectively (adapted to the local context), mobilise local authorities, or appeal to intermediaries to perform temporary land purchase and storages. For many practices of the inventory, this function is combined with an observation of land opportunities and land seekers, meaning that the practice integrates both a knowledge of the land market (allowing supply and demand to meet) and advice on land transfer negotiations.

**Box 8. Practices securing access to land for individual farmers:  
Offering favourable legal conditions to secure land over the long term**

**APAEFF (Spain)**

- The Organic Farming Producers' Association of Ibiza and Formentera launched a land bank initiative in 2012 aimed at avoiding land abandonment, facilitating generational renewal and reviving agricultural activity in the islands, which has faced decline compared to tourism in recent years
- The practice is intended to promote organic farming, and mediate agroecological agreements between landowners and new farmers
- Today, 5 agreements are active under the supervision of the Association, which not only monitors them but also provides advisory services to farmers in terms of organic practice
- This practice also connects to the upstream block of the access to land pathway since the organisation provides training and advisory to new farmers. It also works on the accessibility of farmland as the association identifies fallow land and it helps steer land control towards specific uses as the agreements between land owners and new farmers are bound to an agro-ecological perspective, including the official organic certification by the Organic Farming Balearic Council. At the downstream level, the Association promotes and facilitates as well the marketing of the products cultivated by its members to the local community through the cooperative Ecofeixes.

**CLAS Cymru (Wales)**

- The Community Land Advisory Service in Wales (CLAS Cymru) supports community groups to work with public bodies and other land owners, enabling local people to access, own and improve green spaces in their area.
- CLAS Cymru provides support and free expert advice on issues such as identifying potential sources of land, negotiating its use on a temporary or long term basis, legal issues including land agreements and land purchase, and navigating the planning system
- They work closely with local authorities, Natural Resources Wales, other NGOs and the agricultural sector, helping landowners to understand the opportunities of working with community groups and iron out any apprehensions and problems
- The service also liaises at a national policy level, operating as a centre of expertise, guidance and support
- 350 projects have been supported to date, across urban and rural areas of Wales
- This practice also connects to the upstream block of the pathway by setting up community gardens which bring people together and help them learn growing skills. It also organises the accessibility of farmland by identifying potential sources of land and steers land control towards specific uses as they often support local organic food growing or projects boosting local wildlife.

The main difficulties encountered by practices aiming to secure land for individual farmers are related to land markets dynamics, the low level of farmer security proposed in some national regulatory frameworks, as well as dealing with the new status of land when it is managed collectively (and is not part of the farmer's working capital anymore).

Concerning land markets, the high land prices and the high levels of competition for land transfers (rapid transfers, competition with larger investors and farms) make it difficult for practice to take part in these markets. Coherent agricultural units (combining land and buildings) are not always easy to acquire.

Practices which acquire land face many costs associated to land and especially farm building management. It can be difficult to find a balanced rent level both allowing the landowner to perform management and building maintenance while keeping the rent affordable for the farmer. Evaluating the viability of a potential tenant farmer's project and ensuring the long-term viability of the farm (beyond the farm set up phase, which often involves the public/citizen support) is also a challenging task. Furthermore, the autonomy of farmers from their public or private landlord and finding the right balance between their respective objectives (e.g. freedom to choose the type of cultures and techniques for the farmers vs. land orientation and monitoring objectives for the owner for instance) is a central issue, especially for land intermediation practices.

### 3.5 Practices supporting farmers after access to land (downstream practices)

Downstream practices, after the farmer has set up, can relate to many dimensions of farm activity, from support on economic aspects like commercialisation of the production to support on non-economic aspects. Practices at the downstream level sometimes participate to linking the farm with the territory through farm diversification (e.g. developing on-farm processing of products or non-agricultural activities such as educational activities, agritourism, renewable energy production,) or infrastructure support (e.g. developing internet access, roads, logistical platform). They also provide lifelong learning opportunities and experts' advice on agronomic aspects (e.g. advice on agronomic aspects, environmental practices, accountancy, or advice on farm succession, etc.).

Among practices acting at this stage, our sample includes CSA networks supporting the commercialisation of agroecological farms (ASAT, Solawi Network Germany), as well as practices that act on other parts of the pathway but prolong their support by developing local brands and local food outlets (Fundatia ADEPT, Floral life community in Patka, Stadsakker Tienen, Culra Créafoig), by promoting a change in eating habits or encouraging local consumption (Mouans-Sartoux), and by promoting innovative and diversified forms of farming (Culra Créafoig, Ille-et-Vilaine...). Table 6 in the Annex III synthesises these practices and the issues they are addressing.

**Box 9. Practices at the downstream level :**  
**supporting commercialisation through CSA**

Since the 1990s (even though the concept is historically older), community-supported agriculture (CSA) has strongly developed in Europe. The forms may vary according to the context, but the central principle consists in having a small number of individuals (usually a few tens) gathering around one or more producers and who commit themselves, often for a year, to buy the production of the producer with whom they contract. It allows, for the farmer, to get better remuneration by avoiding having intermediate actors between them and the consumers, to be able to plan the production for a long period and to assume the risks linked to the production collectively with a group of consumers. For the consumers involved, it is both a good way to support small scale farming and to get to know issues around agriculture (some might help the farmer who is supplying them during work peaks for example). The collaboration between members of the CSA and the farmer is usually based on the transparency of costs, in order to collectively determine a decent income for the farmer, and the harvest is often partly or completely financed in advance.

**ASAT (Association for support of peasant agriculture, Romania)**

- ASAT is a network organised at the national level, which helped the arrival of new small-scale farmers offering direct sales and vegbox deliveries, mostly in urban areas.
- The network also developed because of a significant mistrust from urban consumers in the ecological standards of production for eco-certified vegetables in supermarkets.
- Between 14 to 30 small-scale producers were supported between 2014 and 2020, responding to the needs of more than 300 citizens.
- The ASAT farms organised themselves to integrate a lump sum for unpredictable necessities (e.g.: broken material or unexpected costs during the season) in their budget, which takes the stress from the farmers' planning, acting as a safety net.
- The contract between producer and consumers also stipulates that in case of natural calamity or crop failure which could not have been prevented by ecological methods, the consumers can accept a different harvest from that originally planned.
- ASAT farmers are periodically supported to exchange practices among each other. They are in touch by phone or online on a producers' group and they have been meeting physically at national gatherings.

These practices are connected to the question of “access to land” because they improve farm viability, which is a condition to maintain secure and long-term access and to preserve independent agroecological farmers. If farmers are not able to keep their activity because of low incomes and uncertainties, the efforts invested in gaining physical access to land in the first place are ultimately lost (for the farmer and for future generations as well).

These practices also allow the development of some plots of land (e.g. around 1 hectare for a market gardener) that could not be developed otherwise. This can have a long-term effect on the ability to maintain small and independent farms, which no longer structurally need to expand to remain viable. It can also have a positive repercussion on transmission, as established farmers may consider their farm as a more viable and transmissible structure in the long run due to the existence of better “downstream” support.

Additionally, practices acting at the downstream level are key in making the farming profession more attractive to new entrant farmers, as they allow achieving better product value, developing the social dimension of farming through (notably through relationships with consumers and local inhabitants) and reinforce local networks of support around new entrants. New entrants can feel more secure to start a project with consumers engaged for their first year, and sometimes paying for the harvest in advance.

Finally, many CSAs have been at the forefront of access to land work in partnership with land trusts, cooperatives or foundations, with whom they defend a common model of sustainable agriculture and seek to reinforce local food supply chains. In the case of Lurzaindia, for instance, it is not rare that the local CSA network (Inter Amap Pays Basque, involved in the Lurzaindia trust's governance) mobilise its members to participate to the acquisition of land. More synergies between CSAs and access to land work are described in the Access to Land Network and Urgenci handbook on the topic (Access to Land 2017b).

### 3.6 Synthesis: locating the practices along the access to land pathway

The following diagram (figure 5) specifies at which levels of the access to land pathway the different land practices are positioned. Lines of the same colour correspond to practices from the same country. The thick part of each line corresponds to the central activity of the practice. There are fewer practices involved in the downstream and upstream stages of the pathway than practices centred on the three middle stages: accessibility of land, steering of land control towards sustainable uses and securing access to land.

Out of the 64 practices, 24 focus on three or more blocks of the access to land pathway, the others focus on one or two blocks only. The practices addressing many dimensions of the pathway are mainly located in the countries where more practices were documented. On the basis of this result only, we can hardly know if this is because the most mature practices (who had more time to develop integrated approaches) are found in these countries or whether the work on access to land is more specialised in other countries.

Concerning practices that have made collective land acquisition a central focus of their activity (see practices mentioned in box 6), most of them are involved in most or all of the blocks. We could make the hypothesis that their shared goal to manage land as a 'common', through collective acquisition tools, brings the actors of the practices to work on all blocks of the pathway in order to:

- ensure both a long term and a sustainable use of the land acquired;
- build on their practice to initiate a transformation of land governance;
- increase their level of activity and the types of acquisition they can make.

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

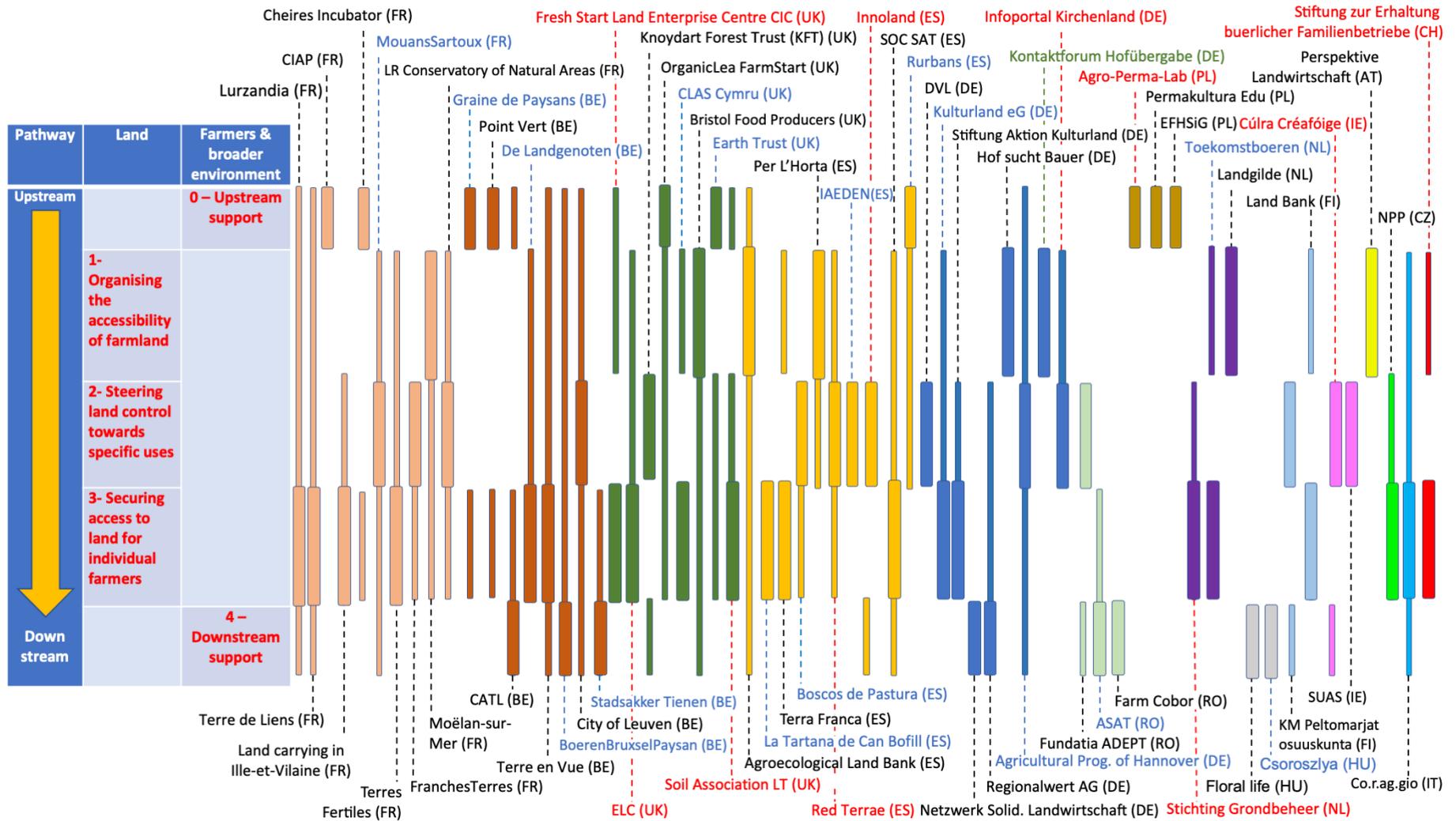


Figure 5 - Position of the 64 practices along the "access to land pathway"

## 4 Main results

### 4.1 The “type of land” as a key driver regarding the way these practices are implemented

#### 4.1.1 Land areas impacted by the practices

As an exploratory exercise in quantifying the impact of innovative land practices the questionnaire gathered figures relating to a number of local results from their work.<sup>7</sup> This data is approximated or incomplete in many cases and, given the diverse nature of the practices, not comparable. Nevertheless, some tentative insights on the area of land impacted by these initiatives show that depending on the practice and its functions, the amount of land impacted varies.

We can distinguish between direct impact on land (e.g. land bank acquires land) and indirect impact (e.g. actions result in agricultural land being protected from development). Thus, the practices at the upstream level (farm incubators, farmstart programmes) tend to have a “direct impact” on small areas of land (e.g. 3 to 10 hectares in the case of incubators with fixed locations). Their indirect impact, however, concerns more land (e.g. the farmstart programme by OrganicLea in the UK used 7 sites for a total of 10 ha in 2017, but a total of 23 new farmers gained access to the land via OrganicLea—a broader indirect impact on land). These practices’ main objective is training rather than land acquisition.

Logically and by contrast, practices focused on land acquisition (e.g. land banks, trusts or cooperatives) impact larger areas of land. This however varied greatly depending the practice (from 25 to 5,750 hectares). This variation can be explained by many factors such as difference in land prices among countries, more or less strong local opposition or support for the emergence of the practice, the level of intervention (national, regional or local), the length of existence of the practice, etc.

Finally, some of the practices promoting land stewardship achieve the protection of large areas (490 hectares included in a land association created by a the natural conservatory in South of France; 875 hectares of woodlands accessible for grazing to prevent wildfires in Catalonia; 15,000 hectares protected under stewardship agreements by the 173 members of the German landcare network Deutscher Verband für Landschaftspflege e.v.). This impact, however, is often tied to agreements with a high number of owners. The specific status of the land, with specific environmental interest and issues, is key for these practices to deploy on this amount of land and often unlocks the possibility to access specific means and funding.

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<sup>7</sup> 1. Number of hectares acquired/ protected/ impacted; 2. Number of new entrants supported/ impacted; 3. Number of other beneficiaries supported/ impacted; 4. Number of other beneficiaries supported/ impacted; 5. Number of full-time jobs supported; 6. Number of part-time/ seasonal jobs supported; 7. Number of citizens (e.g. unpaid community actors) involved.

#### 4.1.2 Characterising the “type of land” considered

Our analysis of the practices thus distinguishes a central aspect in explaining their development and impact: the **type of land** on which they are initially deployed. We can characterise the type of land through at least four main determinants: 1 - The geographical location; 2 - The nature of the land use at the time of its identification (5 categories proposed); 3 - The nature of the ownership of this land (5 categories); 4 - The social distance existing between the actors responsible for the land transfer (user/owner) and the innovative practice itself.

1- The geographical location of the land could be detailed through numerous factors (topography, pedo-climatic conditions, etc.). Concerning the information we have on the practices, however, we can only discriminate among three different categories: land located in **predominantly urban areas**, in **intermediate areas**, or in **predominantly rural areas**.

2- Concerning the nature of land use at the time it is identified by the practice, the five following categories can be extracted from the analysis:

- a) **Land used for “conventional” farming practices**, i.e. where productivity-oriented agriculture is practiced and where farmers are often forced to substitute labour with capital (so that they may need to expand their farms).
- b) **Land used for sustainable practices**, i.e. used for a type of agriculture which focuses less on increasing the material productivity of labour, usually by relying on a better direct valorisation of the production and/or diversification (rather than expansion).
- c) **Land the use of which is still undetermined**, i.e. land which is in a status of awaiting another use (potentially urban) and which can be subject to transitional management (agricultural or non-agricultural) before the final determination of its use is decided.
- d) **Abandoned land**: land that is left fallow, for different reasons.
- e) **Land managed as a natural resource**, i.e. land which is under specific management linked to specific environmental objectives. The ecological services that agroecological agriculture can provide may be used to support that management.

3- In addition to the particular use that is made and will be made of agricultural land, one of the other central dimensions of this land is the identity of the owner. On this point, we can distinguish at least five types of owners which greatly structure the way in which the practices implement their approaches: public landowners, commons, non-farming private owners, farming private owners, non-profit private owners (foundations, community farmland trusts, churches...).

4- Finally, the social distance existing between the actors responsible for the land transfer (user/owner) and the innovative practice itself can be more or less important. Characterising that distance is important to understand whether or not a practice was able (or unable) to reach a specific type of land because of interpersonal relationships (or lack thereof) with the user/owner.

These four determinants can all impact both the land price and the level of competition in land transfers (two closely related aspects). Land prices obviously limit the deployment of land innovations. While country contexts are heterogeneous, certain land price drivers are constant. In rural areas with low rates of non-agricultural land use, land agronomic value and location in relation to certain infrastructures and markets will be central drivers of its price and accessibility. In areas with a more intense urban development, farmland's potential uses and the level of protection against changes in use are important drivers of prices (independently of land's agronomic value). The size of plots has also been cited by stakeholders as a driver: in some contexts, the larger the plot, the higher the competition, as a large plot can attract buyers from other areas.

#### 4.1.3 How the “type of land” impacts the development of innovative practices

Our analysis reveals that the four characteristics used to characterise the type of land operate as interdependent factors explaining the different rationalities and strategies of actors involved in the practices.

If taking the geographical location, for instance, our quantitative analysis shows that the urban, intermediate or rural geography of the practices influences the type of actors involved in the practices and on the goals they pursue. Practices in predominantly urban or intermediate areas are for instance mostly led by local authorities while in predominantly rural areas, more ‘traditional’ agricultural groups such as “established farmers” and “farmers groups/unions” emerge among the most cited leading actors (see table 3 below). Public landowners are also by far the most cited in predominantly urban regions (70%). Meanwhile, established farmers are involved in 80% of the practices in predominantly rural areas. Finally, while in all types of areas practices cite “lack of access to land for new entrants” as one of the main challenges they seek to address, in predominantly urban areas this goes together with addressing high land prices (67%) and loss of farmland (50%). In predominantly rural areas, on the other hand, the practices target issues of abandonment of farmland and lack of transfer between generations (60% each).

<b>Most cited leading actors by practices in</b>	
Urban areas:	local authority (42%), other non-profit actors (42%), New entrants (33%)
Intermediate areas:	local authority (29%), other non-profit actors (29%), new entrants 21%
Rural areas:	established farmers (30%), other non-profit actors (30%), farmers groups/unions (20%)
<b>Most cited type of landowners in</b>	
Urban areas:	public owners (67%), followed by non-farming private owners (50%)
Intermediate areas:	farming private owners (50%), followed by public owners (36%)
Rural areas:	farming private owners (80%), followed non-farming private owners (30%)
<b>Land challenges most addressed in</b>	
Urban areas:	high land prices (67%), lack of access for NE (67%), loss of farmland (50%)
Intermediate areas:	lack of access for NE (64%), ecosystem degradation (57%) and loss of farmland (57%)
Rural areas:	abandonment of farmland (60%), lack of transfer between generations (60%); lack of access to land for NE (50%)

Table 3 - results of cross analysis of location and types of actors and challenges

When taking in conjunction all characteristics we notice some different patterns in the behaviours of actors. Some archetypical examples include:

- Established farmers involved in sustainable agriculture are socially closer to practices promoting agroecology (they are more prompt to collaborate with them or may even be leading them). These farmers are sensitive to the question of maintaining their sustainable farms and open to the idea of transmission to a new entrant with the same practices.
- Established farmers involved in conventional farming are socially not involved in the same circles as the innovative practices. They either want to avoid seeing new agricultural models developed on their territory (or want to see them emerging under certain conditions that they want to negotiate) or adopt sustainable agricultural techniques only if they are sure that the viability of their farm is preserved (i.e. are compensated financially for it).
- Some public landowners with territorial food policies are close to the practices documented or are even leading them. They might like to use the land they own in favour of new entrants or sustainable agriculture and are ready to provide advantageous conditions to do so (secure leases, low rent, support to investing in the land and start up farming, etc.), even in pressured land markets such as peri-urban or touristy/coastal areas.
- Some public landowners promote change of use of the farmland. They are socially distant with the movements promoting agroecology. Practices to prevent urbanisation may thus emerge in a conflictual environment (tools used are then civic actions, occupation, protests, etc.).

To develop more concretely the consequences related to the type of land considered, the following table presents examples of practices that were strongly influenced by the four characteristics.

Practice	Location	Initial land status	Type of owner	Social distance	Levers of the practice development
Franches Terres, France	Urban	Undetermined (abandoned urban development project)	Public owner	Leading public actor got to know farmers motivated to cultivate the land through TDL mediation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Farmland located on water-catchment area, involving very specific agricultural practices to preserve the quality of the water resource.</li> <li>- Two elected representatives socially close to TDL, active and involved in making the project successful.</li> <li>- Urban area wanting to respond to demands of inhabitants for local food (the local land plan promote a belt of “food-growing agriculture” around villages).</li> </ul>
Stichting Grondbeheer Biologisch Dynamische Landbouw (BDG), Netherlands	Urban and inter-mediate	Cultivated through sustainable methods	Farming private owners	Founder close to networks of biodynamic farmers	<p>Social proximity with biodynamic farmers and initial state of the land (cultivated sustainably) key levers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- In 1979 the first heirs of a retiring farmer handed over their land to BDG, enabling the foundation to make a start with its core activities.</li> <li>- Shared belief on rural land management and on continuity of biodynamic farming beyond individual generations.</li> <li>- A relatively important generation of biodynamic farmers facing retirement without direct successors. BDG sees that it has a role to play to match these farms with a new generation of new entrants.</li> </ul>
Languedoc Roussillon Conservatory of Natural Areas, France	Urban	Abandoned & Land as a natural resource	Non-farming private owners; non-profit owners; public owner	The municipality is a large landowner and develops agroecological projects locally	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The land is at the crossroads of many environmental stakes (rich but endangered habitats, subject to wildfire risks, etc.) and suitable for maintenance through grazing.</li> <li>- The Conservatory had specific funding to implement a conservation project on the land (compensation for infrastructure development).</li> <li>- Synergies with a socially close municipality already sensitized to the importance/function of agroecology.</li> </ul>
Cúlra Créafóige, Ireland	Rural Region	Abandoned or idle land, some with a status of special area of conservation	Farming and non-farming private owners; ethical companies	Some landowners applied to be part of the project for land rehabilitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land is not adapted to the techniques of conventional farming, which makes it suitable for other kinds of production to be fostered (traditional cultivation techniques, ancient crop varieties).</li> <li>- Small-scale micro-businesses were supported to rehabilitate small plots of land.</li> <li>- Training on specific activities were proposed and new outlets were developed to ensure the viability of new activities fostered.</li> </ul>
Infoportal Kirchenland, Germany	All types	Often cultivated by conventional farmers	Non-profit private owner (church)	Social distance between the church and the farmers using their land can vary, but some farmers are members of the church	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land belonging to the church, wishing to act as a “responsible landowner” and to encourage sustainable practices on their land.</li> <li>- The church collects and provides information, best practices, references and useful documents regarding sound soil and land management.</li> </ul>

Table 4 - Influence of the type of land on the type of actions implemented

To conclude, in broad terms, the practices do not manage to act the same way on “any kind of land”. The areas that are “the easiest” to reach for them are owned or farmed by individuals close to the practice, either because the land user/owner is aware of it (has relationships with people involved in the practice, has become aware of it through a specific event or interaction) and/or because they have goals coherent with those promoted by the practices (sustainability, rural regeneration, etc.). Hence, land that is already cultivated in organic farming, for production towards short supply chains, is more frequently leveraged by the practices we documented, as well as land that is controlled by individuals or entities close to the practices’ networks.

For some organisations/practices, land they could first reach was often of low agronomic value and/or connected to people belonging to their immediate social circle for the first operations they led. Only with time did they progressively manage to implement actions on land ‘less easy to reach’ by building multiple collaborations—for instance combining citizen involvement and partnerships with local authorities and regulation institutions—and because they had achieved greater legitimacy through previous successful acquisition and management of ‘more easily reached’ land.

However, even long-existing practices continue to experience difficulties to reach land used for agro-industrial farming in regions where land consolidation and mechanisation prevail. This dimension is important to take into consideration at macro level, to consider why some situations hardly fit in the framework of innovative land practices. This leads to questions on transferability and upscaling of land innovations: can they scale-up on the type of land they are already active on? How can they adapt depending on the type of land/context? How could these practices reach other types of land?

## 4.2 Land, a social object with human capital as a central lever

### 4.2.1 Actors involved in the innovative land practices

As the section above illustrates, land is a highly social object and type of protagonists involved in the practices may determine in large part their success. Therefore, although as previously explained our method to collect cases—mainly through the A2LN circles of partners—may have influenced the results of our study towards a large representation of non-profit actors, it remains interesting to comment on the results of the survey to better know and support the type of actors involved in these practices.

Our study collected information on the **practices' leading actors** (i.e. “the actors responsible for the development and implementation of the practice”—maximum three types of actor selected), the **practices' active partners** (i.e. all entities involved in the practices not as main implementers but as partners called upon for support on specific aspects, e.g. land agencies occasionally involved in finding land for the practice, entities providing support on specialised areas of new entrant's training, etc.), and **the type of landowners** involved in the practice. Further data was collected on the origin of actors (local or non-local), together with qualitative comments on their role in the practice.

When combining community organisations, rural development organisations, environmental organisations and “other non-profit actors”, non-profit organisations represent nearly a third of the leading actors selected in our practices. Nonetheless, the agricultural world is well represented too with 14% of leading actors being established farmers and farmers' groups/unions and 10% being new entrants in agriculture. Public actors also represent 10% of the leading actors selected, with mostly local authorities as leaders and fewer state- and regional-level entities (EU-level entities are cited as partners but not as leaders of any practice).

When considering the “active partners” category, the range of actors well represented widens. Established farmers and farmer groups/unions are cited by 41% of the practices, new entrants by 18% and farm successors by 11%. The new entrants' involvement as partners in these practices points to the necessity for them to be proactive and to start working early on the conditions of feasibility of their farm projects in order to succeed in the agricultural world. It also casts them as essential actors of innovations that promote a sustainable agricultural transition. New categories also emerge more strongly as partners of the practices e.g. local inhabitants (17%), local educational or research institutions (13%), for-profit actors (7%), and EU-level entities (3%).

Regarding landowners involved in the practices, private owners whether farming or non-farming represent a large majority (see figure 6). However, the good representation of public owners, cited by 20% of practices, must be highlighted as well. Indeed, statistically, public owners represent a small overall minority of landowners. The fact that they come out as a significant category in our sample highlights their key role and the importance for innovative practices to associate them.

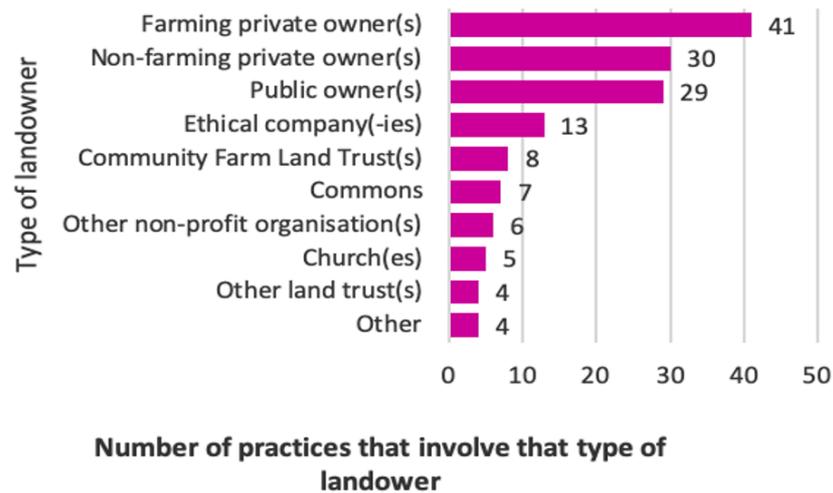


Figure 6 - Landowners involved in the practices

#### 4.2.2 Land innovations both rely on and generate human capital

Interestingly, the main “capital” practices depend on in our sample is human capital (i.e. people's talent, skills, knowledge, motivation, self-esteem, abilities, health and well-being), selected for 97% of practices against 86% for financial capital, which comes in second position. This human capital is mainly locally-anchored, with a large majority of the practices documented having leading actors qualified as “only or mostly local” (61%). The RURALIZATION conceptual guidelines highlight the importance of place-based approaches to build rural regeneration solutions sensitive to the local contexts. Local development, however, is also further reinforced through interconnections with other areas, which may provide external resources and sources of innovation. When considering practices’ “active partners”, although half of the sample remains “only or mostly local, more “mixed” origins are reported (39%) which perhaps shows that practices use partnerships to get access to external human capital missing in their own networks (e.g. appealing to other entities to provide support on specialised areas of new entrant’s training like business plan building). However, this would need to be confirmed by further analyses.

Further substantiating the importance of human capital, we observe that “training”, for instance, is a central theme in the innovations documented. Training is directed to a variety of actors. Farmers, of course, are targeted for training by practices addressing skills gaps linked to farming. This concerns both new entrants as well as established farmers, either for training in particular approaches to farming (e.g. organic, agroecology); in farm business development (e.g. gaining marketing and management skills to improve farm viability over the long term); or in other areas of farm-life (e.g. anticipating farm transmission/take-over, etc.).

The practices also target citizens interested in volunteering/supporting the practices work for training (e.g. training of TeV’s training of “farm ambassadors” who represent the organisations during events and carry out sensitising actions, training of TDL local volunteer groups to gain autonomy in instructing some land acquisition dossiers, etc.). Depending on their goals and capacity the practices may also reach other social groups, e.g. training for local authorities (to

learn about land issues and their capacity to act on it), information and training actions directed to local inhabitants (to change their food buying habits, to learn about the benefits of agroecological farming, etc.), training for private landowners (to learn about farmer/new entrants difficulties, contractualisation with farmers, etc.).

Beyond formal forms of training, the practices can help provide a more informal space supporting knowledge generation, knowledge exchange and transfer. Practices lead to peer to peer learning, among new entrants and/or established farmers and new entrants for instance. This impact is also noted among practices themselves, where they network and learn from how they operate, adapt and evolve. Therefore, formal training or more informal information/knowledge exchange actions do not only help practices broaden the base of human capital and capacities they can use but also helps achieving larger social change goals. Indeed, land issues are usually a field reserved to specialists and agricultural actors. A more aware and competent social base is a first step to involve a larger diversity of actors in caring about and acting in the land system, so that the broader paradigm may change towards a fairer and more sustainable land governance.

#### 4.2.3 Innovative land practices: bringing communities together and harnessing the value of social networks

Beyond human capital, social capital (i.e. capital embedded within organisations, wider social networks and wider informal connections) is another key level to work on complex land systems. As explained above, most practices also rely on external networks of “active partners”. They develop numerous partnerships with an average of 10.9 “active partners” selected per practice.

Looking at the diagram positioning the practices on the Access to Land pathway (figure 5), we note that those covering all or most stages of the pathway are generally developed by two types of actors: local authorities or non-profits whose core work is land (Land Trusts, Cooperative and Foundations with broad social missions and a land acquisition capacity). Both are entities who approach the land topic in an integrated manner (taking into account upstream to downstream problematics) and whose position either as major territorial actors or as “land specialists” collaborating with larger rural development networks gives them a privileged status to be able to coordinate and federate many partners.

Concerning social capital, innovative land practices harness value from collaborative networks facilitating wider rural innovation but also help build these networks and the necessary trust to work together towards shared goals. They do so by:

- *Supporting working together*, bringing different actors and institutions, with different skills and resources, together to achieve common goals related to alleviating agricultural and rural decline issues (see the high numbers of partnerships they develop).

- *Providing a vehicle to achieve goals and providing services that may not be achievable alone*. For example: land banks support retiring farmers to ensure their land and farm is preserved in farming use; CSAs facilitate consumers to support food production that matches their values; food territorial projects allow citizens to become involved in local food planning that

directs development for the common good; land stewardship practices link agriculture and conservation preservation goals.

- *Connecting otherwise socially distant communities*, e.g. bringing together retiring farmers and new entrants, landowners and farmers, environmental organisation and agricultural ones, etc. The promotion of inter-knowledge is key for the practices to reduce social distance (between the land owner/user) and strengthen trust.

- *Supporting community-embedded farms*. The practices contribute to and encourage farming that is not just a part of the economy but also the community. This is because the farms are supported by the community (e.g. 75% of shareholders at Kulturland e.G. belong to the local community around the farm, local consumers strongly support the fundraising led by Lurzaindia for the acquisition of their farms). Yet the farms also “give back” to the community, become a local resource for food, socialising, organising cultural events, etc. (e.g. the Can Bofill farm in Catalonia which has become an encounter space for social movements to reflect and organize events following cooperative-supported land acquisition).

- *Experimenting with social innovation and innovative forms of governance*. This is linked to implementing forms of “shared land governance”, where for instance shareholders in land trusts may have a more or less large role in orienting the decisions about land management. Our observations also highlight the core issue of the governance of the practices themselves and in the partnerships they develop, with values promoted around bottom-up, multi-partner, horizontal governance (or at least governance involving consultation, concertation or co-construction). Stakeholders consulted insisted on the fact that most of these land innovations rely on the importance of networking in “warm” peer-to-peer networks in civil society, opposed to “cold” formal networks in politics, even if these two networks have to work together in the long run in reshaping land governance.

To conclude, these innovations succeed in widening the community of people involved in land and farming issues. This is a more or less affirmed goal depending on the practice, but the figures are illustrative of this: 30,000 consumers involved in the CSA network Solawi, over 30,000 citizens involved as donors, members and shareholders in the national organisation Terre de Liens, over 3,500 shareholders involved in the regional Lurzaindia, 1,200 shareholders involved in the Terres Fertiles real estate company (SCI) to buy 20 ha in the Paris areas, 250 regular funders and 1,000 shareholders in the De Landgenoten cooperative, 1,400 for the Wallonia counter-part Terre-en-Vue, 670 shareholders in Kulturland and 800 in Regionalwert, 2,800 people reached with educational activities by the BoerenBruxselPaysan project, 300 consumers in the ASAT CSA network in Romania, 4,000 individuals and 1,000 organisations involved in Coop57, a Spanish cooperative of ethic financial services that is now exploring the de-commodification of land and buildings, and the list goes on. Whether remotely or closely involved in the organisations, the citizens who support and take part in this work form a “critical mass” of individuals who become involved as agents of change in an otherwise very exclusive land system.

## 4.3 Land as a lever for rural regeneration

### 4.3.1 Innovative practices providing an integrated response to land and rural issues

The quantitative data allows us to start characterising the systemic nature of land actions. Nearly half of the practices, either by choice or necessity, tackle multiple scales of intervention (from local to international level). They also address a high number of land challenges, with an average of 7 challenges selected per practice. This substantiates the idea that land challenges are interconnected and a practice often needs to combine different areas of work along the “access to land pathway” to address them. The most addressed land challenges are: lack of access to land for new entrants (70%), high land prices (50%), ecosystem degradation (45%), limited land for rent (41%). The challenges least addressed by the practices are: lack of land data (13%), land grabbing (11%), lack of access for women (6%), and for socially marginalised groups (6%).

Beyond land challenges, the practices address a range of other local issues. They notably respond to increasing citizen demand for local food: 63% indicated they address lack of local food supply and 60% that they are designed specifically to promote agriculture for direct sale or short food supply chains. The environmental dimension is also key: 70% of the cases indicated to “address environmental degradation”, and 56% “landscape degradation”. Economic issues were targeted too, including lack of economic diversity (selected by 45% of cases), lack of financial capital, and lack of jobs or quality jobs (41% each). On average, practices indicated tackling 5.6 “rural challenges” (in addition to land challenges). This is a good illustration of the multifunctionality of land practices. Land being a systemic object that impacts social organisation, environmental conditions, economics, landscapes, food, health, and so on, acting to improve its management and distribution becomes a lever to generate impacts on all these dimensions.

### 4.3.2 Renewing rural economies

There are two main ways in which the practices contribute to the rural economy. On the one hand, they have a very direct impact on job creation, economic diversification, and farm entrepreneurship. On the other hand, the practices contribute to preserving natural resources essential to the rural and primary sector economy.

Regarding the first dimension, direct economic impact of practices, our questionnaire attempted to gather data on the number of jobs created by the practices. Although this data is not very detailed nor complete, it highlights that practices, beyond **creating quality jobs** for farmers (with secured leases, chemical-free agricultural conditions, etc.), **have ripple-effects on employment** numbers in the areas where they operate. For instance, the Ille-et-Vilaine department in northwest France supported the creation of 29 farms between 2007 and 2017, but this amounted to 47 jobs as many of the farms integrated other rural activities (crafts, touristic activities). The Regionalwert activities in Germany support sustainable businesses and startups with venture capital. They currently support 23 businesses, among which seven farms, for a total of about 300 full-time jobs. The Belgian BoerenBruxselPaysans (BBP) project encouraging the development of short supply chains, processing and distribution projects supported around 20 entrepreneurs in the Brussels area, with potentially more jobs in the

sustainable supply chains fostered by these businesses. The municipality-led rehabilitation of fallow land in Moëlan-sur-mer in France resulted in the allocation of various plots, including one to Optim'ism, an association running a social reinsertion through agriculture programme. Optim'ism has created 10 remunerated "trainee" positions in the programme, with the goal for trainees to find jobs or start their own farms after completing the programme.

More generally, our analysis revealed a focus on supporting **more viable farming livelihoods**. The practices do so by fostering innovation and entrepreneurship, for instance, helping developments into innovative market niches (e.g. plants for perfumery in Mouans-Sartoux FR, orchards in Auvergne FR, ancient varieties in north-west county Donegal IR) or approaches that prove more viable on the small scale (e.g. organic horticulture focused on short supply chains). **Diversification of the rural economy and of the farms themselves** is also an important objective of the practices. This can take the form of encouraging a type of agriculture different from the norm (e.g. moving away from dominant farm types in a livestock-focused region), specific approaches to agriculture (e.g. organic, agro-ecological, multi-functional), farm sizes (developing small farms, micro farms) and organisational models (e.g. CSA, collectives, short food supply chains) making up the agricultural economy. It also means supporting diversification on the farm, with a high occurrence of farms developing agri-rural activities (e.g. pedagogical or touristic activities, cultural events, craftsmanship, etc.) as well as processing activities to better value the farm products (e.g. bread or cheese-making, soap-making with herbal plants, etc.).

Concerning the other type of contribution of practices, i.e. preserving essential natural resources, this is important because, as highlighted in the RURALIZATION conceptual guidelines, agriculture can be a lever of rural regeneration but, conversely, can also be implicated in problems of rural decline and notably environmental decline (when agricultural activities deplete or pollute natural resources, or degrade ecological infrastructures and landscapes) (Murtagh *et al.* 2020b). Therefore, practices encouraging a regenerative and environmentally resilient agriculture preserve over the long term the natural capital which is the bedrock of rural economies. The practices do so either formally (environmental leases, land stewardship contracts, selecting candidates with organics projects) or informally (training farmers in sustainable practices, sensitising to the benefits of agroecology...). A few examples of how they contribute to the regeneration of this natural capital include:

- Restoration of degraded environments (notably degraded wetlands and abandoned meadows) and improved biodiversity through managing ponds, hedges, meadows, etc. by the IAEDEN land stewardship association (working with farmers for nature conservation in Spain).
- 500 ha of damaged grasslands restored and another 20,000 ha of grassland better protected through the Fundatia ADEPT's farmers trainings and through the securing rewards for farmers who restore their land in Romania.
- Collecting rainwater, using species adapted to dry environments, promoting low impact farming, adopting organic certification standards in the Co.r.ag.gio cooperative in Italy (similar to many other farms documented in the sample).
- Ecological assessment of commonage sites and co-developed management plans to avoid historic issues of uncontrolled burning and over-grazing that have degraded the land and to

improve land and habitat quality by the Sustainable Uplands Agri-environment Scheme (SUAS) in Ireland.

- Wildfire management through grazing in forests, accompanied by a monitoring of pastureland and forest vegetal biodiversity and water systems biodiversity to adapt herd management measures in the Boscos de Pastura project (Catalonia).
- Reflection on circular economy by the Red Terrae network so that consumers can give back to farmers the organic waste to be composted or to feed pigs or poultry. The goal is also to reduce local taxes or spending on waste management, reduce waste transport, guarantee cheaper fertilizers, reduce carbon footprint, etc.

#### 4.3.3 Land as a lever for generational renewal

The impacts of innovative land practices in relation to reviving the rural economy, preserving the environment, and fostering innovation and entrepreneurship already contribute to creating a more promising context for agricultural generational renewal. These practices also have more direct impacts that support a new generation of farmers and that is the focus here. Again, a number of patterns are observed relating to how these practices contribute to this:

- *The practices facilitate increased farming opportunities for new entrants through training and advisory services (upstream actions).* If considering the numbers of new entrants welcomed in farm incubators in our sample these vary from a minimum of 6 (in the orchard incubator of les Cheires, FR) up to 34 (involved in the OrganicLea FarmStart programme, UK). However, when considering practices providing advice and support to farmers in a broader sense, we reach much larger numbers, e.g. approximately 1,200 new entrants supported and advised by Fresh Start Land Enterprise Centre CIC (UK), between 1,500 and 2,000 new entrants advised every year by Terre de Liens (FR). When considering agricultural schools, the rates of students that choose to enter farming after completing the programmes are also important : 19 of the 33 participants who completed the Polish EFHSiG 2-year courses since 2015 are now active in fields related to farming, 94 of the 202 students who have gone through the School of Shepherds now professionally active in the sector...

- *The practices directly offer land to new entrants to facilitate farm set up.* This concerns the practices acting in block 3 of the access to land pathway (securing land for individual farmers). There again, the numbers vary depending on how long the practices have been active for with 502 active farmers (most of whom new entrants) on TDL farms, 8 farms totalling 19 new entrants on Stiftung Aktion Kulturland land (linking organic farming with nature conservation), 21 new entrants on land owned by the Ecological Land Coop UK, 57 agreement with new entrants fostered by the Red Terrae network of municipal land banks, etc. These practices do not provide easier access to land, but also enable new entrants to start farming with less debt (no investment required to buy the land) and to benefit from the support networks they organise around farms.

- The practices support increased levels of farm succession. For some practices this is their direct, major goal, for others they support this more widely. Regarding results of those focused on connecting farmers and successors, for instance, the Kontaktforum Hofübergabe helps around 40 new entrants and 40 retiring farmers meet each year in an annual event, the Perspektive Landwirtschaft (AT) online platform matching retiring farmers and potential successors benefited to 30 new entrants since 2017, and the Swiss Stiftung zur Erhaltung

buerlicher Familienbetriebe, accompanies about 40-50 farms in extra-family farm succession per year, including 30-40 farms receiving loans per year. This provides an entry route for new entrants into farming and solutions to one of the major rising issues in many European countries facing diminished rates of intra-familial succession.

More broadly, the practices improve the general environment that new entrants exist in. This is about providing economic opportunities, as explained above, but also promoting forms of farming that prove more attractive to new entrants (chemical-free, community-connected, etc.) and improving local vibrancy, as the practices develop/revive food cultures (e.g. local food, traditional varieties), create new meeting spaces for different communities, and overall contribute to making rural areas attractive to new generations from a wider social and cultural viewpoint. Beyond this, there are numerous practices that also advocate at macro-level for policies supporting new entrants.



## 5 Discussion: issues of transfer and upscale of innovative land practices

When considering the potential for transfer and upscaling of these practices, several central dimensions can be developed based on the main results of this study and on the transformation of agricultural models ignited by these innovations. We will develop four main levers for upscale of practice in the following sections:

- strengthening human capital for successful practices;
- adapting land regulation to new entrants and to new collective management models where land is no longer necessarily part of the farmers' capital;
- giving new means and prerogatives to local authorities so that they can work on access to land for a transition of agricultural models;
- adapting the CAP framework to foster these practices and favour the transition of agricultural models.

These broad aspects are potential solutions, but at this stage are not meant to be interpreted as firm political recommendations, which will be developed later on in the project. Of course, the way in which these levers can be activated will vary across national contexts. Moreover, some of these statements are certainly more relevant in the contexts which were most documented through the practices collected (North-Western Europe). However, a certain number of observations could be valid throughout Europe.

### 5.1 Strengthening human capital

Strengthening human capital—which is linked to increasing skill-levels of individuals or transferring skills or motivation to new individuals—is the result of several transformations at work in or revealed by innovative land practices. This includes:

- the fact that new actors, often not coming from the agricultural sector, are entering into the governance of the “land system” and need to master its logic and issues;
- the fact that the transfer of farm ownership is no longer necessarily carried out within the family in certain contexts, so that the question of the training of future farmers, which used to be taken over "voluntarily" within the family, must now be addressed by new learning trajectories which must be financed;
- the fact that the growing involvement of some local authorities in these topics requires training staff of local or regional authorities on new cross-cutting work approaches.

Indeed, as we have seen, the land system is complex and the energy and skills to be deployed by volunteers or staff to get involved in it is important (especially when they integrate new land governance bodies or support new entrants). This reinforcement of human capital, as well as the facilitation of new networks of actors, must be funded.

The fact that transmission and learning increasingly happens outside of the family environment requires putting new infrastructures and services in place to shape the farming

human capital of tomorrow (e.g. paying farmers or technicians supervising future farmers during their test period).

As far as local authority officials are concerned, working on agricultural and food issues requires often creating new departments or connections between administrations that did not use to work together, e.g. building bridges between land departments and economic, or water management or ecology departments (when agriculture becomes a way to preserve natural resources). It also requires time and effort to articulate public actions with agricultural actors, e.g. working hand-in-hand with agricultural chambers or farmer unions on territorial diagnosis, putting publicly-handled cafeteria or catering services directly in touch with local producers, etc.

Of course, strategies to adopt must be sensitive to the local contexts and histories. For example, in Eastern countries, people might be more attached to property after the collectivisation period and might not feel spontaneously confident about practices promoting collective acquisitions. In this case, a lot of human capital may be needed to build alternatives from scratch (since reusing models developed elsewhere would not work) or to engage in long-term campaigning to change collective perceptions on property.

## 5.2 Adapting land regulation to new entrants and taking into account the fact that land may no longer be part of the farm's capital

On the issue of land, at least two central dimensions must be taken into account:

- 1 - the question of regulating land transfers in favour of new entrants and agroecology
- 2 - the question of the status of land within farms in new models of land management

Regarding the first point, a transition of agricultural models involves the ability to welcome new entrants without agricultural background. In many European contexts, this means moving away from the social logics that govern land transfers (traditionally mainly managed within the agricultural profession or within farming families) to move towards more open transfer logics, allowing the arrival of new players.

Given the variety of land transfers regulations among European countries, the measures to be implemented would require a case-by-case analysis. We can however specify, at a more general level, that land transfers are usually too fast, and therefore not adapted to the temporality of new entrants (who need time to gather money for the purchase for instance). They are also too secret, and thus not sufficiently accessible to individuals outside agricultural circles.

To palliate problems of temporality on the land market, "land carrying" practices (consisting of intermediaries temporarily buying land before retroceding it to the new entrants) seem to be promising but require a certain number of local preconditions to be implemented:

- having an adequate entity to play the role of temporary land holder (land agency, local authority, etc.)
- the possibility of organising a mediation to achieve the land transfer, preferentially with political guidelines on the choice of the final buyer (e.g. a farmer proposing sustainable practices)
- the possibility of bearing the management costs related to these transactions (mediation work, administrative costs of temporary purchase operations, etc.)
- the possibility of guaranteeing the successful completion of these operations (e.g. anticipating for the possible of withdrawal of a new entrant beneficiary).

As these kinds of land carrying options do not exist in most contexts, land transfers might be successful only with strong cooperation/understanding between the transferor(s) and the receiver(s).

The issue of secrecy of agricultural transactions, is connected to a more general trend of consolidation of farm holdings. The drivers of consolidation are complex and numerous, and cannot be analysed in the scope of this study. Yet the result is that pressures pushing farms to increase in size can incite land market actors to socially “lock-in” information on land transfers. As a result, not everyone can take a position on this market (depending on their status, their social position, etc.).

Taking measure to intervene on land transfers—for instance using pre-emption to determine who can ultimately buy the land—and on land prices—e.g. having an agency able to cancel transfers if prices are too high—seems to be an important prerequisite to ensure generational renewal. The generalisation of an institution such as the SAFER, as it was set up in France, could be a valuable source for consideration for other national contexts in Europe. While this would of course require adaptations to the local realities, the main principles of interventions on land transfers and prices, combined with a systematic observation of land markets can be replicated. An important lesson from the French experience is that this type of institution is expected to work better in the framework of shared governance between agricultural and non-agricultural actors and with clear objectives concerning prioritising of sustainable agricultural models and generational renewal for better results (the lack of which have impeded the realisation of the full SAFER potential to favour new entrants). The SAFER action has also been undermined by the fact that the way different kinds of land transfers (transfers of leases, farmland property and company shares) are regulated is not harmonised and do not follow the same rules.

Such a regulation framework on land markets may also need to be combined with other indirect instruments such as tax incentives fostering the transmission of land, or tax exemptions for new farms or financial penalties against farm expansion beyond a certain surface.

Overall, the land practices documented help make available and circulate more efficiently the land information which ‘naturally’ tends to circulate (e.g.: farmers really looking for successors outside the family circle). In some cases, they also help spread a more ‘confidential’ information (urban projects abandoned, unfair land prices, etc.). Yet, even for them, a large number of the transfers remains in a blind zone. Furthermore, were those transfers to be known, few existing structures would have the capacity to take up these land opportunities, as competition on transfers is too intense.

The second point highlights that in the new agricultural models induced by some innovative land practices (in particular those which develop collective land acquisition tools), farmers are no longer able to use the land as an asset, as it is owned by the collective. This dimension changes the farmers' economic model at different stages: for example, at the time of setting up, the land (which is no longer the property of the farmer) cannot be used as a collateral to get a loan to finance the rest of the farm's capital. This connects more broadly to the question of the lack of appropriate financial tools for new entrants. Indeed, land acquisition is not the only investment they have to make, and land acquisition might only be possible or desirable if the rest of the investments (material, stocks, etc.) can be financed. For these investments the lack of collateral reduces the ability to get a loan.

Later, when a farmer working on collectively or publicly owned land retires, they cannot sell the land as a way to put money aside for retirement. This connects more broadly to the question of the social organisation of the agricultural profession.

Finally, the development of these new models of long-term land carrying (through collective acquisition tools) induce a form of professionalization of the landowner's activity. An activity which had hitherto been carried out on a "voluntary" basis, namely the regulation of the relationship between the landowner and the tenant, is now managed by institutions that have to bear the management costs (work of employees) and the maintenance costs of acquired buildings, inducing new economic balances. How can affordable rental prices for new farmers be maintained while bearing the costs of this professionalisation of farmland management? (especially in countries where this price is not regulated) Should new financing channels be developed to support the improvement of rural buildings? These are new questions raised by these new land property models.

Moreover, in many areas, and for different reasons, access to land does not happen through land acquisition but through access to leases. In these cases, cooperatives and foundations acquiring land are not an adequate tool. In this specific case, ensuring the use of land towards sustainable practices without mastering land itself is a complex issue, as it is rare that tools ensuring specific practices on private land exist. And even if they exist, these tools are difficult to implement, often requiring financial incentives and/or convincing private landowners to take part in the land preservation scheme. Private landowners have a role to play in the lease transfers, although this role can be limited by legal frameworks that may not allow them to choose the identity of the tenant (e.g. when heirs have priority on leases). Nevertheless, both sensitising landowners to rent land to new entrants and informing them about the scope of their rights (e.g. the possibility to sign land stewardship agreements with farmers) is a promising lever to support access to land for agroecology.

## 5.3 Fostering the role of local authorities to favour the transition of agricultural models

### 5.3.1 Dealing with the coexistence of several agricultural models at the local level

The development of land innovations promoting agroecology necessarily lead to questions, much discussed in the literature about the coexistence of agricultural models (Petit *et al.* 2018; Gasselin 2017; Hervieu and Purseigle 2015). The term “coexistence” has sometimes been criticised for artificially softening the conflictual reality of certain agrarian situations. For example, Catalonia has a significant intensive pig industry, generating important amounts of manure and leading pig companies to buy farmland with the sole purpose of optimising their manure management by spreading it on the land bought. Beyond the negative impacts on soil and on groundwater systems, this generates very high competition on farmland which leaves small room to small-scale agroecological projects. This type of dynamic can be observed in all areas dominated by farms that are particularly involved in concentration dynamics.

In these situations, access to land work can lead to frictions that might be difficult to solve at the territorial level (Sonnino and Marsden 2006). This includes:

- the need to re-design infrastructures (shared equipment, regional slaughterhouse, milk collection services, etc.) in a more integrative way (leading either to dual infrastructures or to the establishment of infrastructures taking into account small-scale farming constraints);
- the existence of different food chains lengths and level of standardisation which could lead to different kinds of specifications on food production and more flexible and adaptive ways to regulate food supply chains
- the need to address potential negative impacts on equal access to quality food for consumers (leading to unequally distributed health risks);
- the need for local governments to take a more directive role in food systems functioning (while some of them express the desire to do so, most of them lack technical skills and human and financial resources).

### 5.3.2 Towards a reinforcement of the role of local authorities on agriculture and food policies?

What some of the case studies reveal is that local authorities can be, in some cases, interesting partners to work on access to land. This statement should however be tempered, as this is a situation mostly observed in the French, Belgian, Spanish or German practices. In certain European contexts these working habits may not have been triggered so far or may turn out to be very complex if the relations between local authorities and civil society are not based on trust and habits of cooperation. In Southern Europe, some practices were even initiated as a result of acute tensions with public authorities (e.g. Co.r.ag.gio in Italy, Per l'Horta in Spain), due to disagreements on the sale of public land or opposition to proposed changes in the use of certain land plots.

However, a reinforced role for local authorities may still appear desirable to build the capacity of certain practices. Indeed, depending on the regulatory framework, these authorities can:

- arbitrate on the changes in land use;
- reflect on the use of the public land they own and buy new land;
- fulfil a role consisting in maintaining the quality of their natural capital (soil, water, forests...) by promoting organic farming in specific areas;
- facilitate the territorial dialogue on land and food territorial policy among actors;
- participate in driving local demand for local and quality production;
- possibly invest in tools for processing local production.<sup>8</sup>

Nevertheless, the activity of local authorities in this area is still too marginal, and the link between the food-related goals they often put forward (e.g. supplying school restaurants with local or organic food) and the necessary land actions associated to these goals is not always made. Clear objectives, as well as legal and financial means, should be the basis for a strengthening of the role of local authorities in the agricultural transition and in access to land.

The direction of the actions to be taken could take the form of:

- a systematisation of the method to set up territorial food projects, making the link with land issues;
- a reflection on introducing a right to pre-empt farmland for such territorial food projects (if this right does not already exist);
- a systematisation of reflections on the use of public lands (justified by the fact that public land could participate in fostering multifunctional impacts of sustainable land use);
- a reinforcement or the creation of local authorities' networks to exchange on good practices at a national and European level to gather support in the process of adopting or changing methods to work on land issues;

Local food policies with the aim to reinforce rural regeneration and multifunctionality of agriculture could be strengthened if they were built together with a greater number of local and regional organisations with integrated approaches to these issues. Indeed, these local food policies could be considered as a gateway to:

- promote analyses combining downstream approach (consumption and distribution of agricultural production) and land issues;
- frame land issues in relation to local and national civic initiatives, in order to reduce the distance between citizens and agriculture.

Food policies can also be an interesting frame to encourage local economic actors to work on access to land issues. As an example, farming cooperatives could generalise the practice of having a person in charge of fostering, mediating and accompanying land transmissions among cooperatives' members.

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<sup>8</sup> The A2LN manual "Supporting access to land for farmers in Europe. Experiences and potential of local authorities" provides even more information on the role of local and regional authorities for access to land (Rodrigo and Rioufol 2017).

## 5.4 Common agricultural policy and Access to Land

Concerning how the Common Agricultural Policy could foster or avoid hindering the practices depicted in this report: the question is too broad to be explored in-depth in this report. We can however distinguish different issues in the two CAP pillars.

Concerning the first pillar, the way direct subsidies to farms work is considered by some stakeholders as having a generally negative impact on the land market. Yet, if directed differently, first pillar payments could perhaps help ensuring the viability of small-scale farms. For this, the subsidies should follow different aims and rules, for instance:

- Firstly, by shifting subsidies from benefiting mostly farms involved in land concentration (often farms which cater to international cereal or dairy markets, subject to strong competition and strong prices volatility) in order to incentivise a change in their production model towards other more sustainable and diversified value chains (potentially allowing to reduce the farm size necessary to achieve viability).
- Secondly, these subsidies can foster rent-seeking behaviours by landowners or older farmers who keep a low level of agricultural activity on the land to continue benefitting from CAP payments. Thus, ensuring that subsidies are directed to truly active farmers and determining a maximum age for beneficiaries could be a way to prevent these situations and favour land mobility.

For some stakeholders, CAP payments are also problematic because they can contribute to a general increase in land prices (as they increase the value that can be drawn from the land). However, stakeholders do not necessarily suggest that subsidies should be reduced, but rather redirected to support more sustainable farming systems and smaller farms (which leaves open the thorny question of the link between subsidies and land prices).

Concerning the second pillar, it combines subsidies that go to farms (like agri-environmental measures) and subsidies (like the LEADER funds) that can finance territorial actors working on rural development issues.

- Concerning agri-environmental measures, the subject is complex and cannot be explored in-depth, but a general comment is that some of these measures are not very ambitious in terms of ecological practices and often do not offer the long term visibility needed to induce structural and ambitious changes in practices (as measures change from one CAP to another). Both these aspects (level of ambition and long-term visibility) could be enhanced.
- Concerning LEADER funds: if LAGs (Local Action Groups influencing the use of LEADER funds) were better able to diagnose local situations and know about the diversity of practices favouring access to land for agroecology in Europe, they could potentially foster the use of LEADER funds to promote or upscale them.

## 5.5 Working towards policy solutions to favour these practices

This study is a first step in RURALIZATION's work on land innovations and is not aimed at making policy recommendations. Furthermore, our method to document practices limits the ability to do so, since we did not request detailed information on national contextual aspects of practice. To illustrate the importance of national contextual aspects, we can take the example of Terre de Liens, a practice which allowed the acquisition of several thousand hectares in France. Several contextual factors favoured the emergence of Terre de Liens including a fairly strong land regulation framework, combined to tax rules incentivising solidarity-based finance (which strengthened the capacity of the organisation to raise money for land purchase).

The existence of actors working to encourage the arrival of new entrants is therefore not sufficient for innovative practices to emerge. Among the macro/meso elements of context which influence the emergence and implementation of practices we can cite:

- land transfers regulation frameworks (including intervention on land sales or lease transfers and potential land carrying);
- policies fostering the development of foundations or land-purchasing cooperatives/social enterprise (e.g. fiscal incentives);
- national or local funding schemes for rural/environmental networks supporting new entrants and agroecology;
- land planning aimed at preserving agricultural land;
- land stewardship policies (and associated funding) to improve management of sensitive natural resources through agriculture;
- national policies to foster and finance local authorities implementing territorial food projects.

More generally, policy solutions to ensure scaling up of innovative land practices could integrate two aspects: 1) changes in policies concerning the overall framework in which these practices evolve (land policies, EU and national agricultural policies, etc.) and 2) changes in policies at the more local level to alleviate the concrete problems these practices face.

Some of these policies or logics already exist in some countries, but would deserve to be transferred to other contexts, with necessary adaptations. Tables 5 and 6 show that distinct policy options can be associated to each block of the access to land pathway.

Given the systemic nature of land, specific attention should be given to avoiding adverse effects. For instance, the scaling up of former niche practices and former niche markets leads to issues that must be anticipated, for instance possibly reinforcing competition among small-scale farmers and in turn drive down prices of quality products and reduce the economic attractiveness of quality-oriented production. If we take the example of the organic farming label: competition between organic products can lead to neglecting certain dimensions of sustainable development and/or lead to political pressure to modify organic specifications (which can, in turn, potentially erode the reliability of the label and generate a degradation of the whole organic products sector).

In any case, the first step to scale-up and support these initiatives is a recognition by policy makers of the importance of small-scale and agroecological farms for rural regeneration and for society at large. As such, a multidimensional characterisation of the positive impacts of these farms as well as the negative impacts of the dominant agricultural model can guide a transformation of the policy framework.

## D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	General public policies involved	Levers/actions for RR and GR
<b>Upstream</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agricultural education policies</li> <li>- Agricultural policies connected to the support of new farmers (and their ability to take into account gradual setting up)</li> <li>- Economic policies</li> <li>- Local/national policies financing rural development/social economy networks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-educational programmes in agriculture to include more education on AE/organic farming</li> <li>- agricultural education targeted to NE to include more time for professional experience on farms (to build a network, test the reality of farm work over the long term, acquire experience in dealing with specific soil and climate conditions...)</li> <li>- train the people working in advisory services on alternative agricultural models</li> <li>- coherent and long term strategy of funding towards rural networks supporting future farmers participating to the transition of farming models</li> </ul>
<b>Organising the accessibility of farmland (in general)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Urban planning policies</li> <li>- Land policies (land consolidation, land recultivation...)</li> <li>- Land market policies (regulations of land transfers)</li> <li>- Environmental policies (preservation of habitats, etc.)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- policies subsidising the rehabilitation of abandoned land by NE and/or by local authorities</li> <li>- policies discouraging the change of use or land speculation through high taxation for developments on agricultural land, and or taxes on abandoned agricultural land</li> <li>- urbanisation policies avoiding the developments on farmland of good agronomic quality or farmland cultivated under sustainable practices</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organising access to information about land availability: mapping, cadastres, etc</li> <li>- &amp; Improving the possibility of land transfers: mobilising private landowners, structuring land demands, connecting retiring farmers and successors...</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Information on land transfers (retirement of farmers, information on sales and rents)</li> <li>- Information on land ownership (public, private, etc.)</li> <li>- Information towards future retired farmers (agricultural policies)</li> </ul>
<b>Steering land control towards specific uses</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land planning policies</li> <li>- Land tenure policies</li> <li>- Water policies</li> <li>- Environmental policies</li> <li>- Local food policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Make possible, at least for public landowners, to integrate environmental clauses in land leases</li> <li>- Consider organic farming as an appropriate land use to preserve water in water catchment areas</li> <li>- Reinforce the means of local authorities to pilot local food programs and condition these means to specific objectives</li> <li>- Favour the transfer of land which was used for organic farming towards organic farmers through land regulation tools</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Developing food and agricultural territorial projects to recultivate fallow land, renew generations, manage environmental risks (e.g. bush fires), preserve a cultural heritage..</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land planning policies</li> <li>- Environmental policies</li> <li>- CAP subsidies (2nd pillar)</li> </ul>
<b>Steering land control towards specific uses</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agricultural and land policies</li> <li>- Environmental policies</li> <li>- Citizenship policies</li> <li>- Research policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- foster participation of children in associations working on land issues and agricultural transition during the school period</li> <li>- integrate citizens/associations in institutions regulating land uses and land transfers</li> <li>- develop research on new land governance models at the local, regional and national scale</li> </ul>

Table 5 - policies concerned by each block of the access to land pathway and potential levers (I)

## D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

		General public policies involved	Levers/actions for RR and GR
Securing access to land for individual farmers, particularly new entrants	Providing financial capital for land and buildings: offering public land (e.g. county farms), community land acquisitions, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land market regulation policies</li> <li>- Tax policies</li> <li>- Agricultural and food policies (at the EU/national/regional level)</li> <li>- Non-agricultural policies impacting the agricultural model (trade policies at the EU scale, environmental regulations, etc.)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- provide tax exemptions for investors in solidarity investment companies or in foundations</li> <li>- sensitize local authorities to steer the use of public land towards sustainable agriculture (by anticipating the departure of farmers cultivating public land, by providing land for new entrants, etc.)</li> <li>- create financial instruments and subsidies adapted to farm set-up needs: e.g., loans available without using land as a collateral</li> <li>- condition public investments in equipment to the fact that farmers engage in a transition process</li> <li>- diminish incentives to farm expansion in agricultural policies</li> </ul>
	Offering favourable legal conditions (long-time lease, lease for community action...) – sometimes connected with specific practices (e.g. environmental clauses)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land tenure policies and laws on property in general</li> <li>- Legal framework on foundations and cooperatives</li> <li>- Agri-environment payments (usually CAP subsidies)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- make leases more secure for farmers in countries where leases contracts are unsecure</li> <li>- allow foundations or cooperatives of acquisition to propose long term leases, or even long term leases with environmental clauses</li> </ul>
	Providing land intermediation – ie. Serving as intermediary between a non-farming private owner and a farmer or a retiring farmer and a successor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- National/local agricultural policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sensitize land owners on the sustainable management of land: capitalize and disseminate practices</li> </ul>
	Organising land portage to bridge the gap between the time of sale and setting-up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land market regulation policies</li> <li>- Regional policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- foster the creation of institutional tools that allow to reduce the speed of land transfers by developing study visits of foreign actors in countries where land carrying has been developed</li> </ul>
Downstream	Supporting commercialisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fiscal, agricultural, consumption laws (with regard to CSA practices)</li> <li>- Local economic policies</li> <li>- Local food policies</li> <li>- EU agricultural/trade policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- facilitate the fiscal framework related to the implementation of CSA</li> <li>- support of local governments to develop further existing short food chains</li> <li>- generalisation of green public procurement systems</li> <li>- reinforce nutritional campaigns and consumer education</li> <li>- subsidies food programs for low-income households</li> </ul>
	Encouraging the diversification of farm activities (economic and non-economic – e.g. educational activities)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Local food policies</li> <li>- CAP subsidies (2nd pillar)</li> <li>- Tourism policies</li> <li>- Cultural policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- foster the development of territorial valorisation (for example through PGIs and PDOs)</li> <li>- strengthen support, within agricultural advisory services, for non-agricultural activities on farms</li> </ul>
	Providing lifelong learning opportunities and expert advice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agricultural education policies</li> <li>- Local and national agricultural policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- facilitate meetings and dialogue between farmers with different farming practices</li> </ul>

Table 6 - policies concerned by each block of the access to land pathway and potential levers (II)

## 6 Conclusion

### 6.1 General elements of conclusion

This report paints a picture of a diverse range of innovative land practices, operating at different scales, in different contexts and implementing different actions. What they have in common is that they are all working towards a goal of more sustainable, community-connected agriculture, in order to support rural regeneration.

This report attempts to create a framework for understanding these innovative or novel land practices, and this work will be further developed as the RURALIZATION project progresses.

#### ***Innovative Land Practices***

The 64 innovative land practices inventoried in this report are very heterogeneous, and include individual organisations and institutions, local and regional programs, networks of initiatives, and more. Yet all of them are united by a focus on transitioning away from the dominant agro-industrial, which they intend to achieve either by working with farmers (changing their practices, or supporting access for agroecological farmers), or by working to foster change in land management practices.

As this study encompasses 14 countries across Europe, it covers practices that are operating in very different contexts: in terms of social contexts, national land regulations and national and regional variations in agriculture and land use models. What is considered innovative or new will also vary from one national context to another.

#### ***The Access to Land Pathway - an analytical framework***

The report proposes the Access to Land Pathway as a way of understanding how all of these varied initiatives and practices operate in terms of increasing access to land for agricultural transition. We believe that this framework will be useful both in terms of deepening our understanding of current practices, but also in terms of helping direct new actors and new policies to support agricultural transition, and for practices themselves to understand how they act in the wider system.

The Pathway has 5 key blocks:

- 0 - upstream (pre land access) support to new entrants
- 1 - organising farmland accessibility
- 2 - prioritising sustainable and multifunctional land uses
- 3 - securing access to land for individual farmers
- 4 - downstream (post land access) support to farmers.

Despite their variability, we can position all of the innovative land practices in this framework. It can be seen either as an integrated approach to support secure access to land for agroecology, from a training or development period, through to access to land, and the support needed during the life of the farm (including what happens when that farmer stops farming). However, it is not necessarily a linear pathway and the practices we have examined

operate at different places on it—some specialise in one of the ‘blocks’ and some operate across its different elements.

Taken together all the blocks can significantly change the way land is preserved, used, accessed and passed on. Practices aiming at managing land as a “common good” (mainly through community farmland trusts) or territorial food projects, for instance, tend address all the blocks as such a change of paradigm involves long term action, acting both on immediate access to land and on anticipating future uses of land. These practices also try to build on to showcase successful alternatives which allow them to build legitimacy to better influence the ‘land system’ (figure 3) and expand on new, harder to reach, types of land.

The context in which the practices emerged have a strong influence on where on the framework they are operating and on the practices’ ability to achieve their objectives and, if desired, scale up.

### ***Implementing innovative land practices - key findings***

A key finding of this work is the extent to which successful innovative land practices rely on human and social capital. They support new people to acquire knowledge of agriculture and land governance to bolster their capacities and grow their impact. They also need to develop new kinds of partnerships and networks to keep innovating and to be able to draw resources from a variety of sectors.

Successful practices also need to be cognizant of the type of land they are looking to operate on, and the multiplicity of actors (beyond the formal owner) who have an influence over the land system in their local context. For example, land that has already been in organic cultivation is likely to have an owner that is closer to networks promoting agroecology and therefore to be supportive of approaches from innovative practices. Conversely, land that is in conventional production, or that is abandoned with a private owner that is socially distant from new land practices is likely to be harder to have an impact on.

Some of the practices we examined have much longer track records than others. Combined with the different contexts they are operating in, this means that there are varying levels of impact across the inventory of innovative practices. However, even small levels of impact are beneficial, and impact across all areas of the framework combine into more than the sum of their parts. Some of these impacts are environmental: better natural resource management, promotion of more resilient and diversified agricultural models. Some are social: linking agricultural production and social revitalisation of areas and regions through new links between farmers and other actors in the regions (consumers, local authorities, local social dynamics, etc.). Some are governance focused, including broadening the base of people interested and competent in land issues, and therefore able to question how decisions are taken in institutional bodies arbitrating on the use of land.

### ***Supporting innovative land practices in the future***

The report showcases a number of successful examples of innovative and novel land practices. Despite this picture of success, though, there are multiple barriers standing in the way of both the further development of these practices and the development of new ones.

Some of these barriers include the great need to train new and existing farmers in sustainable practices and new land governance models—something that can be costly and raise

opposition from existing farmers. Importantly, and despite the supposed “free market” in land in many countries, land transfers tend to be socially controlled by established farmers and other actors who do not always welcome the arrival of “external” players in land governance or management.

In addition, despite local authorities being a key actor in the land system, cooperation and partnership between local authorities and innovative practices can be difficult. Sometimes this is because the authorities want to support agroecological models but do not have the legal or financial means to do so. Sometimes it is because the authorities see these new models and initiatives as a threat, pushing the practices to look for partners elsewhere.

Key findings of this report have been submitted for discussion to numerous stakeholders around Europe to get their reactions on the analytical framework, the main results of this research, and options to ensure a larger impact of these practices. Most of them insisted on the fact that both a stronger regulation of land—aimed at favouring new entrants and at fostering the transition of agricultural models—and strong changes within the international political framework were needed, especially with regard to the common agricultural policy. This latter should favour small-scale and multifunctional agricultural rather than farm concentration and use the second pillar to support the up-scaling of such initiatives.

Changing the land system through promoting and enabling new agricultural models is a complex, multifaceted process, with multiple actors playing different roles, different regulatory and financial levers, and different contexts. It is therefore fitting that the range of practices working in this area is also varied, multifaceted and context-driven. There is no linear path to change here, rather change is dependent on the social and relational networks that the practices can leverage and that will fit with their context.

## 6.2 Connections between phase 1 and phase 2 of T6.4

The current report is the result of a first phase of research into **existing** innovative land practices. Phase 2, compared to phase 1, will consist in observing the development of **more recent land innovations**, on emerging land issues (with possibly less insight on their long-term implementation). Phase 2 will also include a more in-depth analysis of specific cases, as they will be observed in progress over a longer-term, and a research work plan seeking to support the search for solutions to problems encountered in the development of these cases.

Regarding the links with phase 1, phase 2 will be the occasion:

- to reinforce the idea of analysing the actions by situating them within the framework of their particular context (geographical context, national context, social and institutional context, etc.);
- to test the typology proposed with the “access to land pathway” while analysing the different actions implemented or to be implemented (the relevance of the framework, its concrete operationalisation, the issues linked to each phase of the pathway and their interconnections, etc.);

- to strengthen the analysis of the potential impacts of the action (construction of indicators, etc.) with regard to the framework proposed by ruralisation.

The second phase will also be the opportunity to question some of the main findings of phase 1: how does the specific type of land on which the action is deployed influences strategies adopted by the innovative practices? How does human capital, which is central in these innovations, evolve (through trainings, encounters, dialogue, etc.) towards the skills, the organisation, and the engagement necessary to respond to the specific issues tackled? Can we characterise more precisely how acting on land becomes a lever for a wide range of impacts, some planned and some unforeseen, participating to a potential ruralisation process?<sup>9</sup>

In particular, phase 2 provides an opportunity to further examine the specific question of how to transfer and upscale innovative land practices. While phase 1 has identified a number of important axes, such as adapting land regulations, strengthening human capital, and reinforcing the role of local authorities, many unanswered questions remain in relation to the capital resources that will support the successful emergence and development of these practices, and hence the needs underpinning their successful transfer and upscale. More broadly the range of capital—particularly financial and natural capital—used by these initiatives needs further examining. A number of potential research questions emerge from the current study, such as:

- Are particular types of capitals more needed at particular stages of innovative practices development? For example, is human capital the catalyst for innovative land practices?
- Do practices at particular stages of the access to land pathway depend more strongly on particular forms of capital?
- Are there crucial interdependencies among the different forms of capital? For instance, does activating one form of capital depend on another?

Phase 2 provides an opportunity to test the typology proposed by the access to land pathway. It emerges from a view of access to land as a complex process that is also embedded in a wider land system. Its five steps potentially provide a systematic framework to select the five promising approaches (e.g. a major and smaller action is selected at each step of the pathway) for in-depth analysis. Or, alternatively, practices at particular steps of the pathway may need more focused attention because of their novel nature and potential to address access to land issues where solutions are less well developed. Overall, the access to land pathway provides an analytical tool to inform case study selection.

Finally, phase 2 will also provide an opportunity to strengthen the analysis of the interactions among stakeholders by the active participation in innovative land practices over a period of several months, which also provides the opportunity to observe these. In particular, it will be interesting to analyse conflictual interactions arising from these practices, for instance conflict related to their objective to share land or to change its use or arising from efforts to open up

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<sup>9</sup> Concerning this last aspect, centred on impact, the capacity to answer this question may depend on the level of progress of the action considered. As some actions studied in the second phase will just be emerging projects, which existence will go well beyond the phase of observation proposed in the frame of this research project, characterising their impact may not be entirely possible.

land governance, which may lead to novel confrontations between actors who had previously few contacts. A systemic analysis of individual or institutional strategies may help to understand potential conflicts in order to better identify barriers to the successful implementation of these innovative land practices.

### 6.3 Research gaps

In order to strengthen these initiatives and better understand the context in which they operate, research could take several directions aiming at:

- 1 - Analysing land markets' dynamics and social organisation of land transfers with a specific focus on new entrants' issues;
- 2 - Analysing the conditions of success of innovations at each stage of the access to land pathway;
- 3 - Analysing issues related to inequality of access.

#### 1. Land markets and new entrants

a. Harmonise land transfers' regulations and definitions of new entrants?

Several processes govern changes in land users: transfers of private property, leases, or company shares. Concerning the transfer of private property: it may happen either through sales of land or successions. According to the land ownership profile of the countries (farmers mainly owning their land, farmers mainly renting their land, etc.), and according to the main modalities of farm transfers (for example: the rate of family transmissions among all farm transfers), these land transfer flows have very distinct morphologies. Even within a single country, land transfer flows may vary from one region to another. In this respect, the regulation schemes and the actions to be implemented on land will not be the same. A detailed knowledge of morphologies of land transfers' flows at a national and regional level could therefore be an important research to be carried out in order to better calibrate actions to be implemented. This would also make it possible to determine which land transfers' flows could more easily be mobilised in favour of new entrants.

In relation to land market analysis, the fact that new entrants without agricultural backgrounds are not subject to specific statistics (both at national and European levels) is also an area of research. Harmonising the definition of new entrants and enabling statistics to be produced about them at European level or better characterising the difficulties they face regarding access to land in each national/regional context could be possible areas of future research.

b. Anticipate emerging issues in relation to new farmland uses for renewable energy production?

Although not specifically analysed in the practices selected for this report, the increasing use of farmland for energy production purposes raises new questions about land use and access to land. While renewable energies may constitute an innovative way to diversify and increase farm revenue and may provide new jobs and opportunities in rural areas, each type of land-based energy production – e.g. biomethane, wind energy, solar energy or wood energy –

raises distinct questions in research and stakeholder communities. In this report, we can only cite a few of the issues which could be further investigated, for instance:

- Concerning methanisation: what are the risks of competition between crops dedicated to methanisation and food crops? In the case where only intercrops are dedicated to methanisation (in order to avoid competition with food production), what are the risks of excessive use of inputs for these intercrops? What is the concrete rate of substitution to fossil fuels allowed by this energy depending on the type of biomass incorporated into the methanisation process, knowing that each type of biomass (grass, maize, manure, etc.) does not have the same energy efficiency when this efficiency is calculated over the whole production chain? How does the need for rentability from the heavy investments related to methanisers impact agricultural practices?
- Concerning wind power: how can we address landscape impacts? How can the potential impact of wind turbines on local wildlife (especially birds) be taken into account?
- Concerning solar energy: how can competition for farmland between photovoltaic fields and agriculture be handled (solar energy in fields being more profitable than solar energy on roofs)? Can land price increases and land access issues related to these competing uses be prevented?

Overall, the profitability of these energy sectors depends on significant state subsidies in most of the national contexts where they are developed. The sustainability of these sectors is therefore highly dependent on the stability of such support policies, which have already been called into question in some national contexts. Furthermore, questions arise around how public energy buying back programmes may be improved to benefit local rural communities as a whole (beyond profiting to the sole farmers or energy producers). Finally, if energy production becomes one of the 'conditions' for the profitability of farms (and therefore of food production), the conditions of access to the farming profession (and therefore to land) also depend on the conditions of access to these energy sectors and their infrastructures. This aspect somehow reshapes the issue of access to land.

## 2. Research questions along the access to land pathway

Considering the different blocks of the access to land pathway, several lines of research could be further investigated:

### ***At the upstream level:***

New entrants can benefit from long term learning and progressive farm set up schemes to enter agriculture gradually. For instance, testing their agricultural activity on a farm or on a specific land plot dedicated to such tests may be a way to check their motivation for farming and refine their future project. This also allows them to gain legitimacy, through practice, to position themselves on land opportunities (technical knowledge is often a social precondition for access to land) (Access to Land 2018). European research could therefore focus on:

- How can we improve the possibility to host new entrants on all types of farms in good conditions?
- How can we foster the transmission of knowledge on agriculture outside the family?
- How can we create systems that make it possible to finance technical supervision and/or the remuneration of apprentices for an adequate period of time, including the test period and the period of creation of an agricultural project?
- How can the logics of progressive farm set-up be integrated into agricultural policies?

***Concerning land accessibility:***

The question of land accessibility has many dimensions, but if we consider the question of affordability, we can say that a regulating structure such as the SAFER in France has helped maintain relatively low land prices compared to other North-western countries. In this respect: an assessment of the SAFER and its capacity (or not) to facilitate generational renewal and what it would mean to set up such a tool in other countries (with very distinct land policy frameworks), could be an interesting line of research. A specific research question could be: has SAFER, compared to other European countries, helped promote generational renewal and reduce the concentration dynamics? Or has it only enabled French farmers to benefit from a competitive advantage (a lower cost of land capital) over other European farmers?

Regulation by the SAFER is also being circumvented in various ways, notably through the trend towards an increase of land ownership transfers via share transfers which the SAFER cannot pre-empt. Should the SAFER therefore, in the coming years, be able to regulate the share market? (a proposal that has been debated in the French parliament but not accepted at this stage)

**3. Analysing issues related to inequality of access*****Who accesses land through innovative land practices?***

Innovative land practices help engage with the complexity of the access to land problem and seek to support a transition towards more sustainable farming. These practices create positive equality impacts for younger farmers and farmers without an agricultural background. However, this analysis also suggests addressing wider inequalities (e.g. social exclusion, gender inequalities) is not often a specific goal of innovative land practices. This then raises the wider question of who (e.g. ethnicity, class, educational level, sexual orientation, gender) accesses land through innovative land practices? Can these practices better engage with issues around inequality of land access in relation to more marginalised groups?

More research to identify the specific barriers encountered by socially-marginalised groups would support innovative mechanisms directed at them. This is key aspect to created more diverse and dynamic rural areas. A specific research question prompted by the work of land justice activists (cf. Calliste 2020) is what are the impacts of land access for these communities in terms of economic empowerment, cultural identity, social status, and access to healthy food?

***How can we promote these agricultural models and avoid the dualisation of diets?***

Many initiatives show, however, that some new farmers—although their produce food appreciated by upper social categories of consumers—are not setting up farms in satisfactory economic/social conditions. The question of how to develop such models while promoting equity with regards to food, at a time when many countries are experiencing growing food insecurity (heightened by the COVID-19 crisis), is thus central. Research should therefore look into ways to ensure satisfactory incomes for farmers engaging in agroecology (incomes which would strengthen the attractiveness of these agricultural projects) while making food affordable for all categories of population. On this aspect, some actors and researchers are currently starting discussions on social security logics for food or the idea of food as “a

common good”, based on transition of agricultural models as well as promotion of universal access to quality food and fair incomes for producers (ISF 2020; Coriat *et al.* 2019).

## 7 References

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## 8 Annexes

- ▣ ANNEX I: List of 64 practices
- ▣ ANNEX II: Stakeholder Engagement Synthesis
- ▣ ANNEX III: Barriers in each block of the access to land pathway, solutions developed, difficulties encountered and issues
- ▣ ANNEX IV: Questionnaire used to document practices

## 8.1 ANNEX I: List of 64 practices

N°	NAME OF THE PRACTICE	Country	Location	SCALE	TYPE OF PRACTICE	Written down by
1	Perspektive Landwirtschaft	Austria	Headquarters in Vienna, scope is the whole of Austria.	<b>NATIONAL</b>	Connecting farmers and successors	<b>DLg</b>
2	De Landgenoten foundation & cooperative	Belgium	The overall scope of De Landgenoten is the Flemish region. Headquarters in Antwerp.	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Land acquisition (donations and shares) / citizen involvement / advocacy	<b>DLg</b>
3	BoerenBruxselPaysans (BBP)	Belgium	Brussels Capital Region	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Food territorial project	<b>DLg</b>
4	Terre-en-vue	Belgium	The overall scope of Terre-en-vue is the Walloon region.	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Land acquisition (donation and shares) / citizen involvement / advocacy	<b>DLg</b>
5	Stadsakker Tienen	Belgium	Tienen, in the province of Flemish Brabant	<b>LOCAL</b>	Multifonctionnal farm	<b>DLg</b>
6	Graines de Paysans	Belgium	Brussels-Capital Region	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Farm incubator	<b>DLg</b>
7	Point Vert	Belgium	Modave (province of Liège, Wallonia)	<b>LOCAL</b>	Farm incubator	<b>DLg</b>
8	Ceinture Aliment-terre Liègeoise (CATL)	Belgium	Province of Liège (Wallonia)	<b>LOCAL</b>	Food activities incubator	<b>DLg</b>
9	City of Leuven, current and future land policy	Belgium	The arrondissement of Leuven, yet with a strong focus on the city of Leuven	<b>LOCAL</b>	Food territorial project	<b>DLg</b>
10	Nadace Pro Pudu (Foundation for Soil)	Czech Republic	Formally based in the village of Zruč - Sedlová, but carries out activities throughout the Czech Republic.	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Land acquisition (donation)	<b>ER</b>
11	Farmland Consolidation with Land Banking in Finland	Finland	Possible in whole Finland.	<b>NATIONAL</b>	Farmland consolidation	<b>UTU</b>
12	KM Peltomarjat osuuskunta: soft fruit growers' cooperative in Keuruu-Multia	Finland	Remote villages in municipalities of Keuruu and Multia in Central Finland.	<b>LOCAL</b>	Commercialisation support (through a cooperative)	<b>UTU</b>
13	Terres Fertiles (« Fertile Land »)	France	Ile-de-France, and especially Saclay Plateau	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Multifonctionnal farm / citizen mobilisation. / advocacy	<b>CNRS</b>
14	Mouans-Sartoux: from land acquisition to a territorial policy on food and agriculture	France	Mouans-Sartoux, Alpes-Maritimes department PACA region.	<b>LOCAL</b>	Food territorial project	<b>TDL</b>
15	The project of the Languedoc Roussillon Conservatory of Natural Areas: promoting land and ecosystem management through extensive herding	France	Municipality of Fabrègues, in the Hérault department, Occitanie Region	<b>LOCAL</b>	Land compensation / land stewardship	<b>TDL</b>
16	Lurzaindia: the Basque land trust fighting speculation and promoting a shared land governance	France	Basque Country, Pyrénées-Atlantiques département, Nouvelle-Aquitaine region.	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Land acquisition / advocacy	<b>TDL</b>
17	Les Cheires orchard incubator: access to land for agricultural training	France	Commune de Saint-Amant-Tallende, département Puy-de-Dôme	<b>LOCAL</b>	Farm incubator	<b>TDL</b>

N°	NAME OF THE PRACTICE	Country	Location	SCALE	TYPE OF PRACTICE	Written down by
18	Moëlan-sur-Mer: recultivation of fallow land for an agroecological transition	France	Moëlan-sur-Mer, Finistère department	LOCAL	Recultivation of fallow land / setting-up in agriculture	TDL
19	Land carrying and exchange of agricultural land in Ille-et-Vilaine	France	Ille-et-Vilaine department, Brittany region	REGIONAL	Land carrying for setting-up in agriculture	TDL
20	Franches Terres collective farming group, Organic vegetable growing on public land in a water catchment area	France	Pont-de-Metz, commune of Amiens Métropole in the Somme department, Hauts-de-France region.	LOCAL	Setting-up in agriculture in a water catchment	TDL
21	Terre de Liens: the national movement making land a collective matter	France	Metropolitan France. The headquarters of the national Terre de Liens organisations are based in Crest, Drôme. TDL local branches active in all regions of France.	NATIONAL	Land acquisition (donation and shares) / citizen involvement / advocacy	TDL
22	CIAP: Cooperative for Setting Up in Peasant Agriculture	France	Different Regions: Pays de la Loire, Bretagne, Normandie, Poitou-Charentes, Centre-val-de-Loire	REGIONAL	Farm incubator involving local authorities	TDL
23	Deutscher Verband für Landschaftspflege (DVL) e.V.	Germany	Ansbach, county Ansbach	NATIONAL	Land stewardship	ILS
24	Kulturland eG : securing land for organic farming with citizen money	Germany	Head office: Hitzacker, Lower-Saxony. Activity nationwide	NATIONAL	Land acquisition (shares) / citizen involvement / advocacy	Kulturland
25	Stiftung Aktion Kulturland: linking organic farming with nature conservation	Germany	Head office: Stürsholz (Schleswig Holstein); activity nationwide but mainly North	NATIONAL	Land acquisition (donation)	Kulturland
26	Regionalwert AG Freiburg: raising citizen capital for the local food chain	Germany	Town of Freiburg in Breisgau (Baden-Württemberg)	REGIONAL	Land acquisition (shares) / acquisitions for activities connected to food / citizen mobilisation	Kulturland
27	Hof sucht Bauer: a land matching platform offering professional expertise	Germany	Rotenburg an der Fulda, small town in Hessen (central Germany)	NATIONAL	Connecting farmers and successors	Kulturland
28	Infoportal Kirchenland	Germany	Federal states of Schleswig-Holstein, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Hamburg / office: Kiel	REGIONAL	Land stewardship (community connected)	Kulturland
29	Öko-Junglandwirte-Netzwerk / Kontaktforum Hofübergabe	Germany	The meeting usually takes place in Fulda (Hessen), central Germany.	NATIONAL	Connecting farmers and successors	Kulturland
30	Netzwerk Solidarische Landwirtschaft e.V. (Solawi - Network): platform to spread community supported agriculture (CSA) in Germany	Germany	decentralized offices and regional groups	NATIONAL	Commercialisation support (through CSA)	Kulturland
31	Agricultural Programme of the City of Hannover: agricultural policy at municipality level	Germany	City of Hannover	REGIONAL	Food territorial project	Kulturland

## D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

N°	NAME OF THE PRACTICE	Country	Location	SCALE	TYPE OF PRACTICE	Written down by
32	Floral life community agriculture in Pátka	Hungary	Pátka, Fejér County	REGIONAL	Multifunctional farm / community connected	MTA TK
33	Csoroszlya organic farm: farm to table pioneer	Hungary	Szár, Fejér county	REGIONAL	Multifunctional farm	MTA TK
34	Cúlra Créafóige (Cultivation Renewal Programme)	Ireland	Cloich Cheann Fhaola (Cloughaneely). This is a Gaeltacht (Irish speaking) area in north-west county Donegal	REGIONAL	Land recultivation / new valorisation of farm production	NUIG
35	Sustainable Uplands Agri-environment Scheme (SUAS)	Ireland	Wicklow and Dublin uplands / Mid-East region	REGIONAL	Land stewardship through commonage	NUIG
36	The cooperativa agricola Co.r.ag.gio: Multifunctional agriculture on public heritage	Italy	Roma and other seven municipalities - Borghetto San Carlo (Lazio Region)	REGIONAL	Multifunctional farm / citizen mobilisation / advocacy	UNICAL
37	Landgilde	Netherlands	Landgilde primarily covers the whole of the Netherlands, but also features offer from within Flanders (Belgium).	NATIONAL	Connecting farmers and successors	DLg
38	Stichting Grondbeheer Biologisch Dynamische Landbouw (Land Stewardship Foundation)	Netherlands	Netherlands (currently it owns land in 9 of the 12 provinces of the Netherlands)	NATIONAL	Land acquisition (donation)	TUD
39	Toekomstboeren: Securing land by mobilising peasants and citizens	Netherlands	National	NATIONAL	Connecting farmers and successors / advocacy on land tenure	ER
40	Agro-Perma-Lab: Education for agroecology, permaculture and food sovereignty in Poland	Poland	Poland (a country-wide practice); cooperation with organizations from Italy and Romania	NATIONAL	Education in agroecology	UWr
41	EUL: Ekologiczny Uniwersytet Ludowy w Grzybowie, [Ecological Folk High School in Grzybow, EFHSiG]	Poland	Grzybow	NATIONAL	Education in agroecology	UWr
42	Permakultura.Edu.PL	Poland	Poland (a country-wide practice)	NATIONAL	Education in agroecology	UWr
43	Biodiversity Farm Cobor - Foundation Conservation Carpathia	Romania	Cobor village, Ticusu commune, Brasov county	LOCAL	Multifunctional farm	ER
44	The Association for Support of Peasant Agriculture (ASAT): Community Supported Agriculture Network in Romania.	Romania	Timisoara, Cluj-Napoca, Odorheiu Secuiesc, Bucuresti, Sibiu.	REGIONAL	Commercialisation support (through CSA)	ER
45	Fundatia ADEPT Transilvania	Romania	Tarnava Mare area, central Romania	REGIONAL	Land stewardship / territorial valorisation / Commercialisation	ER
46	RURBANS: Beyond training, a set of mechanisms to foster peasant generational renewal	Spain	Headquarters are located in Rialp. The association develops action lines throughout Catalonia.	REGIONAL	Land data / connecting farmers and successors (livestock breeding) / farm incubator	XCN

N°	NAME OF THE PRACTICE	Country	Location	SCALE	TYPE OF PRACTICE	Written down by
47	APAEFF: Agroecological Land Bank run by the Organic Farmers' Association in the Pityusic Islands	Spain	The Association runs the initiative exclusively in Ibiza and Formentera, the Pityusic Islands, which are the smallest of the Balearic Islands (which also include Mallorca and Menorca).	REGIONAL	Land bank for new entrants	XCN
48	La Tartana de Can Bofill: de-commodifying land and managing it for the common good	Spain	Coop57 aims to potentially work in different locations within Spain. Can Bofill acquisition took place in Molins de Rei, Serra de Collserola; Natural Park, Barcelona Province	NATIONAL	Land acquisition (through a multifunctional cooperative)	XCN
49	Terra Franca: Securing Access to Land for Agroecological Projects	Spain	Catalonia Region	REGIONAL	Land market intermediation with an agroecological perspective	XCN
50	Bosc de Pastura: Silvopasture and wildfire prevention brought together in a multi-stakeholder approach.	Spain	Lluçanès area, in Barcelona province	LOCAL	Forest stewardship through grazing agreements	XCN
51	Per L'Horta: Community-based protection of a farmland facing land planning threats	Spain	L'Horta de Valencia; area in Valencia province	LOCAL	Citizen mobilisation / land planning advocacy	XCN
52	Red Terrae: A coordinated network of municipal land banks	Spain	40 municipal council of 8 different regions (Andalucía, Extremadura, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla y León, Madrid, Canarias, País Vasco y Comunidad Valenciana)	NATIONAL	Land data / land acquisition / recultivation of fallow lands	XCN
53	IAEDEN: Collectively preserving meadows and their natural and cultural values	Spain	Different locations in l'Albera area, in Alt Empordà, Girona province	LOCAL	Land stewardship	XCN
54	Common Land Management Initiative within EIP-Agri Operational Group "Innoland"	Spain	The Operational Group acts in four Spanish regions (Valencia, Murcia, Catalonia and Castilla, la Mancha), but this particular initiative takes place in Marina Alta county, northern Alicante, the southernmost province of the region of Valencia.	LOCAL	Recultivation of fallow land (through a land cooperative)	XCN
55	SOC-SAT: Land occupations turned into long-term land use	Spain	Different locations within Andalusia	REGIONAL	Citizen mobilisation / land planning advocacy / multifunctional cooperative	XCN
56	Stiftung zur Erhaltung bäuerlicher Familienbetriebe: Multiple support agency from family farmers for family farmers	Switzerland	Mainly active in German speaking Switzerland; main office in Sissach, Kanton Baselland	NATIONAL	Connecting farmers and successors / financial support for successions	Kulturland
57	Fresh Start Land Enterprise Centre CIC	UK	National service	NATIONAL	Land intermediation / advise on innovative land-based businesses	SA

## D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

N°	NAME OF THE PRACTICE	Country	Location	SCALE	TYPE OF PRACTICE	Written down by
58	Ecological Land Cooperative (ELC)	UK	5 sites in England and Wales	<b>NATIONAL</b>	Land acquisition (shares) / citizen involvement / advocacy	SA
59	Knoydart Forest Trust (KFT)	UK	Knoydart, Highland, Scotland	<b>LOCAL</b>	Collective forest management / commercialisation	SA
60	OrganicLea FarmStart	UK	In and around NE London	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Workers cooperative around food / information on land / advocacy	SA
61	Community Land Advisory Service in Wales (CLAS Cymru)	UK	Regional service, local sites supported across Wales	<b>REGIONAL</b>	Land intermediation	SA
62	Bristol Food Producers	UK	Bristol, SW England and surrounding area	<b>LOCAL</b>	Land seeking / advocacy	SA
63	Earth Trust - Farm Step Programme	UK	Earth Trust Farm, Oxfordshire	<b>LOCAL</b>	Multifunctionnal cooperative / incubator	SA
64	Soil Association Land Trust (SALT)	UK	Local sites supported across the UK	<b>NATIONAL</b>	Land acquisition (donation)	SA

## 8.2 ANNEX II: Stakeholder Engagement Synthesis

### Introduction

Stakeholder engagement on this report was carried out in **eight countries** (Belgium, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Romania, Spain, United Kingdom) between September and October 2020. It involved **61 organisations**, including institutions linked to national rural networks, research institutes and universities, and civil society organisations working on rural development.

The aim was to present the study—including examples of innovative land practices, the proposed framework to analyse them, preliminary results, and questions of transfer and upscale of innovative land practices—and **confront visions of access to land across different groups of actors and countries so as to enrich and strengthen the report findings.**

This synthesis will highlight (I) some of **the main outcomes** of discussions in relation to the report, (II) **transversal themes** that emerged in these meetings, and (III) make a **qualitative assessment** of the activity to draw lessons from our experience and continue improving the way we engage in the RURALIZATION project.

#### I. Discussing the report content with stakeholders

Inputs from stakeholder meetings particularly helped review and improve section 2 and 5 of the report (method and issues of transfer and upscale of practices).

Regarding the method, a majority of stakeholders deemed relevant the “access to land pathway” framework to analyse innovative land practices. Some of the strengths highlighted were **its integrative quality** (taking a wide-encompassing view on the access to land issue) and how it allows **analysing heterogenous land practices together** (by characterising their modalities of action). However, comments also converged to suggest that the pathway shouldn't be seen as a linear process, that borders between some of the pathway “blocks” are often porous, and that the pathway's initial representation needed clarifying—notably by developing illustrative examples—for better appropriation by external users. This helped review the report, including by introducing a second non-linear representation of the pathway, accompanied with explanatory text and examples in section 2 and 3. A good number of uses of the pathway were suggested by stakeholders, for instance: use by local authorities when reflecting on territorial revitalisation, use by practitioners to identify which blocks are more or less well developed in a given country or area, use in education settings to make potential new entrants aware of options to gain access to land.

Regarding the question of the barriers and levers to transfer and upscale land innovations, the stakeholders raised a wide array of ideas which cannot be exhaustively conveyed in this report. Some of the common remarks on barriers were linked to: 1) the lack of accommodations, infrastructures and services available for new entrants in rural areas (and the related difficulty for innovative practices to finance infrastructural investments for single farm), 2) the issue of competitive uses of farmland. This is related to non-agricultural uses but also to competition for land between different farming models (land for conventional vs. sustainable practices). 3) the systemic issues around agriculture (e.g. low profit, low attractiveness to new generations) and land regulation (insufficient, inadequate) that practices face but largely cannot resolve as they would require policy-led structural reform. In addition

to this, some stakeholders mentioned specific barriers related to their own context, e.g. the issue of land collectivization during the communist era in Romania which created reactions of important attachment to private property (and thus resistance against practices trying to steer land use towards specific agricultural models or promoting collective use or multi-actor governance of land).

On the levers, stakeholders mentioned many country-specific ideas but some common themes were: the need to change mindsets on agriculture (connecting citizens to agriculture through food policy, advertising negative externalities of agro-industrial models vs. benefits of agroecology) and to involve more different types of landowners (public, churches, private owners...). Civil society organisations were seen as having an important role in building strong networks and publicising local and non-local innovative practices. Yet policy was truly at the core of these conversations with different types of levers mentioned to scale up work on access to land. Some proposals were focused on land regulation and land planning, while others preferred more indirect approaches leveraging tax and financial incentives (e.g. tax exemptions for farm transmission, diminishing CAP payment at retirement age to incentivise transmission, financial incentives for virtuous agricultural practices, etc.). Policy was also mentioned as a key lever to upscale “upstream” and “downstream” services to farmers. Regarding the upstream, stakeholders mentioned the possibility to introduce more agroecology in national agricultural training schemes and to finance long-term internships on farms for new entrants (specifically on farms in the process of transmission). Regarding the downstream, rural policy was seen having an essential role to develop infrastructure enabling commercialisation and improving long-term viability of small farms (building village shops, processing facilities, slaughter houses, mills, etc.). This infrastructure was seen as having a broader revitalising impact on rural areas by creating jobs, providing healthy local food, mutualising costs, etc.

## II. Transversal themes in stakeholder discussions

Beyond report-focused comments, two transversal themes of the discussions were agroecology and the role of international legal and policy frameworks in access to land.

The stakeholder discussions revealed a wide array of understandings of the term “agroecology”. For some it is similar to organic agriculture, for others (more in line with the approach upheld in this report) it has a deeper political meaning involving a transition to short supply chains and increased food sovereignty, an attention to farmers’ incomes and social justice, adoption of low-energy and low-input systems, and so on. The report’s focus on agroecology was thus diversely appreciated. The main critics were: the fact that the report might have left out non-agroecological but nonetheless innovative and interesting land practices; a disagreement with the very idea that steering land towards agroecological uses was a valid strategy for the practices; and the possibility that the report would not provide a good representation of generational renewal challenges faced by all new farmers (including non-agroecological ones). On the other end, for agroecology-enthusiast stakeholders, the report was an opportunity to discuss schemes to support agroecological growers (training, financial incentives, local food policy, etc.).

The international legal frameworks’ impact on access to land was another cross-country topic. The CAP was of course the main instrument stakeholders commented on. Need for CAP reform

was very often highlighted, with proposals emerging across groups to better define who can receive direct payments (only active farmers) and to reform them to avoid rent seeking behaviours, reduce land concentration, and ultimately increase land mobility towards new entrants. There were also country-specific proposals, such as reforming the handling of CAP payments by trade unions in Italy, which tends to turn unions into service providers instead of working to build capacity of members or advocating for policy change. Yet some stakeholders were also optimistic on the use of CAP to support pro-access to land work. The role of environmental incentives and pillar 2 in particular was acknowledged as a big support for innovative land practices (although no quantitative analysis could be done in our sample to evaluate how many times such funding was used). There is also hope that the new CAP's national strategic plans will allow for more integrated and more coherent strategies to support sustainable agriculture. Beyond the EU level, some stakeholders stressed the fact that instruments such as the FAO's voluntary guidelines on land tenure and the UN Declaration of the Rights of Peasants can support the development of innovative land practices.

### III. Taking stock of the engagement experience

To take a step back and draw lessons for future work, we propose a short analysis of the meetings' assessment by stakeholders and the RURALIZATION partners who held them.

Regarding the strengths of the activity, stakeholders' assessment of meetings (gathered through online or paper surveys or oral feedback) showed large satisfaction, with interest for the topic of land and particular appreciation for learning about concrete examples of innovative practices. Most participants expressed desire to stay in touch with the project and to receive the final report. The RURALIZATION partners stressed that the debates were open and lively, and that the activity was a good starting point to build national networks or groups of exchange around land and the RURALIZATION project. Some partners mentioned the fact that mixing participants with different backgrounds allowed for a diversity of point of views and rich debates, while others organised bilateral conversations and appreciated having time for in-depth conversation with their interlocutor. In some cases, the meetings helped find possible synergies with other projects.

Regarding weaker aspects of the activity, we will separate the comments on content and format. On content, RURALIZATION partners mentioned difficulties in dealing with the density of information to convey to stakeholders in a tight timeline. Many highlighted that the report synthesis was useful when sent ahead to stakeholders to reach a common level of information but sometimes it was provided too late or could not be translated in time. The main conclusion is to be **more selective with the information provided to stakeholders** (to reduce density) but also **more selective in the type of feedback expected** (to drive inputs better). Regarding the format, RURALIZATION partners were given flexibility to organise either virtual or physical meeting, either bilateral or multilateral. For the multilateral meetings, not separating stakeholders with different backgrounds (policy, research, practice) was retained as an interesting format, but which requires adapting the presentation to fit all participants. The possibility to organise physical meetings was much reduced in the context of the sanitary crisis, but those who did preferred the dynamic of face-to-face encounters compared to online meetings. Managing time was important. Since it is difficult to mobilise stakeholders for long meetings the idea of sending preparatory documents and/or allowing further feedback on the documents after the meeting could be retained.

## Conclusion

**Engaging with stakeholders takes time and effort, yet this activity provided a true value-added to RURALIZATION's first report on land innovations.** It helped take into account culturally diverse perspectives in the report and strongly oriented our effort towards creating a more didactic analytical framework. Sometimes the broad perspective of a cross-country report made it hard for stakeholders to relate to the content proposed. Yet at the same time it stimulated an EU-oriented debate and incentivised taking a step back on national issues. Beyond the current deliverable, it is thus expected that the activity will bear benefits for the rest of the project, notably future activities on access to land and to build solid, multi-disciplinary and multi-actor political recommendations in the final phase of the project.



### 8.3 ANNEX III: Barriers in each block of the access to land pathway, solutions developed, difficulties encountered and issues

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues
Upstream	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing initial training on agroecology</li> <li>- Supporting business planning (e.g farm incubators)</li> <li>- Supporting farm set up/ adaptation: access to capital, housing...</li> <li>- Helping with social and professional insertion locally</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Non-profit organisation (involved in rural development and social economy)</li> <li>- Some agricultural schools</li> <li>- Some farmers/landowners looking for successors/farmers</li> </ul>	<p><b>1) Concerning incubators:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Difficulties for new entrants (with no members of their family having land) to test their future activity / many farmers (especially small farms) do not propose wage labour: which could be an opportunity for new entrants to test the activity before setting up a farm</li> <li>- Difficulties in investing while testing the activity</li> <li>- Difficulties for the farmers in handling start-up costs</li> <li>- The complexity of access to land (institutional and social regulation, etc.) for new entrants who are discovering land issues</li> </ul> <p><b>2) Concerning education around agroecology:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agroecology is often not taught in agricultural schools</li> </ul>	<p><b>1) Concerning farm incubators:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Combination of physical spaces to practice (plot of land + infrastructures) / tutorship / support on technical aspects, market study, land search, legal status and administration (through trainings, workshops, visits...)</li> <li>- The trial period allows to create links with local farmers and potentially get land opportunities</li> <li>- The possibility for workers cooperatives, integrating agricultural workers starting up their activity, to favour bank loans during the gradual setting-up period (with the possibility to abandon the project if the test period is inconclusive)</li> <li>- Ensuring the test period with several tutors (rather than just one) to ensure collective responsibility</li> <li>- Incubators allow to get a legal status to allow the sale of production before concrete establishment</li> </ul> <p><b>2) Concerning education around agroecology:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing advice on legal and technical aspects around access to land / farm viability / land evaluation</li> <li>- Creating national/international trainings and networks around agroecology practices/issues</li> </ul>	<p><b>1) Concerning farm incubators:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Difficulties in proposing large areas of farmland for incubators (e.g.: to test cereal farming or livestock breeding)</li> <li>- Finding land after the test period if the land search is either difficult or not anticipated enough</li> <li>- Some farmers testing their activity might not feel responsible for the material/area used in the test area</li> <li>- The distance between the farmers and the test area is crucial: test areas cannot fulfill every needs (both because of location and because of the size of the plots proposed)</li> <li>- Incubators who do not have support from local authorities might experiment difficulties (both in terms of funds and in terms of integration in a wider territorial project): integrating local authorities in the incubators' governance can be a response to this issue</li> <li>- The difficulties to bear the costs of the technical support of farmers who propose to become tutors for future farmers or the difficulties for farmers to propose salary to farmers who are trying the agricultural activity on their farm</li> <li>- Difficulties in proposing test periods on large areas (e.g.: cereal farming) or with herds of large cattle</li> <li>- Lack of trained farmers or lack of individuals who would be ready to start farming in some regions</li> </ul> <p><b>2) Concerning education around agroecology:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Some agricultural schools might not accept to integrate lessons on agroecology</li> <li>- Difficulties in funding some international networks of structures/individuals working on these issues</li> </ul>

Table 1 of Annex III: barriers and issues in the “upstream” block

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues
Organising the accessibility of farmland (in general)	Farmland preservation (from land take, abandonment and land degradation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- State and local authorities</li> <li>- Citizen mobilisation (against some projects and/or in favour of certain projects on land)</li> <li>- Agencies in charge of environmental protection</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Land fragmentation (small plots, landowners not known...)</li> <li>- The high level of farm mechanization has reduced the interest of some plots of land</li> <li>- Different forms of ownership / no coherent agricultural unit</li> <li>- Strong pressure on land (for building but also horses, tourism, etc.)</li> <li>- Very high differences of prices between farm land and building land</li> <li>- Conventional practices increase land degradation (contamination, erosion...)</li> <li>- Current policies and markets lead to lack of profitability of some small farms/ farming models on land of low agronomic potential</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Buying land through foundations, cooperatives or financial collective tools with the aim of not selling it back</li> <li>- Acquiring land through public land banks</li> <li>- Land consolidation/recultivation aiming at new farmers' establishment (needing strong local political support): these actions are often led by local authorities, with the potential support of local rural development associations or environmental associations</li> <li>- Creation (in the case of pasture land restoration for example, in order to avoid shrubs) of an association of landowners to facilitate the common management of an area with multiple landowners</li> <li>- Mobilising the land market regulation institutions (when they exist...) when land prices are too high</li> <li>- Participation of citizens/associations to consultations on land planning</li> <li>- Increase awareness of local authorities concerning land preservation (through guidebooks, encounters, etc.)</li> <li>- Marches and citizen mobilisations against some urban projects while advocating for some other mobility/housing/agricultural models</li> <li>- Promoting a collaborative database among citizens to monitor the potential transformations of farmland</li> <li>- Public investments to prevent land degradation (e.g. planting hedges...)</li> <li>- Mobilising public agencies/ laws to activate first right to buy so as to preserve farmland</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Farmland consolidation can lead to cumbersome administrative procedures and can be unpopular among landowners</li> <li>- In case of recultivation, the clearing of plots can be very costly and difficult to finance</li> <li>- Some work of land restoration (through specific agricultural or animal husbandry practices) can be funded by compensation schemes which are compensating other land deteriorations</li> <li>- Strong citizen mobilisation can be conflictual in certain contexts and lead to difficult collaboration with local authorities (on farmland preservation or other land issues)</li> <li>- Institutions regulating the prices of land ownership transfers do not exist in most places</li> </ul>
	Organising access to information about land availability: mapping, cadastres, etc  & Improving the possibility of land transfers: mobilising private landowners, structuring land demands, connecting retiring farmers and successors...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Creating public cadastres</li> <li>- Creating public notice of sales</li> <li>- Mapping public land</li> <li>- Mapping abandoned land</li> <li>- Assisting future farmers to find land</li> <li>- Connecting retiring farmers and potential successors</li> <li>- Mobilising private land owners of fallow land</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Farmers seeking for successors (often involved in peasant agroecology/short supply chains and who did not find any successor among their children or close network)</li> <li>- Future/ aspiring farmers</li> <li>- Non-profit organisation</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> <li>- Farmers' unions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Negative perceptions about new entrants in agriculture / atypical projects by the agricultural profession</li> <li>- Low level of public information on land transfers</li> <li>- Rapidity of land transfers</li> <li>- Most land transfers take place within farming families or between existing farmers</li> <li>- Some farms are not viable the way they are currently managed (which does not encourage farmers to hand over their farms)</li> <li>- Some local authorities tend to sale their public land and/or are not considering to use their land for agricultural projects</li> <li>- Land and buildings can be separated (potentially with difficulties to build a new building)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Considering the use of public land for local food projects within the local authority's action plan</li> <li>- Organising encounters between established farmers and potential future farmers / inform farmers who are about to retire on transmission issues</li> <li>- Gathering information on land-seekers, providing them information on how to diagnose a land opportunity</li> <li>- Providing data about land sales or rent, job opportunities in farming, collective projects needing land</li> <li>- Connecting future farmers with local networks</li> <li>- Creating public cadastres and making them easily accessible</li> <li>- Creating public notice about land sales and other actions to increase transparency</li> <li>- Mapping local farmland: owners, current uses, potential, etc.</li> <li>- Influencing land prices (through regulations, land taxes, etc.)</li> </ul>

Table 2 of Annex III: barriers and issues in the block “organising accessibility of farmland”

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues
Steering land control towards specific uses	Conditioning land access to specific uses – e.g. organic farming on water catchment areas, food production for local schools, etc. and prioritising certain users	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- EU and States</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> <li>- Environmental or rural development networks</li> <li>- Land Banks</li> <li>- Water Agencies</li> <li>- Community farmland trusts (CFLTts)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Agriculture is not always seen as a potential "solution" concerning environmental issues</li> <li>- Local authorities usually do not act on land for agricultural projects (but rather for urban projects)</li> <li>- Local authorities rarely act on food consumption issues</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Combination of several different potential actions: land acquisition, farmers' retirement anticipation, creation of farm incubators, actions around awareness on local food supply, integration of local/organic food in public procurement, investment in collective processing tools, etc. allowing to foster the arrival of new entrants and to favour/maintain small-scale farming</li> <li>- Facilitation of the arrival of organic farmers on sensitive public land, next to a water catchment (involving pesticide free practices for example), integrating environmental clauses in the lease</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The compartmentalisation of actors / departments of the same local authority can lead to difficulties when the agricultural projects combine land, economical, environmental and/or water issues</li> <li>- The rules concerning use and constructability can be very restrictive in environmentally sensitive areas (water catchment, areas of ecological interest, etc.)</li> <li>- Changing local authority personnel can make it difficult building long term relations around local food issues</li> <li>- Health agencies might have difficulties considering that organic farming next to a water catchment can contribute to water preservation</li> <li>-The difficulties of the EU funds to finance jointly rural areas and urban areas (for broader food territorial projects)</li> <li>- Local authorities have low budgets to implement local food policies (and might have low fundings from the State, even if this latter encourages territorial food projects)</li> <li>- Local authorities often do not have preemptive rights on farmland transfers</li> <li>- Local authorities do not always have the project management skills to access additional fundings (EU fundings, foundations, etc.) for their territorial food project</li> </ul>
	Developing food and agricultural territorial projects to recultivate fallow land, renew generations, manage environmental risks (e.g. bush fires), preserve a cultural heritage..	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Developing sustainable farming practices and land stewardship through dialogue involving farmers and land owners</li> <li>- Mobilising public land for a territorial project</li> <li>- Entrusting public land to a community group</li> <li>- Developing public procurement for local food and working upstream to support farmers, including new entrants</li> <li>- Supporting the entry into farming of food producers and connecting them with local food systems</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- State and its legislation on land leases and land organisation and EU/State and their policies on payments for environmental services</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> <li>- Rural and environmental networks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fragmentation of land (diversity of landowners and of land plots) leading to a difficult homogeneous land stewardship</li> <li>- Multiplicity of farmers with heterogeneous practices</li> <li>- Some areas are not considered "sensitive" from an environmental point of view despite drastic biodiversity erosion or other environmental issues</li> <li>- Some payments for environmental services are not incentive enough (compared to conventional practices)</li> <li>- Farmers unions or groups of farmers sometimes consider that local authorities are not legitimate to act on food policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Networks of environmental associations working with farmers to implement sustainable practices on environmentally sensitive agricultural areas and helping them getting access to some specific fundings (e.g.: EU fundings) for the implementation of these practices</li> <li>- Payments schemes to reward farmers for their environmental management of land (this can have an effect on land recultivation as well) combined with technical advice on sustainable practices and/or valorisation of the production (e.g.: through territorial brands)</li> <li>- Voluntary agreements signed between landowners and non-profit organisations to implement long-term actions aiming at preserving land</li> <li>- Raising awareness of landowners on some specific land issues (preservation of habitats, ecological functions of land, reduction of flood through wet land preservation, etc.)</li> <li>- Develop new agricultural value chains to re-cultivate fallow lands (training / marketing / processing...)</li> <li>- Favour extensive breeding to preserve certain types of environment</li> </ul>

Table 3 of Annex III: barriers and issues in the block “steering land control towards specific uses”

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues	
Securing access to land for individual farmers, particularly new entrants (I)	Providing financial capital for land and buildings: offering public land (e.g. county farms), community land acquisitions, land occupations, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cooperatives / foundations aiming at acquiring and leasing land</li> <li>- Local authorities acquiring / leasing public land</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Community farmland trusts (cooperatives, foundations..)</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- High land prices in certain areas (especially peri-urban areas)</li> <li>- Strong impact of agricultural policies (especially the CAP) and trade policies (trade agreements/tariffs) on the use of land</li> <li>- Willingness of the land owner (either farmer or non-farmer) to sell his/her land</li> <li>- Difficulties in bringing together the short time frame of the land market and the long time frame for the establishment of an agricultural project</li> <li>- Difficulties for banks to finance atypical projects (even if land is acquired by a collective tool, the rest of the capital has to be financed)</li> <li>- The fact that installation aids are often designed for conventional projects</li> <li>- The legal framework for land transfers and farm transfers can be relatively complex</li> <li>- The difficulty to generate an income at the beginning of the farm's activity</li> <li>- State food safety and hygiene regulations are not always adapted to small-scale farming (and are potentially leading to over-investment)</li> <li>- Public land is often already used by established farmers (with no conditions on practices most of the time)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Access to public land or acquisitions through cooperatives/foundations allowing to avoid to pay the price for land acquisition</li> <li>- Direct investment of local authorities in land/buildings or favouring the use of already existing public land for new entrants</li> <li>- Call for an agrarian reform (the example of Andalusia)</li> <li>- Establishment of farmworkers cooperatives on occupied land (Andalusia) with regional, national and international support</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Purchasing cooperatives acquiring farmland might have to propose shares to shareholders with a value at least equal to the evolution of inflation</li> <li>- The purchasing cooperative, with generally limited resources, will have to arbitrate the use of its resources between expensive and less expensive land</li> <li>- Crowdfunding can be very time and effort consuming, and might not be as efficient in every territory (<i>mechanisms allowing redistribution of resources among territories/projects can be set up within the cooperatives of acquisitions or the foundations acquiring land, but this requires a minimum level of initial resources</i>)</li> <li>- This type of access to capital through crowdfunding campaigns (either donations or shares) might select farmers who can easily engage in such network actions/communication</li> <li>- The people involved in collective acquisition often belong to well-off and educated social classes</li> <li>- Collective acquisition may be undermined by the withdrawal of shareholders (<i>this is why some acquisition cooperatives planned the possibility of having shareholders leaving the capital, with the constitution of a reserve capital</i>)</li> <li>- Impossibilities for banks to use land as a mortgage (if land is acquired by an external institution) in order to finance the rest of the capital</li> <li>- Land often belongs to several landowners (which makes the operations more complex) and land and buildings are often separated (which sometimes makes it difficult to acquire a coherent farm unit)</li> <li>- Land proposed for donations is not always suitable for farming and donations are pretty rare (a potential donor can be dissuaded by his/her family)</li> <li>- Managing the ownership of buildings is more complex and often more costly (and not always easy to ensure with the level of rents perceived)</li> <li>- Traditional buildings are not always adapted for modern practices in agriculture</li> <li>- Some farms acquired may be viable at the time of acquisition but may not be viable in the longer term</li> <li>- Local authorities might have difficulties investing in farm buildings and managing them (as they are rarely in charge of these types of activities)</li> </ul>

Table 4 of Annex III: barriers and issues in the block “securing access to land (I)”

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues	
Securing access to land for individual farmers, particularly new entrants (II)	Offering favourable legal conditions (long-term lease, lease for community action...) – sometimes connected with specific practices (e.g. environmental clauses)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Cooperatives / foundations in charge of acquiring and leasing land</li> <li>- Advocating to reform tenure legislation</li> <li>- Integrating environmental clauses in long term leases</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- State through land tenure legislation</li> <li>- Cooperatives / foundations acquiring land and proposing long term leases</li> <li>- Farmers' unions</li> <li>- Rural devt orgs</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> <li>- Conservatory of natural areas and environmental associations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Difficulties in having a secure lease in some areas (urban areas for example, especially if local authorities or private land owners want to keep the land for other potential future projects)</li> <li>- If the level of rents are not regulated, some land owners might be trying to maximise the level of rents</li> <li>- Heterogeneity of tenure legislations around Europe (low security might bring farmers to preferably buy land rather than renting it)</li> <li>- The possibility to integrate some clauses concerning practices within the lease might not exist in certain national contexts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increase awareness among local authorities leasing their public land so that they propose long-term leases</li> <li>- Collective land acquisition tools proposing long term leases</li> <li>- Advocate to reform tenure legislation to propose secure leases for farmers (and especially new entrants)</li> <li>- Advocate for having lower rents for farmers having sustainable practices</li> <li>- Facilitating a rental agreement for new farmers (for abandoned/misused land for example) with an agroecological perspective</li> <li>- Integrating environmental clauses, based on a diagnosis of the farm and discussions with the farmer, in the lease that is signed between the farmer and the institution acquiring/owning land (local authority, financial tools acquiring land)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The farmers can be protected and change their practices if practices are not integrated in some clauses of the lease</li> <li>- Long term leases might not exist in the national land tenure legislation</li> <li>- Some farmers, despite having secure land, might sometimes have low income and should devote to other additional activities or assume to live very cheaply</li> <li>- It might be costly to clean some abandoned land, or some land can lack water/access to infrastructures</li> <li>- Finding the right balance between farmer's autonomy and negotiated clauses concerning land use</li> </ul>
	Providing land intermediation – i.e. Serving as intermediary between a non-farming private owner and a farmer or a retiring farmer and a successor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Advice to retiring farmers on farm transmission</li> <li>- Advice on land agreements</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Non-profit actors</li> <li>- Agricultural advisory services</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Concerning private owners: they might just follow the opinion of the former land user concerning land transfer</li> <li>- Concerning retiring farmers: they may have very specific queries concerning the conditions of the land transfer, and make important "projections" about the future successor</li> <li>- Many aging farmers do not see their farm as still viable, hence don't try to transfer it</li> <li>- Many aging farmers prefer to sell to a larger neighbour whom they know than to a newcomer</li> <li>- Gap between the time of sale and the time of entry into farming</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Helping understanding the complexities of technical topics such as buying or renting land, planning permissions, tenancies</li> <li>- Guaranteeing security in the process of renting and facilitating addressing the reluctance to rent by the landowners</li> <li>- Helping bringing together the vision of the retired farmer, the vision of the new entrant and the structural constraints induced by the agricultural land/building concerned</li> <li>- Helping managing the issue of transmission in its patrimonial, affective, technical and economic dimensions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The requirements of the retiring farmer and the possibilities of the successor may be difficult to reconcile in certain contexts</li> <li>- The land of a farm can be fragmented among several land owners (with different opinions on land transfer)</li> <li>- The retiring farmer may give in to family or personal economic pressure to maximize the sale</li> </ul>
	Organising land portage to bridge the gap between the time of sale and setting-up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- land carrying</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regional authorities</li> <li>- Land agencies</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Difficulties in bringing together the short time frame of the land market and the long time frame for the establishment of an agricultural project</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Creation of land banks or implementation of temporary land carrying allowing to: react quickly on land market, provide time for the future farmer to set up their project, to gather funds to buy land (either through private or collective ownership)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Financial interests and management costs linked to land carrying</li> <li>- The agroecological perspective is not always adopted by public land banks or land carrying arrangements</li> <li>- Land often belongs to several landowners (which makes the operations more complex) and land and buildings are often separated (which sometimes makes it difficult to acquire a coherent farm unit)</li> <li>- Land carrying led by local authorities can be called into question after each election</li> </ul>

Table 5 of Annex III: barriers and issues in the block “securing access to land (II)”

D6.1 - TYPOLOGY OF ACTIONS BASED ON ANALYSIS OF CURRENT INNOVATIVE ACTIONS

	Examples	Type of actors often taking these aspects in charge	Barriers	Types of solutions/propositions developed	Difficulties encountered / issues	
Downstream	Supporting commercialisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Development of CSA networks (especially for market gardeners)</li> <li>- Development of small processors and shops networks (potentially through crowdfunding investment)</li> <li>- Support to local skills and local knowledge</li> <li>- Development of local brands and of innovative marketing schemes</li> <li>- Public campaigns to increase organic/ local food production</li> <li>- Integrate local/organic food in public catering</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Local authorities and territorial agencies</li> <li>- Business entrepreneurs</li> <li>- Social economy networks</li> <li>- Business entrepreneurs</li> <li>- Rural dev orgs</li> <li>- Farmers unions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Difficulties of access to quality food (both for economical and sociological reasons) for low-income individuals/households</li> <li>- Plurality of offers on the market (with some consumers having difficulties perceiving the differences among them)</li> <li>- Difficulties to integrate local/organic supply in public procurement contracts</li> <li>- Difficulties for public catering to integrate local/raw products</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Allowing reduced tariffs (through subsidies for example) for low-income households wishing to join a CSA</li> <li>- Having CSA consumers integrating the agricultural risks the farmer might face (bad harvest, etc.). in the price of food</li> <li>- Developing CSA with local companies/institutions surrounding the farm</li> <li>- Development of a network (e.g.: through a cooperative) of small processors and shops around sustainable food products</li> <li>- Exploration of the potential interest from restaurants and local food retailers concerning local/organic food production</li> <li>- Integration of local/organic food production in public catering through changes in public procurement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The CSA forms of agriculture do not always fit in the legal regime (fiscal, agricultural &amp; consumption laws)</li> <li>- The CSA organisation is not adapted to every contexts and is not always easy to set up / it can also compete with other forms of services</li> <li>- When small processors and shops are integrated in a cooperative: if a business has difficulties, it can lead to a devaluation of the shares or bring financial difficulties in the cooperative</li> <li>- Territorial valorisation is structurally limited to the territory considered and might encounter difficulties if it moves out of its niche market logic</li> <li>- Difficulties in having certain agricultural projects that target both households and semi-wholesale sales</li> <li>- Some public catering, for reasons of competition law, might face difficulties justifying local sourcing</li> </ul>
	Encouraging the diversification of farm activities (economic and non-economic – e.g. educational activities)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Collective investments in processing tools</li> <li>- Receiving various populations on the farms for educational and/or social purposes</li> <li>-Development of agrotourism</li> <li>-Dev't of the production of renewable energies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Established farms</li> <li>- Rural networks</li> <li>- Local authorities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Closure of certain collective processing facilities (e.g. local slaughterhouses)</li> <li>- Farmers could be interested in proposing local processing of their production but would not justify to invest on a processing tool by themselves</li> <li>- Diversification of activities requires multiple skills which are not always easy to combine</li> <li>- Most farms are disconnected from their territory and local population</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Joint acquisition of processing tools/infrastructures with the parallel development of a territorial valorisation through sustainable practices (allowing to keep small farm structures and favour transmissions)</li> <li>- Fostering social diversity on multifunctional farms through the creation of meeting space around harvesting</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Diversification has to be adapted to the specificity of the territory (the potentials for diversification are very different from one territory to another)</li> <li>- Non-economic activities may be viewed negatively by funders/official institutions</li> <li>- Local authorities can have difficulties in investing and managing (if they decide to manage it) local processing tools</li> </ul>
	Providing lifelong learning opportunities and expert advice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing learning sessions on transmission</li> <li>- Providing collective learning sessions on sustainable agricultural practices</li> <li>-Providing training or expert advice on agronomy, env practices, accountancy, water management, etc.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Rural networks</li> <li>- Agricultural advisory services</li> <li>- Farmers unions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Farmers do not always anticipate the transmission of their farm or think about setting up a "transferable farm" (especially if no member of the family plans to take on the farm)</li> <li>- The adoption of sustainable practices responds to complex social logics</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Collective sessions on farm transmission, helping sharing information on a sensitive topic among farmers</li> <li>- Collective sessions on sustainable practices, favouring the sharing of practices among peers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Transmission is sometimes a "taboo" subject</li> <li>- There can be social pressure on farmers (within the farmers' union, within cooperatives, within the village, etc.) not to change practices</li> </ul>

Table 6 of Annex III: barriers and issues at the “downstream” level

## 8.4 ANNEX IV: Questionnaire used to document practices

# QUESTIONNAIRE

## Inventory of Innovative Land Practices in Europe

As part of the RURALIZATION project (<https://www.ruralization.eu/>), we are collecting data about innovative land practices in the EU. Please enter in the questionnaire cases of innovative land practices that exist in country. Before you start, **please download and read the guidelines on how to fill the questionnaire.**

**\*Mandatory reply**

### Table of Contents

- I. Description of the practice
- II. Context and objectives of the practice
- III. Actors involved
- IV. Enabling factors and leveraged resources
- V. Benefits generated and impacts on rural regeneration
- VI. Other resources

### I. DESCRIPTION OF THE PRACTICE

1. Title (max. 25 words) \*

2. Summary of the innovative practice (max. 500 words)\*

3. Country (for international projects, more than 1 country may be selected)\*

<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Austria	<input type="checkbox"/> Czech Republic	<input type="checkbox"/> Greece	<input type="checkbox"/> Luxembourg	<input type="checkbox"/> Slovakia
<input type="checkbox"/> Belgium	<input type="checkbox"/> Denmark	<input type="checkbox"/> Hungary	<input type="checkbox"/> Malta	<input type="checkbox"/> Slovenia
<input type="checkbox"/> Bulgaria	<input type="checkbox"/> Estonia	<input type="checkbox"/> Ireland	<input type="checkbox"/> Netherlands	<input type="checkbox"/> Spain
<input type="checkbox"/> Croatia	<input type="checkbox"/> Finland	<input type="checkbox"/> Italy	<input type="checkbox"/> Poland	<input type="checkbox"/> Sweden
<input type="checkbox"/> Republic of Cyprus	<input type="checkbox"/> France	<input type="checkbox"/> Latvia	<input type="checkbox"/> Portugal	<input type="checkbox"/> UK
	<input type="checkbox"/> Germany	<input type="checkbox"/> Lithuania	<input type="checkbox"/> Romania	

4. Location (town, village, area, etc.) \*

## 5. Scale (more than 1 may be selected) \*

(?) Please refer to the Eurostat map viewer to know what is the scale of the practice <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/nuts-maps>

<input type="checkbox"/> Local – below NUTS 3	<input type="checkbox"/> Regional – NUTS 3	<input type="checkbox"/> Regional – NUTS 2	<input type="checkbox"/> Regional – NUTS 1	<input type="checkbox"/> National	<input type="checkbox"/> International
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## 6. Start date (month/year [MM/YYYY] or year only) \*

## 7. End date (month/year [MM/YYYY] ; if the practice is still taking place, indicate 'ongoing')\*

## II. CONTEXT AND OBJECTIVES OF THE PRACTICE

## 8. Type of rural area concerned (select all that apply) \*

(?) Please refer to the Eurostat map to know what type of area the practice is located in <https://bit.ly/3bCRb9A>

<input type="checkbox"/> Predominantly urban regions	<input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate regions	<input type="checkbox"/> Predominantly rural region
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## 9. Rural challenges addressed by the practice (select all that apply)\*

<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of jobs or quality jobs (e.g. the practice improves work conditions in the area, offers more opportunities than seasonal/sporadic work) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of renewal of younger generations (e.g. the practice directly targets youth, demographic decline) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of economic diversity (e.g. the practice facilitates development of new types of economic activity, rural innovation) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of financial capital (e.g. the practice provides access to credit, to investment) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of power (e.g. the practice provides local community with more power to influence change/shape/be involved in local development, strengthens ability to resist major forces such as globalisation) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of infrastructure (e.g. the practice provides mission physical, technological, digital infrastructure that is missing in the areas)	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of local food supply <input type="checkbox"/> Deficits in local human or social capacities (e.g. the practice addresses local skills gaps, knowledge deficits, strengthens/diversifies social networks) <input type="checkbox"/> Lack of educational opportunities <input type="checkbox"/> Social exclusion or isolation <input type="checkbox"/> Economic inequalities <input type="checkbox"/> Gender inequalities <input type="checkbox"/> Other types of inequalities (racial, social...) <input type="checkbox"/> Cultural decline (e.g. the practice revives local culture and traditions, organizes cultural events, provides access to arts, knowledge, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Landscape degradation <input type="checkbox"/> Environmental degradation <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
---	---

## 9.a. Please explain further how the practice addresses the challenges you selected (max. 250 words)\*

## 10. Type of land is the practice tailored to? (select all that apply) \*

<input type="checkbox"/> Not tailored to a specific type of land	<input type="checkbox"/> Land with high environmental interests
<input type="checkbox"/> Rural land	<input type="checkbox"/> Land with high landscape interests
<input type="checkbox"/> Periurban land	<input type="checkbox"/> Low economic potential land
<input type="checkbox"/> Land under touristic pressure	<input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____

## 11.a. Specific land challenges addressed by the practice (select all that apply)\*

<input type="checkbox"/> High land prices	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land for rural newcomers
<input type="checkbox"/> Speculation on farmland	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land for new entrants into farming
<input type="checkbox"/> Loss of farmland	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land for women
<input type="checkbox"/> Abandonment of farmland	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land for socially marginalized groups
<input type="checkbox"/> Land grabbing	<input type="checkbox"/> Insecurity of farmland tenure
<input type="checkbox"/> Land concentration	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land to improve farm viability
<input type="checkbox"/> Land fragmentation	<input type="checkbox"/> Land of low agronomic potential (and associated risks of social and environmental decline)
<input type="checkbox"/> Limited land for rent	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land to ensure food security
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of land data (registry, cadaster, data on land owners, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of access to land to provide community services (education, landscape preservation...)
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of information about land sales or rent	<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of shared land governance
<input type="checkbox"/> Farmland degradation (pollution, erosion, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Ecosystem degradation	
<input type="checkbox"/> Lack of land transfer between generations	

## 11.b. Please explain further how the practice addresses the land challenges you selected above (max. 250 words)\*

## 12. Type of agriculture encouraged by the practice (select all that apply) \*

<input type="checkbox"/> The practice does not encourage agricultural activity (must check for land practices dedicated to non-farming activities)	<input type="checkbox"/> Peasant agroecology (peasant agroecology is different from family farming, as it includes extra-familial farming operations e.g. new entrants, collectives... Peasant agroecology also differs from the notion of "small-scale farming", which does not suppose specific farming methods nor link to the territory and the environment)
<input type="checkbox"/> The practice does not encourage a specific type of agriculture (must check for land practices that don't discriminate between the type of farming activities for which they aim to provide access to land)	<input type="checkbox"/> High nature value farming
<input type="checkbox"/> Industrial agriculture (large-scale agriculture using chemical inputs, genetic technology)	<input type="checkbox"/> For long supply chains
<input type="checkbox"/> Organic and derivatives: biodynamic, permaculture, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/> For direct sale or local supply chains
	<input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____

### III. ACTORS INVOLVED

#### 13.a. Type(s) of leading actor(s) (select maximum 3)\*

(?) a leading actor is the actor responsible for the development and implementation of the practice. There may be several actors co-conducting the implementation of a practice.

<input type="checkbox"/> EU agency or other EU-level entity <input type="checkbox"/> State agency or other state entity <input type="checkbox"/> Regional authority or other regional-level public entity <input type="checkbox"/> Local authority or other local-level public entity <input type="checkbox"/> Advisory services <input type="checkbox"/> Established farmer(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Local inhabitant(s) <input type="checkbox"/> New entrant(s) into agriculture <input type="checkbox"/> Newcomer(s) to a rural area <input type="checkbox"/> Farm successor(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Farmers' group(s) or farmers' union(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Rural development organisation(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Environmental organisation(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Community organisation(s), group(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Network(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Local educational or research institution(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other non-profit actor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other for profit actor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Public-private actor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
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#### 13.b. Please provide the names of the leading actor(s)

(?) this is only applicable if the leading actor is an organization, do not provide names of individuals

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#### 13.c. How would you qualify the origin of leading actors? (select only 1 option) \*

- Only local  
 Mostly local  
 Mixed  
 Mostly non-local  
 Only non-local

#### 14.a. Type(s) of active partner(s) (select all that apply) \*

(?) an active partner is not responsible for the action per se, but is involved in some aspects of its implementation (for instance, the "active partner" can be involved in a scheme where the leading actor would refer to them farmers who need advice on specific aspects – e.g. land management, s – unlike a "passive partner" such as a funder)

<input type="checkbox"/> EU agency or other EU-level entity <input type="checkbox"/> State agency or other state entity <input type="checkbox"/> Regional authority or other regional-level public entity <input type="checkbox"/> Local authority or other local-level public entity <input type="checkbox"/> Advisory services <input type="checkbox"/> Established farmer(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Local inhabitant(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Farmers' group(s) or farmers' union(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Rural development organisation(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Environmental organisation(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Community organisation(s), group(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Network(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Local educational or research institution(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other non-profit actor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other for profit actor(s)
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<input type="checkbox"/> New entrant(s) into agriculture <input type="checkbox"/> Newcomer(s) to a rural area <input type="checkbox"/> Farm successor(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Public-private actor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
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14.b. Please provide the names of the active partners and describe their role in the practice  
 (?) this is only applicable if the active partner is an organization, do not provide names of individuals

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14.c. How would you qualify the origin of active partners? (select only 1 option) \*

- Only local  
 Mostly local  
 Mixed  
 Mostly non-local  
 Only non-local

15. Type(s) of land user(s) favoured by the practice (select all that apply) \*

<input type="checkbox"/> Established farmer(s) <input type="checkbox"/> New entrant(s) into agriculture <input type="checkbox"/> Non-farming newcomer(s) to a rural areas <input type="checkbox"/> Farm successor(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Farming collective(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Local inhabitant(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Consumers <input type="checkbox"/> Forester(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
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16. Type(s) of landowner(s) involved in the practice (select all that apply)\*

<input type="checkbox"/> Public owner(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Farming private owner(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Non-farming private owner(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Community Farm Land Trust(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other land trust(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> Ethical company(-ies) (e.g. cooperatives, social enterprises...) <input type="checkbox"/> Church(es) <input type="checkbox"/> Commons <input type="checkbox"/> Other non-profit organisation(s) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
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17. Can you provide a more general comment on governance of the practice (e.g. roles leading and active partners, specific modes of organisation – participative, bottom-up, etc.) (max. 250 words)?

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## IV. ENABLING FACTORS AND LEVERAGED RESOURCES

18. Name 2-4 factors that have facilitated the realisation of the innovative practice. (max. 300 words)\*

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19. Name 2-4 factors that have hampered the realisation of the innovative practice. (max. 300 words)\*

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20. Type(s) of local and non-local resources the practice depends on (select all that apply)\*

<input type="checkbox"/> Financial (liquid capital/money) <input type="checkbox"/> Built (buildings, infrastructure, and other fixed assets, whether publicly, communally, or privately owned) <input type="checkbox"/> Natural (landscape, land, water catchments, forest, minerals, fish, wind, fire, farm stock, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Social (sectoral organisations, representative associations, social and sports clubs, religious groups, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Human (people's skills, knowledge, motivation, health, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Cultural (festivals, traditions, cultures of solidarity, cultures of entrepreneurship, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Political (presence of, and engagement in, "bottom-up" initiatives, empowerment, multi-level governance, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
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21. Please comment on the type, amount, and origin of funding (local or non-local) the practice depends on\*

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22. Other comments on the types of local or non-local resources the practice depends on (max. 250 words)

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## V. BENEFITS GENERATED AND IMPACTS ON RURAL REGENERATION

23. Types of resources the practice helps build, improve, sustain or protect (select all that apply)\*

<input type="checkbox"/> Financial (liquid capital/money) <input type="checkbox"/> Built (buildings, infrastructure, and other fixed assets, whether publicly, communally, or privately owned) <input type="checkbox"/> Natural (landscape, land, water catchments, forest, minerals, fish, wind, fire, farm stock, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Social (sectoral organisations, representative associations, social and sports clubs, religious groups, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/> Human (people's skills, knowledge, motivation, health, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Cultural (festivals, traditions, cultures of solidarity, cultures of entrepreneurship, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Political (presence of, and engagement in, "bottom-up" initiatives, empowerment, multi-level governance, etc.) <input type="checkbox"/> Other : _____
---	---

24. If possible, please provide approximate figures on\*:

Number of hectares acquired/protected/impacted	
Number of new entrants supported/impacted	
Number of other beneficiaries supported/impacted	
Number of full-time jobs supported	
Number of part-time/seasonal jobs supported	
Number of citizens (e.g. unpaid community actors) involved in the practice	

25. Does the practice contribute to a more diversified rural economy? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

26. Does the practice support rural entrepreneurship? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

27. Does the practice support knowledge generation, exchange, transfer? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

28. Does the practice generate community connections (strengthening of local networks, urban-rural connections, etc.)? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

29. Does the practice support sustainable use of resources, ecological transition or restoration of natural resources? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

30. Does the practice contribute to generational renewal in rural areas? If so, please describe how (max. 250 words) \*

31. Does the practice relate to gender issues? If so, please describe how (e.g. the practice is driven by, involves, supports or targets women) (max. 250 words) \*

32. What makes the practice innovative? Is this innovation adaptable, transferable to other contexts? (max. 250 words) \*

33. Besides impacts described above, do you have any other comment on how the practice supports local capacities, adaptation, and response to local challenges?

## VI. OTHER RESOURCES

34. If you have any additional comments, please provide them here. (max. 200 words)

35. If you have any additional resources relevant to the practice, please indicate them here (preferably with URLlinks). (max. 300 words) \*

36. Upload any pictures, word documents, pdfs.

Author of the questionnaire (name, organisation, email) \*

Land practice contact person (name, organisation, email or phone) \*

Contact person asked for consent to be included in the inventory\* (i.e. you sent them the template email or personalized email for consent)

Yes

No

Contact person gave consent to be included in the inventory\* (i.e. you received a response to the email)

Yes

No